

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter discusses the review of literature related to issue of the study. It includes several relevant theories dealing with perception, curriculum and curriculum development along with the components of curriculum and approaches to curriculum design. Furthermore, literature dealing with syllabus design, needs analysis, teaching English for young learners as well as related previous studies are also provided. This chapter also covers synthesis or concluding remarks from the literature being discussed.

2.1 An Overview of Perception

The focus of this present study is to identify students' needs in learning English as a Foreign Language by viewing teachers' perception towards the issue. Therefore, it is inevitable to take a look at the overview of perception in which the discussion covers the concepts of perception and the perceptual process and influencing factors of perception.

2.1.1 Concepts of Perception

Theories dealing with perception have become a highlight in the fields of Philosophy and Psychology. Several experts proposed their definitions toward the term *perception*. The term perception according to Lewis (2010) is etymologically derived from the Old French language term '*perpepcion*' which originally means the collecting of rents by feudal landlords. However, in present use, it refers to the collection of information of the world by means of the senses (Cutting, 1987 in Lewis, 2010). As in James Gibson' perspective, perception is defined as the detection of constant structures within stimulus information, which arises as the active perceiver moves through the environment (Braund, 2008, p.131). Meanwhile, according to Fish (2010, p.51) perception mainly deals with gaining

knowledge about the environment we live in. From the aforesaid definitions, it can be inferred that perception is the collection of information within the perceiver's environment seized by their senses.

In the process of forming information into a perception, a perceiver deals with at least three aspects namely cognitive aspect, affective aspect, and behavior aspect (Ferguson & Bargh, 2004; Wang, 2007). Wang (2007) asserts that perception is cognitive processes of the brain at the subconscious cognitive function layer that detects, relates, and interprets information in the mind. This implies that perception is a mental process involving the brain to proceed the seized information which further resulted as perceiver's view towards the information. Other aspect contributing in the process of shaping a perception is affective. It contributes in creating emotions towards the perception as a result of perceiver's reaction to external stimuli or events which is categorized into pleasant or unpleasant (Wang, *ibid.*). Krathwohl et al. (1964) proposed that in educational setting affective relates to attitudes of awareness, interest, attention, concern, responsibility, and ability to listen and respond in interactions with others. It also deals with ability to demonstrate those characteristics or values which are appropriate to the situation and field of the study. Meanwhile, dealing with behavior aspect, Ferguson and Bargh (2004) proposed that people's behavior is shaped and guided by the knowledge and memory activated during perception process. In other words, behavior can be concluded as the end result of the formed perception. The behavior can be reflected in actions through verbal and/or physical signs (Bergner, 2011).

Referring to the proposed research questions in this study, therefore it could be concluded that this study puts its major focus on cognitive aspects of perception. Teachers as respondents in the study were demanded to interpret information dealing with their students' needs and general skills overview as well. Meanwhile, affective and behavior aspects played role respectively in determining certain syllabus and teaching method to be implemented in teaching and learning activities.

2.1.2 The Perceptual Process and Influencing Factors

People go through several steps to finally shape a perception towards an object. Along the journey, several factors influence the end result of the formed perception. Braund (2008) and Fish (2010) highlighted that the process begins as the perceiver experiences multiple stimuli from the environment through their five senses. Lewis (2010) notes that perceiver with physiological difference and deficiency will therefore lead to different experiences and perception. This is the step where sheer amount of information is received by the perceiver. However, not all of the information is processed within the perceiver's brain. He/ she rather selects those which he/ she wants to notice based on several influencing factors: the perceiver, the target, and context of situation (Braund, 2008; Lewis, 2010). For instance, perceiver's difference in terms of gender, personality, cognitive differences (Lewis, *ibid.*), as well as perceiver's expertise, attitude, and beliefs (Bruggink et al., 2013) will contribute to different perception. The object's physical elements (intensity, contrast, and novelty) and dynamic elements (motion, repetition) also influence ones' perception (Lewis, *ibid.*). The next step is processing the experienced information through a frame of reference filter (Randolph & Blackburn, 1989 in Lewis, 2010). In this step, the perceiver will interpret the perceived phenomena or information by relying to their past and previous experience. Finally, the perceiver will assign a meaning for the selected and processed phenomena.

Figure 2.1 The Perceptual Process by Lewis (2010)



2.2 Curriculum and Curriculum Development

Any courses or language programs need a guidance to go through the programs they have arranged so as to meet the expected end of their learners. This guidance is in the form of written document called *curriculum*. Karavas (2014) refers to this term as a document which refers to the program of studies in an educational system or institution. Curriculum, according to McKimm (2009, p.714), further acts as a framework or design that enables learning to take place. It, in addition, reflects the educational and cultural philosophy of a country as well as its orientation towards language and language learning (Karavas, 2014). In short, curriculum can be defined as a compass to where an educational program or institution is heading their direction for achieving the determined goals.

Curriculum applied by any language programs is not valid permanently. In other words, it needs to be developed or improved. Due to that reason, curriculum development exists as an inseparable part in language teaching programs. Richards (2001) defines curriculum development as “the range of planning and implementation processes involved in developing or renewing a curriculum” (p.41). The development of certain curriculum is adjusted to several changes affecting learning environment coming up as a result of several processes. To be more specific, curriculum keeps changing over time as responding to worldwide ELT methodologies (Sahiruddin, 2013), anticipating students’ possible future life demands (Sukarno, 2013), facing the challenge of the globalized era (Hapsari, 2013), and responding to constraints occurred during the implementation of previous curriculum (Sukarno, *ibid.*). Richards (2001) mentions that the processes affecting curriculum development involve needs analysis, situational analysis, planning of learning outcomes, course organization, selection and preparation of teaching materials, and evaluation. Together these processes make up an ideal, improved curriculum.

As in the Indonesian educational context, curriculum has changed and developed several times. Since Indonesian Independence Day in 1945, Indonesian curriculum has changed for 11 times (Ministry of Education and Culture, 2012) started from using *Rencana Pelajaran* in 1947 until implementing the latest 2013 Curriculum. The changes are adjusted to the changing needs of the environment (Ministry of Education and Culture, *ibid.*), in terms of the changing condition of

political, cultural, social, science as well as technology. Additionally, the changing of the curriculum has also been affected by other countries' development in education.

During its journey in developing the curriculums, Indonesian government has implemented English subject in several elementary schools since 1992 (Sikki et al., 2013). However, the implementation of English subject is not compulsory. It rather stands as an elective subject or known as *local content* subject. English subject was firstly promoted as local content by the policy of Ministry of Education and Culture Number 0487/4/1992, Chapter VIII, stating that schools are allowed to add English subject in their curriculum as long as the lesson does not swerve from the national education goals. In order to support and strengthen the aforementioned policy, Ministry of Education and Culture issued another decree (Decree of Ministry of Education and Culture Number 090/U/1993) stating that English subject can be taught to students started from 4th grade of elementary school level. However, due to its capacity as a local content subject, English has no specific guidance listed in the implemented curriculum concerning its learning materials or content.

