

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Perception

2.1.1 Definition of Perception

According to Gregory (1970) perception is a constructive process which relies on top-down processing. Perception involves making inferences about what we see and trying to make a best guess. When we look at something, we develop a perceptual hypothesis, which is based on prior knowledge. While James Gibson (1966) argues that perception is direct, and not subject to hypotheses testing as Gregory proposed. There is enough information in our environment to make sense of the world in a direct way. For Gibson, sensation is perception: what you see is what you get. There is no need for processing (interpretation) as the information we receive about size, shape and distance etc. is sufficiently detailed for us to interact directly with the environment.

While Zimmerman (2003: 28-29) stated that perception is act of perceiving: cognizance by the sense or intellectuality; comprehension by the bodily organs, or by the mind of what is presented to them. In addition, Richards and Schmitdt (2010: 427) and Roessler (2011: 92) stated that perception is the way of understanding or interpreting something based on the use of sense or experience of the person

In other words, perception is the recognition and opinion by individual view about the object based on how it seem and based on their' experience. Simply, perception means what our mind tells us something is.

2.1.2 Aspects of Perception

Ittelson (in Carmona et al, 2003: 693) has identified four aspects of perceptions:

1. Cognitive: thinking about the environment stimulus, organization and storage.
2. Emotional: involves feelings concerning the individual's environmental perception, and in contrast, the knowledge of the environment affects the individual's feelings.
3. Interpretive: relies on individual's accumulated memories for comparison and analysis of the environmental stimuli.
4. Appreciative: involves values and priorities that make up good and bad.

2.1.3 Factors Affecting Perception

According to Alan and Gary (2011), there are three components to perception:

1. The Perceiver, the person who becomes aware about something and comes to a final understanding. There are 3 factors that can influence his or her perceptions: experience, motivational state and finally emotional state.
2. The Target. This is the person who is being perceived or judged.
3. The Situation also greatly influences perceptions because different situations may call for additional information about the target.

In addition, (Gifford, 1997) stated the factors affecting the perception is personal factors, including education, gender, training and experience.

2.1.4 Perception Process

Pickens (2005: 54) stated that perception process follows four stages: stimulation, registration, organization, and interpretation. A person's awareness and acceptance of the stimuli play an important role in the perception process. Receptiveness to the stimuli is highly selective and may be limited by a person's existing beliefs, attitude, motivation, and personality (Assael, 1995).

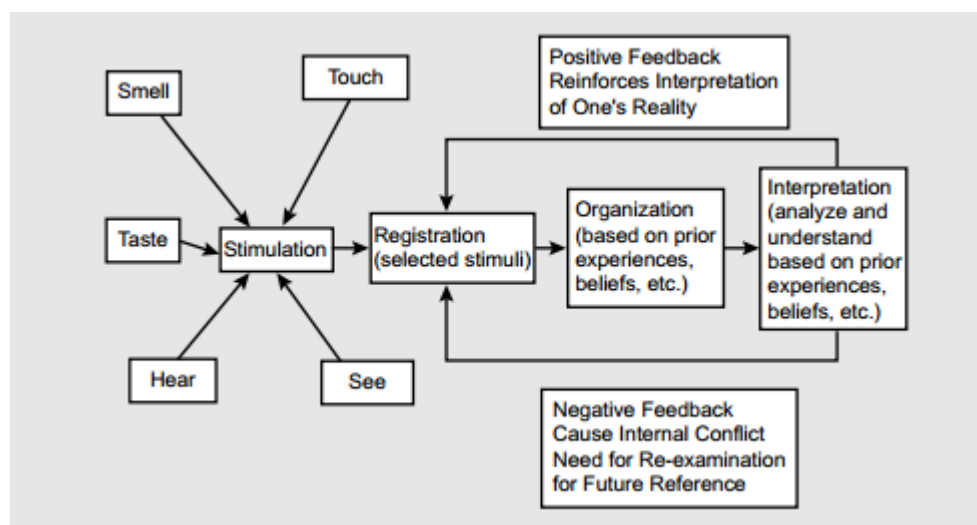


Figure 1 Perception Processing System from Pickens (2005: 57)

2.2 Language Skills

Language are generally taught and assessed in terms of the 'four skills': listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Listening and reading are known as 'receptive' skills while speaking and writing are known as 'productive' skills. All language learners will need to develop their skills in each of these areas (Hinkle, 2006: 275-301).

