

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. English for Specific Purpose (ESP)

Kuter (1999) ESP is viewed as a cover term for teaching and learning English for multiple specific purposes. Besides John (1991) also explained that all language teaching should be proposed for the specific learning and language use purposes on recognized groups of students.

Robinson (1991: 20) ESP as a language in background and the courses are designed based on the learners' communicative needs. ESP courses are those where the syllabus and materials are determined in all basics by the previous analysis of communicative needs of the context. While according Hutchinson, T and Waters, A, (1987) ESP was revolution since 1882 but there are still many people state that ESP is a product, ESP must be seen as an approach not as a product because ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learners' needs for learning. It is not a product because here is not a particular kind of language or methodology nor does it consist of a particular type of teaching material.

From those explanations the researcher assumes that ESP is taught to meet the specific need of the learner in learning English. ESP is focused on the learners' interest in. It is expected to be designed for advanced learner in a tertiary level or a professional work situation. ESP creates use of the underlying

methodology and activities of the discipline it serves. In teaching situations, ESP may use a different methodology from that of general English

2.2. Type of English for Specific Purpose (ESP)

Concerning the type of English for specific purpose, the researcher use the theory belong to Carter, D (1983) he identified types of ESP in three types. Those are (1) English as a classified language, (2) English for Academic and Occupational Purpose, and (3) English with specific topics.

The first type of ESP identified in Mackay and Mountford (1987: 4-5) English as a classified language are the language used by air traffic controllers or by waiters. The language of international air-traffic control could be viewed as 'special'. The classified language got in linguistic needs of a dining-room waiter or air-hostess. The collection required by the controller is limited and can be accurately determined situational. However, such classified groups of language are not languages, just as a tourist phrase book that it is not contains grammar. Knowing a classified language would not permit the speaker to communicate effectively in situation, or in contexts outside the occupational environment. By this statement Mackay and Mountford clearly show the difference between classified language and language.

The second type of ESP identified by Carter, D (1983) is English for Academic and Occupational Purposes. In the 'Tree of ELT', Hutchinson & Waters elaborate ESP into three branches: (1) English for Science and Technology (EST), (2) English for Business and Economics (EBE), and (3) English for Social Studies (ESS). Each of these subject areas is further divided into two branches: English

for Academic Purpose (EAP) and English for Occupational Purpose (EOP). This is not a clear-cut distinction between EAP and EOP: “people can work and study simultaneously. It is also possible that in many cases the language learnt for immediate use in a study environment will be used later when the student takes up, or return to, a job” (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p. 16).

In addition Carter describes rationally for categorizing EAP and EOP in the same type of ESP. However, the end purpose being identical and taken to achieve the end is very different indeed. While Cummins’ (1979) explained EAP and EOP are different in terms of focus on notions of cognitive academic proficiency versus basic interpersonal skills. So, the researcher assumes that EAP and EOP are a part of ESP.

The third and final type of ESP identified by Carter, D (1983) is English with specific topics. Carter emphasized that it is only here where emphasis shifts from purpose to topic. This type of ESP is uniquely concerned with anticipated future English need of, for example, scientists requiring English for postgraduate reading studies, attending conferences or working in foreign institutions.

2.3. Characteristic of ESP

The characteristic of English of specific purpose have a difference term with an others English language term. Carter, D (1983) stated that ESP has three items; a) authentic material, b) purpose-related orientation, and c) self-direction.

Purpose-related orientation refers to the simulation of communicative tasks required of the target setting. Cite student simulation of a conference, involving the preparation of papers, reading, note taking, and writing. To

conclude, the point of including self-direction is characteristic of ESP courses that are concerned with turning learners into users (Carter, 1983, p. 134). In order for self-direction to occur, the learners must have a certain degree of freedom to decide when, what, and how they will study. Carter, D (1983) also gains that there should be a systematic effort by teachers to teach the learners how to learn by teaching them about learning strategies.

Other view, Dudley-Evans' (1997) explained that ESP has two characteristics, those are: absolute and variable. The absolute type has split in three heading. the absolute characteristics are; ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learner; ESP creates use of the underlying methodology, activities of the discipline it serves; ESP is centered on the language, skills, discourse and genre appropriate to these activities.

The items of variable characteristics is five; ESP should be related to or designed for specific disciplines; ESP may use, in specific teaching situation, a different methodology from that of general English; ESP is expected to be intended for advanced learner, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation; ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students; most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners.

Therefore, ESP is not necessarily related to a specific discipline. Furthermore, ESP is expected to be used with advanced learners although it could be used with intermediate learners in a secondary school setting.