Either in preparing or developing a curriculum for any language programs, there are several approaches that can be viewed in order to provide direction during the process. Any approaches chosen will further affect the teaching and learning process. The approaches to language curriculum design will be explained below. However, components of a curriculum will be discussed beforehand in order to gain a more comprehensive understanding towards the issue being discussed.

2.2.1 Components of a Curriculum

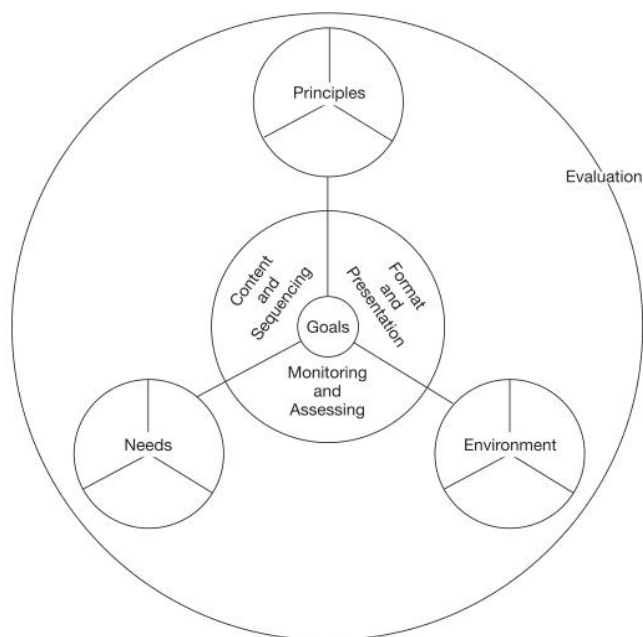
Curriculum is viewed differently in various ways by some experts. Posner (1992) significantly divides curriculum into two concepts, as the expected ends of education and as the expected means of education. As the expected ends of education, curriculum is defined as the objectives for which schools hold students accountable, such as the intended learning outcomes. Meanwhile, the

later refers to curriculum as a set of instructional strategies teachers plan to use, for an instance instructional plans. Aside from Posner's view, Nunan (1988) comes up with definition of curriculum by firstly comparing between 'traditional curriculum' and his proposed definition. He asserts that a traditional curriculum refers to a statement or statements of intent, stating 'what should be' in a course of a study. Nunan believed that rather than stating 'what should be', a curriculum would better be seen in terms of what teachers actually do, that is in terms of 'what is' (1988, p.1). This perspective proposed by Nunan leads to his work of learner-centered curriculum.

In spite of various perspectives towards its definition, curriculum gains similar views towards its components addressed by various experts. Posner (1992, p.5) examined some concepts of curriculum as scope and sequence, syllabus, content outline, textbooks, course of study, and planned experiences. Meanwhile, Nunan (1988, p.4) explicitly stated that the key elements in curriculum are initial planning procedures (including data collection and learner grouping), content selection and gradation, methodology, ongoing monitoring, assessment and evaluation. Nation and Macalister (2010) provided even clearer components of curriculum summarizing Posner as well as Nunan's perspectives in figure 2.2 shown below. There are three layers of circle presented in Nation and Macalister's model. They represent the inner circle in the model as syllabus that make up a curriculum (2010, p.1). It is a common thing happened in a discussion concerning curriculum that syllabus is said to be curriculum in a smaller scope. Indeed, a syllabus must be related to a broader curriculum (Brumfit, 1984, p.2). In both inner circle and outer circle, there is goal in the center. It emphasizes the importance and significance of having clear goals for a course. In addition, it can be seen in the model that the inner circle representing syllabus consists of content and sequencing, format and presentation, and monitoring and assessing. Those components are covered by the outer layer of needs, principles, and environment which contribute to the decision making in the inner layer. Meanwhile, the existence of evaluation in the largest circle stands as the evaluation of curriculum as a whole, in an attempt of giving consideration of whether or not the curriculum

should be continuously implemented or improved. This issue deals with the curriculum analysis and curriculum development.

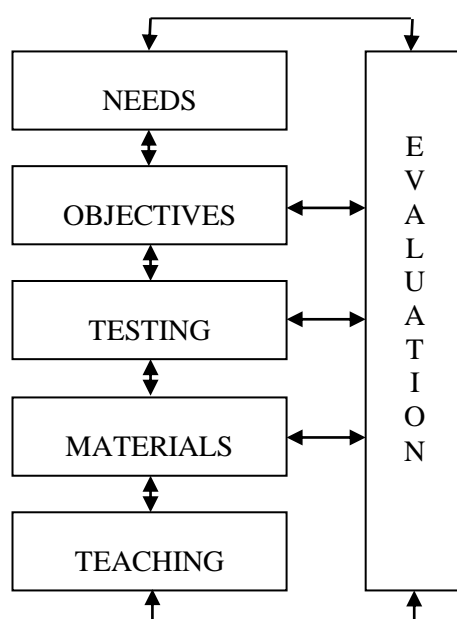
Figure 2.2 Components of Curriculum by Nation and Macalister (2010)



Furthermore, Brown (1995) also gave contribution in describing the components of curriculum. The components are reflected in his approach to designing and maintaining language curriculum. As shown in figure 2.3, the components listed are needs, objectives, testing, materials, teaching, and evaluation. This model is claimed by Brown (ibid.) as “a set of stages for logical program development and a set of components for the improvement and maintenance of an already existing language program” (p.19). In addition, this model is also aimed at providing a continuous process of curriculum development and maintenance. Need becomes the first component that is analyzed for the purpose of gathering students’ view towards their wants in learning as well as for observing their present skills in the language. The information gathered will further be significant in deciding upon further decisions dealing with curriculum development. Specifically saying, the result from needs analysis will be reflected

in course objectives. Meanwhile, testing is conducted for several purposes, such as to test students' language proficiency or to measure students' achievement. In other case, materials in this term deal with material development as a result of preliminary sets of needs analysis, objectives and tests that provides teachers with several options whether they need to adapt, adopt, or developed materials for a program. Teaching refers to the most effective ways for teaching the courses to the students. Meanwhile, evaluation in this model plays similar role as the one in Nation and Macalister's model, which is as a consideration towards the existing curriculum whether or not the curriculum should be continued to be implemented or should be developed.