2.2.1 Speaking

The complexity of learning to speak in another language is reflected in the range and type of subskills that are entailed in EFL oral production. Learners must simultaneously attend to content, morphosyntax and lexis, discourse and information structuring, and the sound system and prosody, as well as appropriate register and pragmalinguistic features (Tarone, 2005: 485-502). In an interaction that typically involves speaking and comprehending at the same time, EFL speakers need to self-monitor so that they can identify and correct production problems at the fast pace of a real conversational exchange. Research on the characteristics and development of EFL oral skills has shown conclusively that communicating in an EFL is a cognitively demanding undertaking, not to mention that the success of an interaction often depends on production quality (e.g., McCarthy & O’Keeffe, 2004: 26-43). Thus, speaking in an EFL requires fluency, accuracy, and a sufficient lexicogrammatical repertoire for meaningful communication to take place.

In the 1990s, many researchers concluded that exposure to and communicative interaction in an EFL enables learners to attain EFL speaking fluency. However, the extent of fluency development was not matched by learners’ syntactic and lexical accuracy in oral production (e.g., Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Schmidt, 1993; Swain, 1991: 429-448). These and many other studies demonstrated that although, for example, immersion learners can speak fluently and with ease, their speech contained numerous grammatical, lexical, and pragmalinguistic errors.

2.2.2 Listening

During the 1970's, listening pedagogy largely emphasized the development of learners' abilities to identify words, sentence boundaries, contractions, individual sounds, and sound combinations, that is, bottom-up linguistic processing. The 1980's saw a shift from the view of EFL listening as predominantly linguistic to a schema-based view, and listening pedagogy moved away from its focus on the linguistic aspects of comprehension to the activation of learners' top-down knowledge. In top-down processing, aural comprehension hinges on listeners' abilities to activate their knowledge-based schemata, such as cultural constructs, topic familiarity, discourse clues, and pragmatic conventions (e.g., CelceMurcia, 1995; Mendelsohn, 1994; Rost & Ross, 1991).

In the practice of teaching EFL listening, however, neither approach—a focus on bottom-up or top-down processing—proved to be a resounding success: Learners who rely on linguistic processing often fail to activate higher order EFL schemata, and those who correctly apply schema-based knowledge tend to neglect the linguistic input (e.g., Tsui & Fullilove, 1998; Vandergrift, 2004: 432-451).

Advances in the studies of spoken corpora and conversation analysis have illuminated the complexity of oral discourse and language. The findings of these analyses have made it evident that, in many cases, employing authentic language in listening instruction can be of limited benefit because of a variety of constraints, such as the fast pace of speech, specific characteristics of spoken grammar and lexicon, cultural references and schemata, and dialect colloquial expressions. Although EFL pedagogy continues to underscore the value of

authentic teaching materials, the research on the effectiveness of EFL listening instruction broadly recommends learning training in metacognitive strategies to facilitate the development of EFL aural abilities.

2.2.3 Reading

Recent research has shed a great deal of light on the processes and the learning of EFL reading. Similar to EFL listening, EFL reading entails both bottom-up and top-down cognitive processing, and in the 1980's, the prevalent approach to teaching sought to activate learners' L1 reading schemata and prior knowledge to foster the development of EFL reading skills. Over time, however, reading and text, not all learners succeed in becoming proficient EFL readers. In his important overview of reading research, Eskey (1988) examines what he called "a strongly topdown bias" (p. 95) in EFL reading pedagogy and neglect of learners' weak linguistic processing skills. Eskey's analysis explains that EFL readers are fundamentally distinct from those who read in their L1s and that essential "knowledge of the language of the text" (p. 96) is required before learners can successfully process the EFL reading schema.

2.2.4 Writing

Although in the 1980s much in the teaching of L2 writing was based on L1 writing research, in the past two decades, a number of publications have emerged to address the important differences that exist between learning to write in one's L1 and in one's L2 (e.g., Hinkel, 2002; McKay & Wong, 1996; Silva, 1993: 577-608). Based on his synthesis of 72 studies, Silva (1993: 657-677) concludes that significant differences exist between practically all aspects of L1 and L2 writing.