2.4. ESP Design

Designing ESP is important to provide the learners well to face their future need. Hutchinson, T and Waters, A (1987) split three main headings in the process of ESP design language description, theories of learning and Need Analysis. In the course design process represent their relationship like the figure:

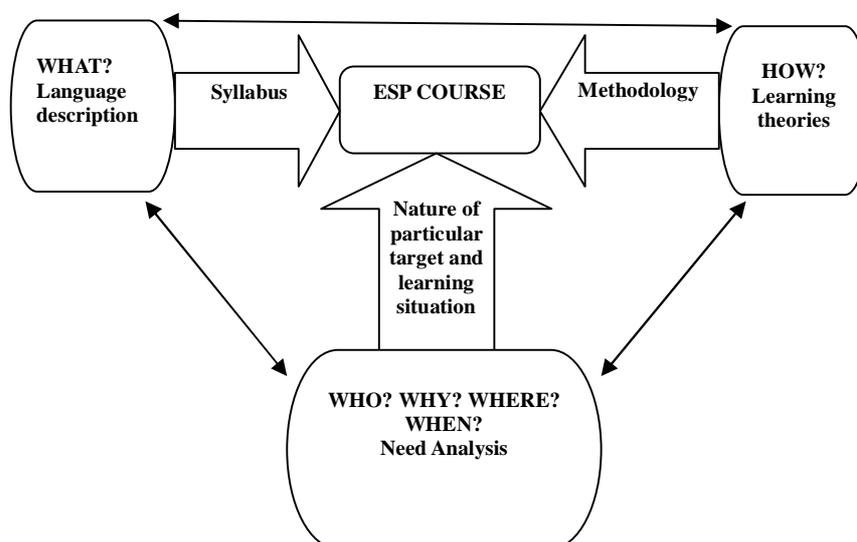


Figure 2.1 The process of ESP

Based on the diagram, language description as the factor that affects the syllabus, learning theory that provides the theoretical basis for methodology, by helping us to understand how people learn and need analysis. The diagram is the process to get nature of particular target and learning situation which is linked with syllabus and methodology.

2.5. English Curriculum for Vocational School

In Indonesia, vocational school generally is known by the abbreviation “SMK” (Sekolah Menengah Kejuruan). Vocational school becomes an alternative

for students to be ready for facing competition of job market after graduation. Vocational school has different types of expertise. It is in accordance with the purpose of vocational education to produce employable and independent graduations. The students of SMK are prepared to be ready to work after finishing their school without going to university or college (www.wikipedia.org).

Vocational school is a school, especially one on a secondary level, which offers instructional and practical introductory experience in skilled trades such as mechanic, carpentry, plumbing and construction. (www.thefreedictionary.com)

Vocational education or Vocational Education and Training (VET), also called Career and Technical Education (CTE), prepares learners for jobs that are based in manual or practical activities, traditionally non-academic and totally related to specific trade, occupation or vocation, hence the term, in which the learner participate. It is sometimes referred to as technical education, as the learner directly develops expertise in a particular group of technique or technology (www.wikipedia.org).

An English program was designed to meet the principles and aims of vocational education. The student in a vocational school has been motivated by a desire to set up himself for a specific occupation. The vocational high school, English course should capitalize on this motivation by offering the student communication skills closely related to his trade experience.

2.6. English for Science and Technology (EST)

Mackay and Mountford (1978: 16) explained English for Science and Technology focuses on developing, improving, enhancing, and mastering the

skills. They are needed to communicate clearly and effectively in any (a) technical terms and technical vocabulary, (b) pronunciation, (c) Listening comprehension, (d) authentic texts in technical instruction, (e) idiomatic language, and (f) writing.

They have stated that much of demand for ESP has come from scientist and technologists who need to learn English for a number of purposes connected with their specialist. Therefore, English for Science and Technology (EST) should be important aspect of ESP program. The term EST presupposes a stock of vocabulary items, grammatical forms, and function which are common to the study of science and technology. In accordance with this view of functional variation, EST teachers and planners engaged in preparing English material for students of science and technology. The others specialist area of use have supposed their task involve simply the selection and presentation of those lexical and semantic features which occur most commonly in passages of English dealing with the specialist topics their students are concerned with.

So, the ESP have purpose of English for science and technology is to serve the needs of Engineering students, mechanic, or others technical specialist whose first language is not English.

2.7. Syllabus

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) define syllabus as follows at simplest level a syllabus can be described as a statement of what will be learnt passes through several different stages before it reaches its destination in the mind of the learner. Each stage on its route imposes a further layer of interpretation. A

syllabus is an expression of opinion on the nature of language and learning. It acts as a guide for both teacher and learner by providing some goals to be attained.

Alternatively, syllabus are more localized and records of what actually happens at the classroom level as teachers and learners apply a given curriculum to their own situation.