Figure 2.3 Components of Curriculum by Brown (1995)



In short, it can be concluded that there are four major components in a curriculum namely objectives or goals of a program, learning materials, methodology that covers learning techniques and learning procedures, and evaluation as a means of assessment. Objectives or goals come up as the end result of needs analysis. The needs analysis is conducted beforehand in order to facilitate students' needs in learning. The objectives further act as guidance in maintaining the language program. Therefore, a course or a language program is

to have clear stated goals. Meanwhile, learning materials deal with the selection and gradation of the materials used in learning. Consideration of contents or materials makes sure that there is something useful for learners to learn to advance their language proficiency (Nation & Macalister, 2010, p.2). Considerations are given not only towards the materials selection and development, but also towards several techniques or procedures that help learning. All in all, the running course should be evaluated continuously in order to seek the effectiveness of the program for the students' improvement. The evaluation in a smaller scope can also be conducted to evaluate students' performances towards the objectives of the lesson.

2.2.2 Approaches to Language Curriculum Design

Development and implementation of curriculum in any language programs can be approached in several different ways. Richards (2013, p.6) lists three curriculum approaches that might influence the process of curriculum development and implementation as *forward design*, *central design*, and *backward design*. The selection of certain approach will lead to different implications for curriculum design.

The three aforementioned approaches are different one to another respectively in terms of input, process, and outcomes in curriculum design. Input as defined by Richards (ibid.) is the linguistic content of a course. It deals with what content to be taught as well as how the content will be arranged into teachable and learnable units. The end result of this input is realized in the form of syllabus. Process, as Richards (ibid.) points out, refers to how teaching is conducted in language teaching. In other words, process covers the types of learning activities, procedures, and techniques applied by teachers during teaching and learning activities. Meanwhile, output deals with learning outcomes or what learners are expected to be able to do as a result of learning (Richards, 2013, p. 7).

Input, process, and output each can become a start in curriculum development. Richards (ibid.) responds to this by saying that curriculum development in language teaching can start from input, process or output yet each starting point will affect both the means and ends of teaching and learning. It is

this different starting point of curriculum's dimension that resulted in different curriculum approaches. In forward design, the curriculum is developed by moving from input, to process and to output. In central design, the starting point is the process, while input and output are coming from classroom methodology. Meanwhile, backward design is started with output, while input as well as process will follow it. Richards (2013, p.8) summarizes the three approaches as follow:

Figure 2.4 The Forward Design by Richards (2013)



Figure 2.5 The Central Design by Richards (2013)

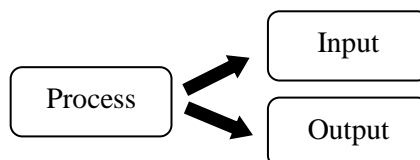
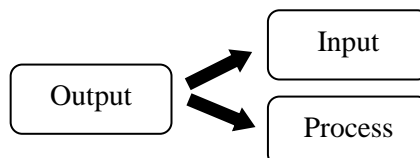


Figure 2.6 The Backward Design by Richards (2013)

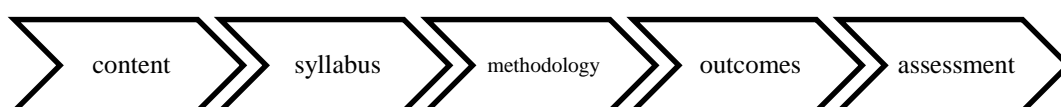


Forward design based its assumption that the three components of curriculum are to be in a linear sequence. In other words, decisions about the methodology as well as the output can only be determined once the decision dealing with the content has been resolved (Richards, 2013, p.8). Having this fixed order, therefore, forward design is said to be similar to Tessmer and Wedman's "waterfall model" of curriculum (Nation & Macalister, 2010, p.142-144). In Tessmer and Wedman's "waterfall model", the output from one stage will become the input for the stage that follows it. Wiggins and McTighe (2006, p.15) provide an illustration of a forward design lesson plan as follow:

First, the teacher chooses a topic for the lesson (e.g. racial prejudice). Then, he/she selects a resource (e.g. a book entitled *To Kill a Mockingbird*). The teacher then chooses instructional methods based on the resource and the topic (e.g. seminar to discuss the book and cooperative groups to analyze stereotypical images in films and on television). After that, the teacher chooses essay questions to assess students' understanding of the book.

In short, a curriculum design that implements a forward design can be represented in a figure shown below.

Figure 2.7 Implementing a Forward Design by Richards (2013)



Different from forward design, in central design teachers initially come up with the process. In other words, teachers will firstly think about the activities and teaching procedures that will be conducted in the classroom (Richards, 2013, p.14) while the input and output will follow the decision dealing with the process. Leung (2012) as cited in Richards (2013) proposed central design as a ‘learner-focused and learning-oriented perspective’ due to its capability of identifying the process of inquiry and deliberation that drive teaching and learning (e.g. discussion, interpretation, co-operating with others, etc.). Richards (ibid.) illustrates Gategno’s Silent Way (see Brown, 2001) as an example of the implementation of central design. Silent Way is not started with the language input. Its starting point is a view that learning is a problem-solving, creative process of discovery. Using Cuisenaire rods (rods of different lengths and colors) and pronunciation charts, Silent Way focuses the process of learning in students’ comprehension, memory, and recall and put the core of its learning in the mastery of grammar and vocabulary.

Meanwhile, backward design begins with the output and uses this as the guideline and basis in determining the input and the process. In other words, backward design is started with the desired results or outcomes (Richards, 2013, p.20). Having the same sound, Wiggins and McTighe (2006) assert that it should begin with a question of “What would we accept as evidence that students have

attained the desired understanding and proficiencies- before proceedings to plan teaching and learning experiences?” Tyler (1949) and Taba (1962) as cited in Richards (2013) provided the process of a backward design as follow:

- Step 1: diagnosis of needs;
- Step 2: formulation of objectives;
- Step 3: selection of content;
- Step 4: organization of content;
- Step 5: selection of learning experiences;
- Step 6: organization of learning experiences;
- Step 7: determination of what to evaluate and of the ways of doing it.

2.3 Syllabus Design

In developing a course, there are a number of stages that should be conducted such as developing the course rationale, describing entry and exit levels, as well as planning the course structure. In planning the course structure, there are two aspects that require more detailed planning according to Richards (2001, p.152), those are selecting a syllabus framework and developing instructional blocks.

The term syllabus in language teaching, most of the time, is highly related to a broader field of curriculum. While curriculum can be defined as general statements about learning purpose, evaluation and the role relationship of teacher and learners (Candlin, 1984 in Nunan, 1989, p.1), syllabus according to Nunan (1989) is more localized. Having the similar sound to Nunan, Richards (1984, p.2) refers to syllabus as the narrower sense of curriculum. In other words, syllabus is used based on accounts on what actually happens in the classroom where teachers and learners apply the curriculum implemented in the school. In short, it can be said that syllabus is the realization of the chosen curriculum in a smaller scope.