He emphasizes that the learning needs of L2 writers are crucially distinct from those of basic or proficient L1 writers and that L2 writing pedagogy requires special and systematic approaches that take into account the cultural, rhetorical, and linguistic differences between L1 and L2 writers. Similarly, Hinkel's (2002) largescale empirical analysis of L1 and L2 text showed that even after years of ESL and composition training, L2 writers' text continues to differ significantly from that of novice L1 writers in regard to most linguistic and rhetorical features. Even advanced and trained L2 writers continue to have a severely text restricted to the most common language features encountered predominantly in conversational discourse (Hinkel, 2003: 275-301).

2.3 Curriculum and Syllabus

The word curriculum is from Latin word *currere* meaning "to run". "Curriculum is a large and complex concept, and the term itself is used in a number of different ways. In some contexts, it is used to refer to a particular program of study. In other contexts, it is synonymous with 'syllabus'." (Nunan, 2004:4). A definition of curriculum by Richards (2013: 6) is "an overall plan for a course and how the content for the course is transformed into a blueprint for teaching and learning which enables the desired learning outcomes to be achieved". In sum, Richards defines curriculum as a whole program plan of an educational institution.

According to PP No.19 2005 about Education National Standard and UU No.20 2003 about National Education System in Indonesia which state in this statement:

Kurikulum adalah seperangkat rencana dan pengaturan mengenai tujuan, isi, dan bahan pelajaran serta cara yang digunakan sebagai pedoman penyelenggaraan kegiatan pembelajaran untuk mencapai tujuan pendidikan tertentu.

The government definition of curriculum explains that curriculum includes: the aims, content, material of lessons, and the method. Educational institutions in Indonesia make those educational policies into guidelines in the teaching and learning activities in their institutions. From many definitions of curriculum above, it can be concluded that curriculum is a whole planned learning activities created to reach learners' objectives.

Curriculum as a whole planned for a course or programme created to reach the objectives of a school or institution has components which according to Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (Richards, Schmidt 2010:151) consists of: 1) the aims/ goals of the program; 2) syllabus (the content of the program and the sequence of the content); 3) teaching and learning procedures and activities; 4) assessment and testing used to assess student learning; 5) evaluation to assess the program's goals achievement.

1. The aims/goals of the program

The aims/goals of the program are what the students are expected to know and what they are expected to be able to do after taking the program.

2. Syllabus (the content of the program and the sequence of the content)

The content of the program is the materials that will be taught to the students that are formulated for the students to achieve the aims/goals. The structure of the content is the arrangement of the materials. Which materials come first, next, and last, from general to specific.

3. Teaching and Learning procedures and activities

Teaching and learning procedures and activities are the teaching and learning sequences and what kinds of activities will be run in order to deliver the materials.

4. Assessment and testing used to assess student learning

Assessment and testing are created based on the materials that have been given to the students in order to find out how far students have mastered the materials and how far the aims/goals have been achieved. They also consist of the assessment criteria and what kinds of test will be given.

5. Evaluation to assess the program's goals achievement

This evaluation is created to find out how far the goals of the program achieved. It also evaluates every component in the curriculum, whether or not improvement is needed to get a higher achievement of the goals.

On the other hand, syllabus is suggested as a more detailed and operational statement of teaching and learning elements which translates the philosophy of the curriculum into a series of planned steps leading towards more narrowly defined objectives at each level (Dubin, Olshtain 1997). Moreover, Widdowson in Nunan (1988: 5) explains that “a syllabus is simply a framework within which activities can be carried out: a teaching device to facilitate learning.” Whether Yalden (1984 in Nunan, 1988: 5) explained that:

“ [The syllabus] replaces the concept of ‘method’, and the syllabus is now seen as an instrument by which the teacher, with the help of the syllabus designer, can

achieve a degree of ‘fit’ between the needs and aims of the learner (as social being and as individual) and the activities which will take place in the classroom”

According to Brown (1995: 7), there are 7 kinds of syllabuses. Three of them are based on McKay (1978 in Brown, 1995:7) and others are based on Brown, They are 1) structural syllabuses; 2)situational syllabuses; 3)notional syllabuses; 4) functional syllabuses; 5)topical syllabuses; 6) skills based syllabuses; and 7)task-based syllabuses.

1. Structural syllabuses

Structural syllabuses focus on grammatical forms, which the sequence of the content is from the easy forms to the difficult one. The example of structural syllabuses can be seen in Azar’s *Understanding and Using English Grammar* book (1989). In the book, the first chapter is about verb tenses that arranges from the simple tenses, the progressive tenses, the perfect tenses, the perfect progressive tenses, and the summary chart. The next chapters consist of modal auxiliaries, the passive, gerund and infinitive, etc.