2.7.1. Types of Syllabus

In Hutchinson and Waters (1987) he identified that in language teaching there are six types of syllabus which in practice is rarely these syllabus occur independently. As described below almost all authentic language teaching syllabus is a combination of two or more types. For certain courses, one type of syllabus usually dominates, while other types of content can be combined with it. In addition, there are no entirely differences in each syllabus. For example, the difference between syllabus-based and skill-based tasks may be minimal. In such cases, the distinguishing factor is often the way in which the instructional content is used in the actual teaching procedures. The characteristics, differences, strengths, and weaknesses of individual syllabus are defined as follows

(<http://www.ericdigest.org/i>) :

1. A structural (formal) syllabus. The content of language teaching used in this syllabus type is a collection of the forms and structures, usually grammatical, of the language being taught. Examples include nouns, verbs, adjectives, statements, questions, subordinate clauses, and so on.

David Nunan (1988) state that the type of syllabus also called 'Grammatical Syllabuses'. The most rigid grammatical syllabuses supposedly introduced one item at a time and required mastery of that item before moving on to the next.

2. A notional/functional syllabus. The content of the language teaching used in this syllabus type is a collection of the functions that are performed when language is used, or of the notions that language is used to express. Examples of functions include: informing, agreeing, apologizing, requesting; examples of notions include size, age, color, comparison, time, and so on.

Many teachers, on the first encountering the term 'function' and 'notion' find them confusing. In general, functions may be described as the communicative purpose for which we use language, while notions are the conceptual meaning (objects, entities, states of affair, logical relationship, and so on) expressed through language (David Nunan, 1988).

3. A situational syllabus. The content of language teaching used in this syllabus type is a collection of real or imaginary situations in which language occurs or is used. A situation usually involves several participants who are engaged in some activity in a specific setting. The language occurring in the situation involves a number of functions, combined into a plausible segment of discourse. The primary purpose of a situational language teaching syllabus is to teach the language that occurs in the situations. Examples of situations include: seeing the dentist, complaining to the landlord, buying a book at the book store, meeting a new student, and so on.
4. A skill-based syllabus. The content of the language teaching used in this syllabus type is a collection of specific abilities that may play a part in using language. Skills are things that people must be able to do to be competent in a language, relatively independently of the situation or setting in which the language use can occur. While situational syllabi group functions together into specific settings of language use, skill-based syllabi group linguistic

competencies (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and discourse) together into generalized types of behavior, such as listening to spoken language for the main idea, writing well-formed paragraphs, giving effective oral presentations, and so on. The primary purpose of skill-based instruction is to learn the specific language skill. A possible secondary purpose is to develop more general competence in the language, learning only incidentally any information that may be available while applying the language skills.

5. A task-based syllabus. The content of the teaching used in this syllabus type is a series of complex and purposeful tasks that the students want or need to perform with the language they are learning. The tasks are defined as activities with a purpose other than language learning, but, as in a content-based syllabus, the performance of the tasks is approached in a way that is intended to develop second language ability. Language learning is subordinate to task performance, and language teaching occurs only as the need arises during the performance of a given task. Tasks integrate language (and other) skills in specific settings of language use. Task-based teaching differs from situation-based teaching in that while situational teaching has the goal of teaching the specific language content that occurs in the situation (a predefined product), task-based teaching has the goal of teaching students to draw on resources to complete some piece of work (a process). The students draw on a variety of language forms, functions, and skills, often in an individual and unpredictable way, in completing the tasks. Tasks that can be used for language learning are, generally, tasks that the learners actually have to perform in any case.

Examples include: applying for a job, talking with a social worker, getting housing information over the telephone, and so on.

6. A content-based-syllabus. The primary purpose of instruction in this syllabus type is to teach some content or information using the language that the students are also learning. The students are simultaneously language students and students of whatever content is being taught. The subject matter is primary, and language learning occurs incidentally to the content learning. The content teaching is not organized around the language teaching, but vice-versa. Content-based language teaching is concerned with information, while task-based language teaching is concerned with communicative and cognitive processes. An example of content-based language teaching is a science class taught in the language the students need or want to learn, possibly with linguistic adjustment to make the science more comprehensible.

In general, the six types of syllabi or instructional content are presented beginning with the one based most on structure, and ending with the one based most on language use. Language is a relationship between form and meaning, and most instruction emphasizes one or the other side of this relationship.

2.7.2. Syllabus Design and Methodology

David Nunan, (1988) stated that Syllabus design is seen as being concerned essentially with the selection and grading of content, while methodology is concerned with the selection of learning tasks and activities.

Based on the Nunan statements, syllabus would be seemed with the development of process, task-based, and content syllabuses, that the traditional

distinction between syllabus design (specifying the ‘what’) and methodology (specifying the ‘how’) has become blurred.