Syllabus as a part of curriculum is defined by Posner (1992, p.5) as a plan for the whole course consisting of goals, topics covered, resources used, assignments given, and evaluation. Additionally, McKay (1978) as cited in Brown (1995, p.7) stated that syllabus provides the content to be studied and a rationale for how that content should be selected and ordered. The collection of items of

content in a syllabus is sequenced in order to facilitate and optimize learners' learning in the classrooms (Candlin, 1984, p.31). It is clear from the aforementioned statements that a syllabus should consist of goals of the lesson, content, assignments as well as evaluation. Accordingly, in dealing with syllabus design, Krahne (1987) explicitly stated that designing a syllabus means deciding what to be taught and in what order.

As in a syllabus design, different focus on certain course might lead to different syllabus framework to be implemented. Richards (2001, p.152) argues that in choosing particular syllabus framework, planners are influenced by several factors such as knowledge and beliefs about the subject area (ideas and beliefs about the nature of speaking, reading, writing, or listening), research on language use and learning as well as applied linguistics theory, common practice (language teaching profession that has built up considerable practical experience in developing language programs), and trends whether it is national or international trends. For instance, a syllabus framework implemented by a teacher during the golden age of Gatego's Silent Way will considerably different from the framework chosen by a recent teacher believing that Communicative Language Teaching offers more significant improvement towards learners' learning.

Dealing with implementation of syllabus framework in a course, Richards (2001, p.153-165) provides some possible syllabi to be chosen. The first option is *Grammatical (or structural) syllabus*. In this framework, the syllabus planner is typically mapping out grammar together with potential lesson content in the form of topics, skills, and activities. Therefore, grammatical syllabus often differs from one course to the next even when targeting the same proficiency level.

The next proposed syllabus framework is *Lexical syllabus*. It is a syllabus in which word frequency would determine the contents of the course. This syllabus will identify a target vocabulary to be taught which is normally arranged according to levels such as the first 500 vocabulary, 1000, 1500, and so on. For example, Level 1 will aim to cover the most frequent 700 words together with their common patterns and use. Level 2 will recycle these words and go on to cover the next 800 words to bring up to the 1500 level.

Functional syllabus comes up with different focus from the aforementioned syllabi. According to Krahne (1987), the content in functional syllabus is a collection of the functions that are performed when language is used. Furthermore, Richards (ibid.) explains that it is a syllabus which is organized around communicative functions such as requesting, complaining, agreeing, etc. This syllabus seeks to analyze the concept of communicative competence into its different components on the assumptions that mastery of individual functions will result in overall communicative ability. Due to its focus on communication skill, functional syllabus is particularly suitable to courses focusing on spoken English.

Meanwhile, *Situational syllabus* is defined as a syllabus that is organized around the language needed for different situations such as at the airport or at a hotel. It identifies the situation in which the learner will use the language and the typical communicative acts and language used in that setting. Additionally, it usually also involves several participants who are engaged in specific activity in certain setting (Krahne, 1987). This syllabus is often used in books that focus on mastering expression frequently encountered in particular situations. It has the advantage of presenting language in context and teaching language of immediate practical use.

The next possible syllabus to be chosen is *Topical or content-based syllabus*. It is a syllabus which is organized around themes, topics, or other units of content. Krahne (ibid.) claimed that the purpose of this syllabus is to teach some content or information using the language that the students are learning. In this syllabus, content is the starting point in syllabus design rather than grammar, functions, or situations. Therefore, content provides the vehicle for the presentation of language rather than the other way around. This syllabus has often been a feature of ESL programs in elementary or secondary schools where the teaching of English is integrated with science, mathematics, and social sciences. It is also used by ESL programs for students at university level.

Another preference offered by Richards (ibid.) is *Competency-based syllabus*. It is a syllabus which is based on a specification of the competencies learners are expected to master in specific situations and activities. Competencies in this case are defined as a description of the essential skills, knowledge, and

attitudes required for effective performance of particular tasks and activities. This syllabus is usually used in social survival and work-oriented language programs.

Skills syllabus is defined as a syllabus that is organized around the underlying abilities that are involved in using a language for purposes such as reading, writing, listening, or speaking. Principle in this syllabus is built based on the belief that learning a complex activity involves mastery of a number of individual skills or micro skills that together make up the activity. Skills syllabus is probably more relevant to situations in which students have very specific and identifiable needs (such as preparing for university-level studies in English).

Meanwhile, *Task-based syllabus* can be defined as a syllabus which is organized around tasks that students will complete in the target language. Accordingly, it is stated by Krahnke (ibid.) that the content in this syllabus consists of a series of complex and purposeful tasks that the students want or need to perform using the language they are learning. This syllabus is based on tasks that have been specially designed to facilitate second language learning and in which tasks or activities are the basic units of syllabus design. There are two kinds of tasks as a basis for syllabus design: pedagogical tasks and real-world tasks. The previous are based on SLA theory and are designed to trigger second language learning processes and strategies. Meanwhile, the later are designed to practice or rehearse those activities that are found to be important in a needs analysis and turn out to be important and useful in the real world.

The next syllabus is *Text-based syllabus*. It is a syllabus that is built around texts and samples of extended discourse. It is a type of situational approach because the starting point in planning this syllabus is analysis of contexts in which the learners will use the language. In teaching from a text-based syllabus, Richards (ibid.) stated that there should be five-part cycle involving in the learning process namely building the context for the text, modeling and deconstructing the text, joint construction of the text, independent construction of the text, and linking related texts.

The last syllabus framework is named *an Integrated syllabus*. It is a syllabus that combines several frameworks into one. The fact shows that decisions about suitable syllabus frameworks for a course reflect different priorities in

teaching rather than absolute choices. In practical terms, therefore, all syllabuses reflect some degree of integration. The issue highlighted here is, which foci will be central in planning the syllabus and which will be secondary?

Not only choosing suitable syllabus frameworks for a course, but syllabus planners need also to map it out in terms of instructional blocks or sections. Dealing with instructional block, Richards (2001) explains that it is “a self-contained learning sequence that has its own goals and objectives and that also reflects the overall objectives for the course” (p.165). It represents the instructional focus of the course and may be very specific (e.g. a single lesson) or more general (e.g. a unit of work consisting of several lessons). It is intended to make the course more teachable and learnable, to provide a progression in level of difficulty, and to create overall coherence and structure for the course. In short, instructional blocks can be said as purposeful steps in teaching and learning activities referring to the goals of learning so as one step to another step is bridgeable for learners.