2. Situational syllabuses

Situational syllabuses focus on the language in different contexts or situations. The content sequence chronologically from one situation to other situations that happen in the real life. The example of situational syllabuses can be seen in Brinton and Neuman’s *Getting Along: English Grammar and Writing* (1982). This book’s table of content consists of Introductions, Getting acquainted, At the housing office,

Deciding to live together, Let's have coffee, Looking for an apartment, At the pier, etc. which based on the situation.

3. Notional syllabuses

Notional syllabuses are organized around 'general notions', such as *distance, duration, quantity, quality, location, size*, and so forth. The example can be seen in Hall and Bowyer's *Nucleus English and for Science and Technology* (1980):

Unit 1 Properties and Shapes

Unit 2 Location

Unit 3 Structure

Unit 4 Measurement 1 [of solid figures]

Unit 5 Process 2 Function and Ability

Unit 6 Actions in Sequence

.....

4. Functional syllabuses

McKay called this syllabus as "notional syllabuses" but Brown called it as "functional syllabuses" because it focuses on semantic uses. The sequence in functional syllabuses is based on the usefulness of the functions. The example can be seen in Jones and Baeyer's table of content of *Functions of American English: Communication Activities for The Classroom* (1983) which consists of several headings: 1) Talking about yourself, starting a conversation, making a date; 2) Asking for information: question techniques, answering techniques,

getting more information; 3) Getting people to do things: requesting, attracting attention, agreeing and refusing; etc.

5. Topical syllabuses

Topical syllabuses focus on topics or themes rather than situations. The sequence is based on the author's feeling of the topics or themes' that importance for the students. The example of topical syllabuses can be seen in Smith and Mare's table of content of *Issues for Today: An Effective Reading Skills Text* (1990) that illustrates a topical syllabus:

Unit I Trends in Living

- 1 A Cultural Difference: Being on Time
- 2 Working Hard or Hardly Working
- 3 Changing Life—Styles and New Eating Habits

Unit II Issues in Society

- 4 Loneliness
- 5 Can Stress Make You Sick?
- 6 Care of the Elderly: A Family Matter

.....

6. Skills-based syllabuses

Skills-based syllabuses are organized based on the language or academic skills that students most need in order to use and continue to learn the language. The sequence is usually arranged in chronological order and considered the frequency as well as the usefulness of the

skills. The example of skills-based syllabuses can be seen in the table of content from Barr, Clegg, and Wallace's *Advanced Reading Skills* (1983). They are: scanning, key words, topic sentences, reference words, connectors, and so on.

7. Task-based syllabuses

Task-based syllabuses are organized based on various tasks that might be needed by the students to perform in the language. Jolly's table of content of *Writing Tasks: An Authentic Task Approach to Individual Writing Needs* (1984) shows the example of task-based syllabuses, such as writing notes, memos, personal letters, telegrams, personal ads, instructions, descriptions, and so forth.

A syllabus should contain an outline, a schedule of topics, and many more items of information. However, the major purpose of a syllabus is to communicate to one's students what the course is about, why the course is taught, where it is going, and what will be required of the students for them to complete the course with a passing grade, that is why, to sum up from Altman and Cashin (1992: 1-2), a syllabus will include: 1) course information; 2) instructor information; 3) course description; 4) course objective; 5) instructional approaches; 6) course requirements, assignments; 7) course policies; 8) grading, evaluation; 9) texts/resources/readings/supplies; 10) course calendar; 11) study tips/learning resources; 12) student feedback on instruction, and 13) miscellaneous information. These are detailed explanations about each component of a syllabus:

1. Course Information:

It consists of all of information in a syllabus should give course information such as name of the course, section code of the course, credit hours, total meetings of the course, semester, prerequisites of the course if there is any, include the location of the classroom, and the days and hours of the course.

2. Instructor Information:

It consists of information about the instructor of the course such as full name, title, home and office address (or where to leave assignments), home (with restrictions), office (also office hours), mobile, and emergency phone number (if needed).

3. Course Description:

It consists of the information about the content of the course, the explanation about how the course fits with other course in the discipline, and why it is valuable for the students. Besides, it also explain how the course is structured (course structure or instructional methods), e.g., large lecture with small discussion sections. It also often combines with course objectives that included the goals of the course.

