

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This second chapter provides related studies and theories that support the investigation and analyses of this study. In order to answer the research questions, this literature review provides construction of ideas that underlies the concept of the European Profiling Grid (EPG)-based Key Teaching Competences in the curricula of English education study programs and pre-service teacher training programs. Due to the purposes of the study mentioned in the previous chapter, discussions on the EPG, the EPG-based Key Teaching Competences that include methodology: knowledge and skills, assessment, lesson and course planning, and interaction management and monitoring, curricula of English education study programs and pre-service teacher training programs in Indonesia along with the concept of learning outcomes are required. Therefore, the elaboration and exploration of those aspects are taken into account.

2.1 The European Profiling Grid (EPG)

The European Profiling Grid (EPG) is a tool used to describe the main competences of language teachers and presents them in grid form with six phases of development (Rossner, 2017: 97). The EPG was initially designed to help improve the quality and effectiveness of language training through the use of an innovative instrument. It is primarily intended

to provide language teachers, teacher trainers, and managers with a reliable tool to outline language teachers' current competences and enhancing their professionalism in language education. According to EPG Project (2013: 12), the EPG has some specific goals to: 1) assist self-assessment and mapping of a range of current language teaching skills and competences; 2) outline individual and group profiles of language teachers in an institution, stating the levels of competence attained according to a set of categories and descriptors; 3) help to identify development needs and training programs; 4) serve as an additional tool for staff selection and appraisal; 5) assist in understanding of and communication between different pedagogical systems and educational traditions in Europe; 6) foster transparency of teaching standards, facilitating teacher mobility.

Rossner (2017: 98) stated that the EPG was basically developed from the EAQUALS Profiling Grid for Language Teaching Professionals which was created in 2006 by Brian North, one of the authors of the CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching and Assessment), and Galya Mateva, a distinguished Bulgarian teacher trainer. EAQUALS (Evaluation and Accreditation of Quality in Language Services) itself is an international association of institutions and organizations involved in language education. Around the same time the EAQUALS Profiling Grid for Teaching Professionals was being created by Brian North and Galya Mateva, two other frameworks of language teaching competences were also developed, the European Portfolio for

Student Teachers of Languages (EPOSTL) by Newby et al in 2006, and the European Profile for Language Teacher Education by Kelly and Grenfell in 2005. However, both of the frameworks were initially created with trainees, not experienced teachers, in mind. The EAQUALS Profiling Grid for Teaching Professionals, on the other hand, was intended to support the assessment of language teaching competences among practising language teachers with varying degrees of experience, and the same is true of its successor, the EPG.

Following various presentations and workshops outside EAQUALS, a consortium was formed to develop the EAQUALS Profiling Grid for Language Teaching Professionals into an EU-wide instrument for teacher development (Rossner, 2017: 99). The consortium was led by the Centre International d'Études Pédagogiques (CIEP) in France and consisted of five other main partners consisting of Evaluation and Accreditation of Quality in Language Services (EAQUALS) in UK, the British Council in UK, Instituto Cervantes in Spain, Bulgarian Association for Quality Language Services (OPTIMA) in Bulgaria, and Goethe-Institut e.V. in Germany. The consortium also consisted of five subsidiary partners: Center für Berufsbezogen Sprachen (CEBS) in Austria, ELS-Bell Education Ltd (ELS Bell) in Poland, Università per Stranieri di Siena in Italy, Hogeschool van Amsterdam DOO in the Netherlands, and Sabanci Üniversitesi in Turkey.

The consortium then successfully applied to the EU-funded Leonardo da Vinci 'Transfer of Innovation' scheme to run a project, which was then called the European Profiling Grid (EPG) Project. The EPG

project itself lasted for two years from 1 October 2011 to 1 October 2013. According to EPG Project (2013: 4), as part of the project, the European Profiling Grid written in five languages was field-tested with about 2,000 teachers, mainly from 20 countries in Europe, and 63 managers and 100 trainers from a wide range of contexts in 11 European countries. The purpose of the field-testing was to test the validity of the descriptors in the pilot EPG ensuring that they worked in the five languages and also to identify changes that needed to be made in the final version. The final version of the Grid is available in nine languages (English, French, German, Spanish, Italian, Bulgarian, Dutch, Turkish, Polish) with a User Guide that provides a clear guidance on how to use the EPG for its various different purposes. In addition, a user-friendly, interactive online version of the Grid (the e-Grid) has also been created to ensure ease of use and it is available in four languages (English, French, German and Spanish). Since the EPG is available in nine languages, it can be used equally successfully by and with teachers of any foreign language.

Training events that were held in various countries towards the end of the EPG project confirmed the consortium's view that the project outcomes were very important and would be useful across Europe and the rest of the world. Rossner also explained that encouraging external recognition came in 2014, when the EPG project was granted a European Language Label (ELL), an annual award recognizing outstanding projects in language education, sponsored by European Commission. Since then, seminars, presentations, and workshops have confirmed a widespread

need for such an instrument, which is now in use in various institutions in numerous countries (Rossner, 2017: 99 – 100).

Nevertheless, it must be taken into account that the EPG is not used to be set of standards or rules to be imposed on language teachers as mentioned in EPG Project (2013: 4) that the EPG should not be used 'as an instrument to direct, impose, restrict, harmonize, reward or penalise teachers'. Rather, its aim is 'to inform, make suggestions, offer advice, share insights, assist in identifying individual strengths and gaps, and offer guidance'. Moreover, according to EPG Project (2013: 12), the EPG is not used to be a checklist for observations, job interviews or performance reviews. It can only serve as an additional reference point for aspects of appointing and assessing staff. Its main aim is to provide a snapshot of the current phases of professional development of teachers in various European countries and help them realize their potentials for growth.