The decisions of choosing the suitable frameworks as well as determining the instructional blocks of the syllabus should be based on analysis of learners’ needs (Richards, 2001, p.52). Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.53) supporting this by stating that any course should be based on analysis of learner’s need. In other words, needs analysis, along with situational analysis, are the basis in curriculum development that must be involved in the process.

2.4 Needs Analysis

Need analysis was firstly introduced into language teaching through the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) movement after World War II. Lots of people- immigrants, refugees as well as foreign students- were creating a huge demand for English courses in many parts of the world. The role of English as an international language was then increased rapidly by the 1950s (Richards, 2001, p.23). It happened due to the greater mobility of people as air travel and international tourism grew quite greatly. Additionally, many people needed English in international trade and commerce. This increasing role had created the

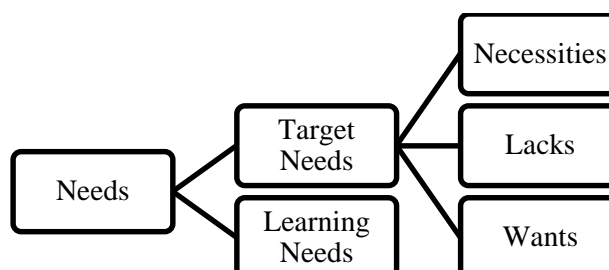
need for practical command of English rather than an academic mastery of English happened likely in a typical school course. Therefore, in order to meet the changing needs of the learners, more up-to-date teaching methods were needed. The new methods were then selected based on an analysis conducted to the users of the language. The analysis was then known as needs analysis.

Even though the work of needs analysis becomes the domain of ESP, Seedhouse (1995) as cited in Setiawan (2009) proved that needs analysis could also be carried out in a General English classroom. He conducted an analysis showing that needs analysis closely dealt with problem solving and that it could be used as a basis for designing aims, courses, and materials. Additionally, he explicitly stated that needs, aims, and materials were dearly linked one to another. Similarly, Richards (2001, p.53) also concluded that needs analysis is possible to be conducted in an EFL context. In that context where English is taught as a compulsory subject, students tend to learn English in a less purposeful way compared to those learning English in an ESP context. In this case, needs analysis is somehow beneficial for both students and teachers in exploring the most suitable materials as well as methodologies chosen that promote betterment in learning. In responding to this, Crocker (1981, in Astika, 1999, p.32) asserts that ESP courses are actually different from language learning in general merely on the emphasis on language use aside from the focus of interest. All in all, needs analysis has the same importance to be conducted in General English classroom, including in an EFL context.

2.4.1 Concepts of Needs

The term '*needs*' is not as straightforward as it might appear. Many experts express their own definition towards this term. Brindley (1984) as quoted by Richards (2001, p.54) states that the term is sometimes used to refer to wants, desires, demands, expectation, lacks, and so on. Hutchinson and Waters (1987), Richards (2001) as well as Richterich (1975) all have different interpretation towards the definition of needs.

Figure 2.8 Hutchinson and Waters's Definition of Needs (1987)



Hutchinson and Waters (1987) divide needs into *target needs* and *learning needs*. They stated that “‘target needs’ is something of an umbrella term, which in practice hides a number of important distinctions” (p.55). Hence, it is more useful to look at target needs in terms of *necessities*, *lacks*, and *wants*. ‘Necessities’ is what the student has to know in order to function effectively in the target situation. ‘Lacks’ is the gap between necessities and what the student knows already, and ‘wants’ is student’s view as to what their needs are. Meanwhile, learning needs are defined by Hutchinson and Waters (ibid.) by linking it to an analogy of a journey. As a journey, lacks are considered as the starting point while necessities are the destination. Wants are said to be some dispute of what the destination should be. Learning needs are seen as the answer to a question of ‘How are we going to get from the starting point to the destination?’ In other words, learning needs can also be defined as strategies realized in techniques, procedures, methods as an effort to reach the destination in learning by considering some aspects such as student’s background and motivation.

Richards (2001, p.54) on the other side put different emphasis on needs by defining it in terms of a linguistic deficiency, which is as the differences between what a student can presently do in a language and what he should be able to do. However, what is identified as a need is dependent on judgment and reflects the interests and values of those making such judgment. Needs identified by students might be different from those identified by teachers, parents, or other

stakeholders. Therefore, in gathering the information dealing with students' needs, information can be collected from more than one perspective to furthermore be identified and negotiated by the curriculum planner. Responding to this matter, Dubin and Olstain (1986) stated that in gathering information towards the students, needs analysts can call on specialists who can provide the information needed.

Quite different from the previous two definitions posed by Hutchinson and Waters as well as Richards, Richterich (1975) divides needs in terms of *objective needs* and *subjective needs*. The former refers to the needs which derived from factual information about learners, dealing with their current language proficiency and their difficulties in English learning. Meanwhile, subjective needs deal with learners' cognitive and affective needs in learning situation. The information in respect of subjective needs are for example learners' personality, confidence, attitudes, learners' wants and expectation in learning as well as their preferred learning style and strategies (Setiawan, 2009). Araminta and Halimi (2015) as well as Al-Saadi (2013) linked these objective and subjective needs into Berwick's (1989) *perceived* and *felt needs*. They stated that objective and perceived needs are external factors that influence the needs, while subjective and felt needs are considered as the internal factors. However, Richterich and Chancerel (1987) as quoted in Fatihi (2003) stated that problems might occur in defining the learners' needs as it varies too much from one to another that the system should have to be continually adapted. Additionally, Richterich and Chancarel (1987, in Fatihi, 2003) also stated that "learner is little aware of his needs and, in particular, he is unable to express them in very clear terms" (p.44).

The aforementioned definitions of needs have something in common stating that needs are the gap between the recent condition of learners and the future goal of what language competencies the learners are expected to have.

2.4.2 Concepts of Needs Analysis

In line with various interpretations towards definitions of needs, needs analysis also gains several perspectives from the experts. Dealing with needs analysis, or else known as needs assessment, Carter and Nunan (2001) viewed it as an analysis to determine what students need to be able to do in English in their educational or professional situation. Casper (2003) in Ampa et al. (2013) further added that the analysis should include information that covers students' learning needs, wants, wishes, or desires. Iwai et al. (1999) provided a more comprehensive definition of needs analysis stating that it is the analysis of learners' subjective and objective information which is used to validate the current used curriculum so as to satisfy learners' needs in learning and is conducted within particular institution where teaching and learning occur.

From the above definitions, therefore, it can be inferred that needs analysis deals with several steps in gathering some information about the learners for the sake of their improvement in learning. The information collected in the analysis can be categorized into subjective and objective information. This information will further be used to change, evaluate, design or develop the existing curriculum.