4. Course Objectives:

It consists of everything the students will know and be able to do as a result of having taken this course, the information about levels of cognitive thinking students will engage in and learning skills students

will develop in each unit of the course. Course objectives are also useful to lead the students to the purposes of the course, instructors, and syllabus designer expectations.

5. Instructional Approaches:

It consists of kinds of learning that teacher would like to encourage and foster, kinds of instructional interactions need to occur (e.g. teacher-student, students-student, student-peer tutor), kinds of most conductive instructional approachers to help students achieve set learning objectives, and how classroom interactions will be facilitated (e.g. in-class, out-of-class, online, electronic discussion, news groups, chat room).

6. Course Requirements, Assignments:

It consists of expectations for the students to do in the course, kinds of assignments (frequency, timing, sequence), tests (e.g. tests, quizzes, exams, papers, special projects, laboratories, field trips, learning logs, journals, oral presentations, research on the web, web publishing, electronic databases), and kinds of skills students need to have in order to be successful in the course (e.g. computer literacy, research skills, writing skills, communication skills, conflict resolution skills, familiarity with software).

7. Course Policies:

It consists of information about the expectation for the students such as attendance, lateness, class participation and how it will be graded,

student responsibility in their learning, contribution to group work, missed exams/assignments, late work, extra credit, academic dishonesty(e.g. cheating and plagiarism), make-up policy (whether for examinations or assignments), classroom management issues, or laboratory safety/health.

8. Grading, Evaluation:

It consists of the number of tests (midterm test, final test, quizzes, etc), in-class or take-home, point value, proportion of each test toward final grade, and grading scale. It also explains about how the final grade is determined, e.g. by dropping lowest grade and how students receive timely feedback on their performance, e.g. through instructor, self-assessment, peer review, peer tutors, opportunities for improvement, or ungraded assignments. In short, it explains about how students will be evaluated.

9. Texts/Resources/Reading/Supplies:

It consists of kinds of materials will be used during the course, e.g. textbooks (mentioning the title, author, date and edition, publisher, cost, and where they are available), required or recommended readings and where they are available), electronic databases, Electronic Course Reserve, course webpage, software, simulations, laboratory equipments, art supplies, special calculators, computers, and kinds of instructional technologies will be used.

10. Course calendar:

It consists of the course plan for the semester or listing of the topics that will be taught (for class-by-class) and students have to know what they can expect in general terms and topics such as class activities and formats; dates of announced quizzes and exams; and due dates of all reading assignments, handed-in homework and/or group assignments, papers, and projects.

11. Study Tips/Learning Resources:

Study tips/learning resources consists of study tips to be most successful in the course (e.g. how to use the syllabus and how to study for this course), available resources/tools to support students learning (e.g. online quiz generator, study guides, lecture notes online, lecture notes on reserve in library, guest speaker to explain/demonstrate online resources, TA, peer tutors, study groups, Academic Services Center, Writing Center, evaluation of online resources, and citation of web resources) and Instructional Support Service (e.g. library, learning centre, computer terminal, or the other places where they can get detailed information).

12. Student Feedback on Instruction:

It consists of information where students can give feedback on the instruction, feedback at midterm and end-of-term feedback such as an anonymous suggestion box on the web or e-mail or departmental student feedback form for instructional improvement purposes.

13. Miscellaneous Information:

Miscellaneous information consists of various kinds of information besides the information in number 1 to 12, such as instructor biography, instructor personal statement, student information form, and other instructor information (e.g. TA). The researcher also include point number 14 in the journal, that is “Additional Questions/Information” because it can be classified as miscellaneous information, e.g. detail and explicit question-answer part that students might ask about the course or during the course. It is also flexible and could be about various aspects of the course. The language used/word-choosing should be user-friendly. In designing a syllabus, the information above from course information until additional questions/information needs to be included. A complete syllabus gives students clearer description of the course or program and they can implement self-directed learning even though their teacher only gives a small amount of support because “the syllabus is one way to tell the students which way they ought to go” (Altman and Cashin, 1992).

In sum, syllabus design is not identical with the curriculum, but syllabus design is aspect of curriculum development. A syllabus is a specification of the contents a course instruction and list what will be taught and tested (Richard, 2001:14). And it can be said that curriculum and syllabus have the same purpose that is to describe the course or program which has four main components: 1) the

aim, goals or objectives, 2) the learning materials, 3) the learning and teaching activities or method, and 4) the assessment and evaluation.