2.8. Communicative Syllabus

David Nunan (1988) he stated that Syllabus began to appear in which content was specified, not only in terms of grammatical elements which the learners were expected to master, but also in terms of functional skill they would need to master in order communication successfully.

In addition, Nunan also stated that “Traditionally, linguistically-oriented syllabus, communicative syllabus tended to focus on the things that learners should know or able to do as result of instruction”.

So researcher understands that Communicative observation of language teaching began to be included into syllabus design. The central question for proponents of this new was, ‘What does the learner want and need to do with the target language?’ rather than ‘What are the linguistic elements which the learner need to master?’.

2.9. Need Analysis

The most thorough and widely known work on needs analysis is John Munby's *Communicative Syllabus Design* (1978). Munby presents a highly detailed set of procedures for discovering target situation needs. He calls this set of procedures the Communication Needs Processor (CNP). The CNP consist of a range of questions about key communication variables (topic, participants, medium etc.) which can be used to identify the target language needs of any group of learners.

The John's theories explain that the work marked a watershed in the development of ESP with the development of CNP. It seemed as if ESP had come of age. The provided that the entire course designer had to do was to operate it. However, *Communicative Syllabus Design* proved to be a watershed in quite another way. By taking the analysis of target needs to its logical conclusion, it showed the ultimate sterility of a language-centered approach to need analysis.

Then the identification of language needs is the most positive means. Though there may be others, of seeking this compromise and deciding on the methods of contributing, discussing, negotiating and participating as between learner and teaching establishment and/or user institutions. If it does not appear in the program illustrating the systemic approach, because it does not form specific element of it but pervades it all the time, in all directions and at all levels. It is realized that the construction of a unit system for learning modern languages, presupposes analysis and identification of needs. Therefore, a need analysis is important to improve the language in specific purpose.

Here he adds that need analysis can be done before the course, during the course or with combination of both. Needs analysis is done before the course starts, foster knowledge of the learners' resources, objective, and curricula, which they consider suitable. It can also be undertaken during the course, in order to ascertain whether learners' resources are in line with the course they are following, whether the objectives can be attained and whether the methods of assessment used appropriate to judge the learner progress.

2.9.1. Target Need

Hutchinson, T and Waters, A. (1987) stated that Target need is one of analysis that should be investigated to understand what the learners' need to do in target situation. The analysis of target need involves identifying the linguistic features of target situation included necessities, lacks and wants. He also add his argument that necessities are the type of need determined by the demands of the target situation. It means the learner has to know in order to function effectively in the target situation

Consequently the Hutchinson' theory apply to the investigation. The investigation is focus on need of learners. Lacks refer to the gap between the target proficiency and the existing proficiency of the learners in which it has the question what the learners do not know. This investigation is quite simple because it is related to the necessities of the learners that given to them.

Another his statement, Hutchinson explains that the wants represent which the learners have a desire to learn. In which it has questioned what the learners want or fell they need. Need is point of view of the particular respondent

or learner, so the analysis of target needs is in essence a matter of asking questions about the target situation and the attitudes towards that situation of the various participants in the learning process. From the above account that the analysis of target needs involves far more than simply identifying the linguistic features of the target situation. There are a number of ways in which information can be gathered about needs. The most frequently used are: questionnaires, interviews, observation, data collection e.g. gathering texts, informal consultations with sponsors, learners and others.

2.9.2. Learning Need

First of all, the step to master learning need, researcher be familiar with the target situation need. The target situation need is around about the terms of language items, skills, strategies, subject knowledge and etc. It appropriate with Hutchinson, T and Waters, A. (1996:62) stated that target needs and learning need are two elements of need analysis that should be investigated to create a syllabus of ESP. Target situation need is concerned with the important area of language use, while learning needs cover circumstances of language learning.

According Smith (1984) he attempt to Analyzing what people do tells us little, if anything, about they learnt to do it. The needs, potential and constraints of the route must also be taken into account, if we are going to have any useful analysis of learner needs. In addition, Hutchinson, T and Waters, A., (1983) stated that learning need tool may be more appropriate to look for texts that are more interesting or humorous in order to generate the motivation needed to learn English.

Based on the statements above, researcher know that the step to get the goal of ESP are understand what is meant by learning needs, we should know what happens in the analysis of target situation needs. In looking at the target situation, the designer usually asks about the expert communicator needed to know the function of effectively the situation. This information may be recorded in terms of language items, skills, strategies, subject knowledge etc.

Learning needs refer to what knowledge and abilities the learner will need in the target situation. If the starting point in ESP course is called 'lacks', and the destination is necessities and wants, the way go from the starting point to the destination is called learning needs.