2.4.3 Purposes of Needs Analysis

Richards (2001, p.52) proposed that the very first step to do in conducting a needs analysis is to decide exactly what its purpose or purposes are. This is supported by Lowe (2009) who says that the starting point in conducting needs analysis is questioning why the analysis is being done. Furthermore, Lowe (ibid.) also added that determining the purpose of needs analysis means questioning who to ask and what to be asked. Deciding the purpose or purposes of conducting the analysis as the initial movement will further guide the analysts of their next steps.

Needs analysis in language teaching, as cited in Richards (2001, p.52), may be used for a number of different purposes. Analysts can conduct needs analysis to find out what language skills a student needs in order to perform a particular role, such as sales manager, tour guide, or university student. It can also

be conducted to help determine if an existing course addresses the needs of potential students, to identify a change of direction that people in a reference group feel is important, and many more. Additionally, Maharashtra English Language Initiative for Secondary School (ELISS) in 2013 provided data that needs analysis can also be used in order to assess students' current levels, identify any similarities and differences between different categories of schools, as well as to ensure that all stakeholders' voices are considered to increase any commitment to any potential project. Furthermore, needs analysis is also beneficial as it serves as a means of obtaining a wider input into the content, design, and implementation of language program (Richards & Nunan, 1984 in Ali & Salih, 2013).

Any purpose or purposes determined by curriculum planners will influence the time needs analysis is conducted. According to Richards (2001, p.54), needs analysis may be conducted prior to, during, or after a language program. For example, if the analysis is aimed to find out what language skills a student needs in order to perform a particular role, then the needs analysis will better be conducted in the beginning of a language program. If needs analysis is purposefully done as a curriculum review, it can be conducted during or after a language program (Balint, 2005).

2.4.4 Participants in Needs Analysis

In conducting needs analysis, there are multiple stakeholders, who all have some roles, directly or indirectly, in the design of the syllabus. These include the teacher, the students, the current/future employers, the administration of the educational institution, etc. (Chovancova, 2014). In specific, Robinson (1991) as cited in Chovancova (ibid.) points out that “needs may be investigated from the perspective of teachers, that of the learners or that of the employers who are funding the language course” (p.47).

Compared to the aforementioned statements, Brown (1995, p.37) systematically grouped four categories of people that may involve in needs analysis. Those are the target group, the audience, the needs analysts, and the resource group. Each of these individuals plays different roles in needs analysis.

The target group is made up of those people about whom information will ultimately be gathered. Richards (2001, p.57) refer to this group as target population. *The audience* should encompass all people who will eventually be required to act upon the analysis. This group usually consists of teachers, program administrators, and any governing bodies or supervisors in the bureaucracy above the language program. Another term is used by Richards (2001, p.55) to label this group; the users of needs analysis. Furthermore, *the needs analysts* are those persons responsible for conducting the needs analysis. They may be consultants brought in for the purpose, or members of the faculty designed for the job. Dealing with the role of needs analysts, Richards (2001, p.59) proposed that one of teacher's ongoing responsibilities is to conduct an informal needs analysis in the course he/ she is teaching. The information could be gathered from the chats with the students. Needs analysts will probably be responsible for identifying the other three groups. Meanwhile, *the resource group* consists of any people who may serve as sources of information about the target group.

In identifying each of these groups, a painstaking care must be taken (Brown, 1995). Reviere et al. (1996) as quoted by Titcomb (2000) stated that "...the most serious conceptual flaws in needs assessment research involve problems with sampling, failing to gather the right information to measure the desired components of needs" (p.2). Deciding upon the purpose or purposes of conducting the analysis beforehand will better guide the analysts of choosing the appropriate sources of information to be asked as well as what information should be gathered.

2.4.5 Advantages and Obstacles of Conducting Needs Analysis

Lekatompessy (2010) in line with Carter and Nunan's (2001) opinion proposed that needs analysis has a vital role in the process of designing and carrying out any language course and considered as a crucial component of systematic curriculum development. Nunan (1988) as well as Richards (1984, p.5) further proposed that needs analysis is the first step to be conducted in the

curriculum process. Nunan (ibid.) somehow added that the data collected from needs analysis is usually superficial, related to information such as current proficiency level, age, educational background, previous learning experience, time in the target culture and previous and current occupation as well as subjective information such as students' preferred learning arrangement and methodology.

Not only plays role as the basis in deciding lesson objectives, needs analysis as stated in ELT Voices India (2013) also has some advantages. Needs analysis helps teachers create in-class activities in which the students can utilize learned skills and knowledge as tools to meet their real-life needs in meaningful ways. In addition, needs analysis also helps teachers understand local needs of students and make practical decision in pedagogy and assessment for improvement and also for the selection of appropriate teaching methods in a program. The next benefit gathered from doing needs analysis depicts in a proficiency-oriented curriculum where it can help teachers understand the potential difference in learning expectations between themselves and their students. Furthermore, a program that attempts to meet students' needs will be more motivating and successful.

However, in spite of its significances, needs analysis is also faced with some obstacles to be performed. Krahnke (1987, p.82) stated that there are some difficulties to perform such analysis. The first reason is related to economic. Many teaching programs simply do not have time, financial resources, and expertise needed to carry out a really useful needs analysis. Second reason is due to its practicality. Krahnke (ibid.) said that such analyses may require an extensive time investment. It may require months of observing lectures, interviewing teachers and students, collecting examples of written work, analyzing texts, and so on. Furthermore, he added that converting the systematic analysis into a syllabus may take an equal amount of time and effort. Finally, a needs analysis may reveal that students' needs are so broad that a useful selection of content is difficult to make.

Despite the obstacles existed in performing needs analysis, it remains worth to be conducted as it offers many beneficial in supporting learners' learning. The obstacles rather stand as further proof that researches focusing in

this field will contribute to teachers and schools with time and financial limitation in conducting such analysis.

2.5 English for Young Learners

This current study deals with the needs of fifth graders in learning English as a Foreign Language. Therefore, this sub chapter provides literature review towards characteristics of young learners as well as the way they learn English. Additionally, literature dealing with issues of teaching English for young learners in the Indonesian context is also available.

2.5.1 Characteristics of Young Learners

Before entering the class, it is imperative for teachers to know who they are going to teach. Harmer (2007b) explicitly stated that one of teachers' tasks before conducting teaching and learning activity is to know their learners' characteristics. One way of knowing their characteristics is by taking a general view towards their age (Brown, 2001; Harmer, 2007b). By knowing their learners range of age, it will be easier for teachers to identify learners' need more precisely and therefore to manage what and how they should learn. Learners with different age will obviously have different needs, competences, and cognitive skills. Without having enough knowledge of who they are going to teach, teachers with their teaching and learning activities will not accommodate learners' improvement well in their learning. Therefore, there is no doubt that learners' characteristics are the cornerstone in developing further steps in teaching and learning.