2.3.1 The Aims, Goals, or Objectives

The aims or goals of the course can be defined as general statements concerning to program purposes which is wanted to be achieved based on perceived language and students' needs (Brown,1995). Moreover, Brown (1995) also explained that in order to derive goals from students' needs, there are four points should be remembered:

- a. Goals are general statements of the program's purpose
- b. Goals should usually focus on what the program want to accomplish and what the students should be able to do in the end of the program
- c. Goals can serve as one basis for developing more precise and observable objectives
- d. Goals should never be viewed as permanent, that is, they should never become set-in cement

It can be said that goals or aims are something that the programs want to achieve or accomplish based on the students' needs. Goals have to achieve what students' need by taking the program. So in defining goals or aims of the programs one must be considered is the needs analysis of the program. Goals or aims can be form in three shapes: 1) language and situation-centered, 2) functional, and 3) strictly structural. (Brown, 1995)

Besides goals or aims, there are also objectives which differ. Objectives, on the other hand, can be defined as more precise or specific statements that describe the particular skills, knowledge, or behavior that the learners have to master at the end of a course or program (Brown, 1995). In syllabus, objectives usually stated “by the end of the course, a student will be able to:” which followed by specific statements what students will be able to do.

Between goals/aims and objectives can be distinguished by see whether the statement is closer to a very general goal or to a very specific instructional objectives. However, both of them have the same function in order to describe what the program or course want to accomplish and what the learner will be achieved at the end of the program or course which develop based on situation or students’ needs analysis.

2.3.2 The Learning Materials

Tomlinson (1998: 2) defines materials as anything which is done by writers, teachers, or learners to provide sources of language input and to exploit those sources in ways which maximize the likelihood of intake: in other words the supplying of information about another experience of the language in ways designed to promote language learning. Materials can be taken from many sources related to the learners’ needs and interests. Materials are not only taken from the textbooks provided by governments or published in the market but also from other sources such as newspaper, magazine, cassettes, etc. (Tomlinson, 1998: 2). In addition, materials can be in the form of linguistic, visual, auditory, or kinesthetic,

and it may be presented in print (a textbook, a workbook, or a photocopied handout), audio or video form, on CD-ROMS, on the internet or through live performance or display (Richards, 2010:354). Brown (1995:139) sites that materials can be as any systematic description of the techniques and exercises to be used in classroom teaching including lesson plan, accommodate textbook, packets of audiovisual, and games, or any types of activities that go on in the language classroom. In other words, materials are any set of activity and exercise which have many sources from anywhere which is deliberately used to increase the learners' knowledge and experience of the language.

Brian Tomlinson (2012 :143) stated that materials can be informative (informing the learner about the target language), instructional (guiding the learner in practice the language), experiential (providing the learner with experience of the language in use), eliciting (encouraging the learner to use the language) and exploratory (helping the learner to make discoveries about the language).

In sum, materials can be taken from many sources related to the learners' needs and interests. Materials are not only taken from the textbooks provided by government or published in the market but also from other sources that teacher can adapt to the courses.

Tomlinson (1998: 8-10) also suggest that good language teaching and learning materials should:

1. Achieve impact

Impact is achieved when the students are interested, curious, and pay much attention to the material.

2. Help learners to field at ease

When students are at ease, they are comfortable and relaxed when producing language.

3. Help learners to develop confidence

The students can develop their confidence in producing the language during the teaching and learning process when they are at ease.

4. Perceived by learners as relevant and useful

The material being taught should be related to learners' needs and learners' interest. They should be able to practice it by using their target language in the classroom and also in their real-life.

5. Require and facilitate learner self-investment

The media should facilitate students when they do the activities and should allow students to carry out many activities in learner-centered classroom.

6. Learners must be ready to acquire the point being taught

Teacher can use the material that is familiar with students' life. This means, the material should be related to students' interest and students' needs.