Dealing with learners' age, Harmer (2007b) divided it into three stages: young children, adolescent, and adult. It is also in line with Brown (2001) who addressed learning in terms of age into three stages: children, teen and adult. Meanwhile, Harley et al. (1995, in Cameron, 2001, p.15) further divided children

stage into younger children (7-8 years) and older children (12-14 years). Since the object in this current study is fifth graders whose range of age fall in children stage, therefore, the focus in this section will be on children stage along with their characteristics.

Brown (2001, p.87) provides five guidelines in terms of children's characteristics which can help teacher with some practical approaches in teaching children. The first one is dealing with intellectual development. Piaget (1972) in Brown (2001, p.88) stated that children whose age is about eleven years old are still in an intellectual stage called 'concrete operations'. This means that they have limitation in understanding abstract things. Therefore, in teaching children, teachers should avoid the explanation of grammar terms like 'present progressive' or 'relative clause'. Several rules about how to make sentences should also be avoided. Certain difficult concepts or patterns that children need to know can be introduced by using repetition without making them bored or confusing them.

The second focus proposed by Brown (ibid.) deals with children's attention span. Brown (ibid.) as well as Harmer (2007b, p.82) believed that children has short span of attention. Cameron (2001) supporting the aforementioned issue by stating that "children are generally less able to give selective and prolonged attention to features of learning tasks than adults" (p.15). As a result, they are easily getting bored and easily diverted and distracted by other pupils. Teachers therefore need a variety of activities to keep their interest and attention alive. Teachers have to be animated, lively and enthusiastic about the subject matter.

The next guideline deals with children's sensory input. Brown (ibid.) stated that children's five senses need to be simulated. Musthafa (2010) in his article refers to this issue by mentioning hands-on physical activities. He proposed that "young children's learning is greatly enhanced when the learners are engaged in hands-on physical activities such as playing with physical objects or making physical movements" (p.121). This statement is in line with Brown (ibid.) who stated that learners' five senses need to be simulated to perform better learning by providing activities like doing English projects, games, making posters, etc. Harmer (2007b) also commenting on this by saying that children understand

things not only from the explanation but also from what they see, hear, touch and interact with.

The fourth issue is about affective factors. Children are sensitive, especially to their peers (Brown, 2001). Teachers are therefore should make sure that they can make the children still comfortable even when they do mistakes. Harmer (2007b) dealing with this issue stated that children need approval from their teacher. As a consequence, teachers have to be more patient and supportive to build children's self-esteem.

The last guideline offered by Brown (ibid.) deals with authentic, meaningful language. Other characteristic of children is that they are good at sensing language that is not authentic (Brown, 2001). Teachers have to make sure that they use language that can be used by them here and now. This matter should be taken into consideration seriously by teachers teaching young learners. Copland et al. (2014) revealed that one of the challenges faced by teachers of young learners is their own level of English used in the classroom.

2.5.2 Young Learners and English Learning

As it has been mentioned, learners with different age will have different needs, competences, and cognitive skills in learning. Musthafa (2010) asserts in his article that "children are children, not little adults" (p.121). For that reason, teachers are to be prepared with bulk of knowledge about their children learners; their characteristics as well as how they learn. Otherwise, English teaching will not work as it is expected.

To promote well learning process for young learners to learn English, there are several principles that teachers must be aware of. Musthafa (2010, p.121-122) has synthesized some learning principles that accomplished teachers of English should be knowledgeable about effective teaching of English to young learners. The first principle is children learn from direct experiences. Musthafa (ibid.) explained that children build their knowledge from what they experience directly and from what they can capture using their senses. In other words, in choosing materials to be presented to the learners, teacher should select the ones

that are dear to their daily life. Teacher's creativity is challenged in providing the best materials that suit learners' background. In assisting learners with direct experience-based materials, teacher will have to select and pick the materials that is easily understood and not confusing the learners; the ones that they have already known or experienced.

The second principle is children learn from hands-on physical activities. Dealing with hands-on physical activities, Musthafa (2010), as it has been aforementioned above, proposed that "young children's learning is greatly enhanced when the learners are engaged in hands-on physical activities such as playing with physical objects or making physical movements" (p.121). In other words, hands-on physical activities can be defined as activities in teaching and learning involving learners' physical movements. Therefore, instead of learning by merely sitting and listening to what the teacher says, learners are demanded to actively do something as a process of their learning.

The third principle is thinking which embedded in here-and-now context of situation. Musthafa (ibid.) stated that children tend to focus on what is happening and can be experienced at that time. For that reason, it would be more beneficial if the teachers make use the supporting materials existing around the children's environment, such as using materials in the classroom. By doing this, the teaching and learning of English can serve and depict a real purpose and therefore will motivate children's learning motivation because they see that English is useful (Mustahfa, 2010). The next proposed principle is children learn from whole to part- holistically- using scripts. This principle is closely related to direct experience principle in which children will find it easier to learn things which they have been experienced before. By whole to parts learning means that teachers should start beforehand with children's existing knowledge and experience once they attempt to insert new materials to the children. Musthafa (ibid.) provides the example as 'eating in a restaurant'. Children would construct the script as coming in, making an order, being waited on, eating, pay the bills, and then leaving. This script will later be modified once they have the meal in an 'all-you-can-eat' restaurant where customers help themselves. In this way,

children will be more facilitated in their learning once the material starts from their existing experience.

The last principle deals with children's attention span. As it has been explained above, children have limited span of attention (Brown, 2001; Cameron, 2001; Harmer, 2007b). Musthafa (ibid.) added that children can only hold their attention for about 15 to 20 minutes. It has implication for teaching procedures. Teachers, rather than using a large time block for an uninterrupted session, would better divide the time block into several chunks of smaller activities where children are engaged in different and smaller chunks of learning activities (Musthafa, 2010). Therefore, teachers should be equipped with various teaching techniques to avoid children's boredom in learning.

2.5.3 Issues of Teaching English for Young Learners in the Indonesian Context

English has gained its popularity as a lingua franca and therefore has been increasing awareness of lots of countries worldwide to teach English to their people at earlier stage. As in Asia context, English teaching practice to children remains in its infancy (Paul, 2003). In Indonesia, English was firstly implemented in elementary schools in 1992. English as a subject was firstly promoted by the policy of Ministry of Education and Culture Number 0487/4/1992, Chapter VIII. During its journey, challenges arise in its implementation in elementary schools in Indonesia. Issues being highlighted in this sub chapter will be dealing with time allocation of learning as well as teachers' competence in teaching English to children.