2.3.3 The Teaching and Learning Activities

According to Brown (2007: 7), learning is “acquiring or getting of knowledge of a subject or a skill by study, experience, or instruction.” Similarly,

teaching which is implied in the first definition of learning, may be defined as “showing or helping someone to learn how to do something, giving instruction, guiding in the study of something, providing the knowledge, and also understand or know.” Brown (2007) also describes the components of the definition of learning:

1. Learning is acquisition or getting.
2. Learning is retention of information or skill.
3. Retention implies storage system, memory, cognitive organization.
4. Learning involves active, conscious focus on and acting upon events outside or inside the organism.
5. Learning is relatively permanent but subject to forgetting.
6. Learning involves some form of practice, perhaps reinforced practice.
7. Learning is a change in behavior.

Brown (2007: 7) states that teaching cannot be apart from learning, because teaching guide and facilitate the learning process, enabling the learner to learn, setting the conditions for learning. Brown (2001:129) also defines teaching and learning activity as any kinds of activities that students do in the classroom. There are two elements which involve in teaching and learning activities: teacher and students, because teaching and learning is two way interactions. So, in order to aim the goal of the education both of them have to build good interaction. As teaching and learning activities involve two elements that are teacher and student, the focus of the activity divided into teacher-centered and student-centered. When the focus of teaching and learning activity is on the teacher, the process belongs to

teacher-centered (Syahril, 2007 from Cuban,1993). Meanwhile, when the focus of teaching and learning activity is on the students, the process belongs to student-centered (Lara, 2007).

In learning and teaching process in the classroom, teacher can do various learning methods. According to Djamarah (2002), there were 11 methods in teaching and learning process:

1. Project method is learning method based on a problem and then analyzed from every possible solution.
2. Experiment method is learning method which the students do experiment by experiencing and proofing a subject they learned.
3. Assignment method is learning method that the teacher gives assignment to the students which usually conducted outside the classroom and can make students to be more active.
4. Discussion method is learning method where students have discuss and solve the problem together
5. Role play method is learning method that dramatizing behavior that relate with the problem
6. Demonstration method is learning method that give students demonstration of a process or a situation as real as possible.
7. Solving method is learning method that solve the problem from collecting data until making conclusion.
8. Questioning method is learning method that used two ways communication in interrogative form to transfer knowledge

9. Drilling method is learning method which repeat the pattern of behavioral
10. Explaining method is learning method where the knowledge is transferred verbally from teachers to students.

2.3.4 Assessment and Evaluation

Based on Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (Richards, 2010: 35) assessment is a systematic approach to collecting information and making inferences about the ability or quality of a student or the success of a teaching course of various sources of evidence. Assessment may be done by test, interview, questionnaire, observation, etc. As what has been stated by Hughes (2003: 2) that the proper relationship between teaching and assessment is partnership, it means that assessment is very useful both by the teacher and the students.

The information gain from assessment can help teachers to measure the students understanding of the lesson and to decide the learning objectives that has been achieved by students. Moreover, assessment also facilitates teachers to evaluate the effectiveness of their teaching and evaluate the instruments used in teaching and learning process. Teachers can organized students and make decisions and plan for the next learning activities. As stated by Graue (1993, in Fautley and Savage, 2008:8) that assessment becomes a reflective activity that informs instruction.

Fautley and Savage (2008:15) states that there are four purposes of assessment:

1. Formative, to improve student learning (look forward)

2. Summative, to see what students' have achieved (look back)
3. Diagnostic, to diagnose learning difficulties in the individual student in order to plan and execute appropriate interventions
4. Evaluative, evaluates the success of a whole school

Brown stated that there are two various types of assessment, based on the procedure of classroom assessment held by teachers in the class and based on the time and the function of the assessment in the classroom. Formal and informal are the types of assessment based on the procedure of classroom held by teachers in the class. Brown (2004:6) said that "formal assessments are exercise or procedures specifically designed to tap into a storehouse of skills and knowledge." Meanwhile, informal assessment is an unplanned comment and responses, through observations, non-test methods (Brown, 2004:5). In sum, formal assessment is a systematic planned technique made by the teachers to see students' achievement that will be held in the end of the course and informal assessment is an unsystematic planned technique by the teachers that can be done during the course.

The second type of assessments is formative and summative assessment, which based on the time and the function of the assessment in the classroom. Brown (2004:6) stated that formative assessment is the assessment conduct by the teacher to evaluate student during the learning process, which has goal of helping students to continue that growth process. On the other hand, summative assessment is the assessment conduct by the teacher in the end of the course in order to see what students has achieved (Brown, 2004:6). To sum up, formative

assessment is conduct during the learning activities to evaluate students' progress and summative assessment is conduct at the end of the course to see what students have been achieved.