English in elementary schools in Indonesia does not stand as a compulsory subject. It rather stands as a local content subject. As a consequence, students have little time each week to learn English in the classroom compared to other subjects. A preliminary research in 2016 revealed that in a week children are given only 70 minutes in total for learning English. Considering English status as a foreign language in spite of a second language in Indonesian context, this time allocation affects students' exposure towards the language. Paul (2003, p.1-2)

asserts that children having English as an EFL subject have less chances to use English outside the class compared to those having English as an ESL subject. Therefore, EFL children or learners tend to rarely feel either English is natural or necessary in their lives. In short, this limited time allocation of English subject results in narrower space for children to get to their utmost exposure to English as well as teachers to freely develop teaching and learning activities inside the classroom.

Elementary school teachers' competence in teaching English has become another major and interesting topic to be discussed in this area. Dealing with teachers teaching English to elementary students, Vale and Feunteun (1995, p.6) outlined three types of teachers namely: (1) Teachers with EFL experience, but with no experience of working with children, (2) Teachers with experience of teaching children, but with little or no experience of teaching EFL, and (3) Students teachers who are training to teach EFL, possibly to children. Accordingly, Musthafa (2010) explicitly stated children are not little adults. Therefore, the way teachers teach and treat children should not be identical to the way they teach adult. Vale and Feunteun's three types of teachers aforementioned are in need of training for becoming qualified teachers teaching English to elementary students. Each of the types owns different needs of content of training. Unfortunately, in the Indonesian context, the increasing number of governments offering English classes to children is not balanced with the number of qualified teachers (Musthafa, 2010). Sikki et al. (2013) in conducting their research found out that teachers who were teaching English in elementary school level had not had satisfying professional and pedagogic competences. Half of the population (51% of 1415 English teachers) was revealed to have never attended English Teacher Training College. This issue is worrisome as it determines students' performance in learning English.

2.6 Previous Studies

Several previous studies dealing with needs analysis have been conducted within various contexts of ESP, ESL, and EFL. The studies have

depicted the significances of needs analysis towards teaching and learning and have unveiled some beneficial information gathered from the analysis. Below are several previous studies which are related to the issue held by this current study.

Al-Hamlan and Baniabdelrahman (2015) conducted a research aimed at investigating the needs of second graders in the secondary schools in learning English in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The research focused on the students' professional needs, their current language skills and tasks, preferred learning styles and teaching methods, difficulties students face while studying language, and the suggestions for better ESL learning strategies. The questionnaire gathered from 400 respondents and data from 16 semi-structured interviews revealed that students need to learn English to speak fluently, communicate with other, and to get a job. Their speaking and listening skills were also at the lower level than their writing, reading, grammar, and vocabulary skills. Furthermore, students preferred additional resources to the school book and to get a chance to select exercises. They also hoped the teacher to translate difficult words for them. It was also revealed that the students' differences in learning were not accommodated well and that they felt frustrated of not being capable to match with their classmates.

In addition, Setiawan (2009) attempted to investigate international students' needs in learning English in EAP context. The investigation was motivated by the diverse background of the students that caused difficulty for the institution to identify the needs and match them to course design. The data were collected through survey design with questionnaire involving 54 students with various national and language background. The questionnaire consisted of preferences for particular topics and various modes of learning dealing with the target and present situation. The findings showed that learners needed English in order to understand lectures and to understand news on TV (in New Zealand context). Meanwhile, dealing with methodology, the findings revealed that learners wanted the teachers to give feedback on their works. As for topics of discussion, they tended to choose the topics related to their major subject. The results of the investigation were further used to determine items for inclusion in the program.

Furthermore, Bruggink, et al. (2013) conducted a study focusing on finding out students' special needs in terms of (additional) support in the classroom as perceived by the teachers. A total of 151 students were identified by 55 teachers of 14 mainstream primary schools to answer the research questions. Questionnaires were used to measure students' perceived self-competence, teacher-perceived students' on-task behavior, teacher-perceived relationship with the students and teacher-perceived students' internalizing and externalizing (problem) behavior. It was revealed that students' withdrawal, emotional instability, and anxiety as characteristics of students with special educational needs in need of emotional support. It was also found out that low-achiever students in mathematics and comprehensive reading were perceived to have more problems with working memory, planning their work, and taking initiatives.

Additionally, Bruggink, Meijer et al. (2014) attempted to investigate students' additional support needs as perceived by the teachers. They involved 57 teachers in the study. Questionnaire with exploratory factor analyses identified four dimensions of students' needs namely instructional support, (on-task) behavioral support, emotional support, and peer support. It was found out that low-achiever students in mathematics and comprehensive reading were in need of instructional support. Additionally, students with problems regulating themselves as well as those being often in conflict with the teachers needed more on-task behavioral support. Furthermore, those having problems ignoring stimuli, coping with changes, being in conflict with or dependent on teachers were in need of emotional support. Meanwhile, peer support was related to students' social relationship.

Majority of the above previous studies attempted to investigate students' needs by revealing many aspects from students' point of view; their motivation in learning, their preferred topic, learning styles as well as preferred methodology. Students' recent skills and major language skills were also elaborated in the analysis. The aim of providing students' most recent information is in line with the aim of the current study which is for boosting English course design for the improvement in students' learning. The results shown in the above previous studies had given sight of the beneficial issues that could be gathered from doing

such needs analysis. Aside from the aim, the similarity between these previous studies and the current study lies in the context of the study which is in General English classroom. This fact depicts additional proof that needs analysis is suitable to be conducted out of ESP context. Additionally, in dealing with methodology used in gathering the data, both these previous studies and this current study mainly apply questionnaire and interview.

However, in spite of those similarities, elementary school level as the object of the study remains scarce. It seemed that elementary school level has not been paid much attention dealing with needs analysis. However, the decision of choosing this object of analysis was highly affected by the current issue happening in one of the subdistricts in Cirebon. English is implemented in almost all of the elementary schools in one of the subdistricts in Cirebon despite its status as a non compulsory subject. Yet, the implementation has brought up several issues dealing with the process of preparing as well as choosing the learning material. Furthermore, the difference between this current study and the aforementioned studies lies in the focus of the study where those studies covered merely parts of the curriculum or syllabus, while the foci of this current study are spread out in all four components of curriculum. Considering the gap between the previous studies and this current study, therefore, this study is worth conducted.

2.7 Concluding Remarks

Based on the theoretical frameworks aforementioned in this section, it is crystal clear that needs analysis is the very first step to be conducted in curriculum development and acts as the basis in developing objectives. Some relevant previous studies show the kind of data that can be gathered. However, as it is mentioned earlier, due to its significance, the majority of elementary schools in one of the subdistricts in Cirebon are still not familiar yet with needs analysis. The teachers, in fact, have faced some issues dealing with the preparation and selection of learning materials. Therefore, this study is aimed at revealing the students' needs, particularly fifth graders' needs, in learning English as a Foreign Language in order to improve their learning.