2.1.1 Scope of the EPG

As mentioned earlier, the EPG is used to help language teachers in their development as teachers in order to improve the quality and effectiveness in supporting language learning. However, the EPG can also be used by managers and teacher trainers who are responsible for assuring the quality of language education. In order to achieve its aim, the EPG provides a set of criteria in the form of descriptors organized in four categories and thirteen sub categories. Since this study will focus on the

second category of the EPG, the descriptors of the EPG's Key Teaching Competences are given as follows.

2.1.2 Descriptors of the EPG-Based Key Teaching Competences

The EPG-based Key Teaching Competences covers four sub categories of competence which are considered essential. These sub categories are a) methodology: knowledge and skills, b) assessment, lesson and course planning, and d) interaction management and monitoring. The EPG-based Key Teaching Competences contains can-do descriptors which are not restricted to language teaching.

Table 2.1 Descriptors of the EPG-Based Key Teaching Competences

Key Teaching Competences						
Sub Competence	Development Phase 1.1	Development Phase 1.2	Development Phase 2.1	Development Phase 2.2	Development Phase 3.1	Development Phase 3.2
Methodology: Knowledge and Skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> is learning about different language theories and methods when observing more experienced teachers, can understand why they have chosen the techniques and materials they are using 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> has basic understanding of different language learning theories and methods can select new techniques and materials, with advice from colleagues can identify techniques and materials for different teaching and learning contexts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> is familiar with language learning theories and methods is familiar with techniques and materials for two or more levels can evaluate from a practical perspective the suitability of techniques and materials for different teaching contexts can take into account the needs of particular groups when choosing which methods and techniques to use 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> is well acquainted with language learning theories and methods, learning styles and learning strategies can identify the theoretical principles behind teaching techniques and materials can use appropriately a variety of teaching techniques and activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> can provide theoretical justification for the teaching approach being used and for a very wide range of techniques and materials can use a very wide range of teaching techniques, activities and materials 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> has a detailed knowledge of theories of language teaching and shares it with colleagues can follow up observation of colleagues with practical, methodologically sound feedback to develop their range of teaching techniques can select and create appropriate tasks and materials for any level for use by colleagues
Assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> can conduct and mark end of unit tests from the course book 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> can conduct and mark progress tests (e.g. end of term, end of year) when 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> can conduct regular progress tests including an oral component 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> can select and conduct regular assessment tasks to verify learners' progress in 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> can design materials and tasks for progress assessment (oral and 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> can develop assessment tasks for all language skills and language knowledge at any

		<p>given the material to do so</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • can conduct oral tests when given the material to do so • can prepare and conduct appropriate revision activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • can identify areas for students to work on from the results of tests and assessment tasks • can give clear feedback on the strengths and weaknesses identified and set priorities for individual work 	<p>language and skills areas</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • can use an agreed marking system to identify different types of errors in written work in order to increase learners' language awareness • can prepare for and coordinate placement testing 	<p>written)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • can use video recordings of learners' interactions to help them recognize their strengths and weaknesses • can apply CEFR criteria reliably to assess learners' proficiency in speaking and writing 	<p>level</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • can apply CEFR criteria reliably to assess learners' proficiency in speaking and writing at all levels and help less experienced colleagues to do so • can create valid formal tests to determine whether learners have reached a given CEFR level • can run CEFR standardization
Lesson and Course Planning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • can link a series of activities in a lesson plan, when given materials to do so 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • can find activities to supplement those in the textbook • can ensure coherence between lessons by taking account of the outcomes of previous lessons in planning the next • can adjust lesson plans as instructed to take account of learning success and difficulties 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • can use a syllabus and specified materials to prepare lesson plans that are balanced and meet the needs of the group • can plan phases and timing of lessons with different objectives • can compare learners' needs and refer to these in planning main and supplementary objectives for lessons 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • can plan a course or part of a course taking account of the syllabus, the needs of different students and the available materials • can design tasks to exploit the linguistic and communicative potential of materials • can design tasks to meet individual needs as well as course objectives 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • can conduct a thorough needs analysis and use it to develop a detailed and balanced course plan that includes recycling and revision • can design different tasks based on the same source material for use with learners at different levels • can use analysis of learner difficulties in order to decide on action points for upcoming lessons 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • can design specialized courses for different contexts that integrate communicative and linguistic content appropriate to the specialism • can guide colleagues in assessing and taking account of differing individual needs in planning courses and preparing lessons • can take responsibility for reviewing the curriculum and syllabuses for different courses
Interaction Management and Monitoring	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • can give clear instructions and organize an activity, with guidance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • can manage teacher-class interaction • can alternate between teaching the whole class and pair or group practice giving clear instructions • can involve learners in pair and group work based on activities in a course book 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • can set up and manage pair and group work efficiently and can bring the class back together • can monitor individual and group activities • can provide clear feedback 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • can set up a varied and balanced sequence of class, group and pair work in order to meet the lesson objectives • can organize task-based learning • can monitor learner performance effectively • can provide/ elicit clear feedback 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • can set up task-based learning in which groups carry out different activities at the same time • can monitor individual and group performances accurately and thoroughly • can provide/ elicit individual feedback in various ways • can use the monitoring and feedback in designing further activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • can set up, monitor and provide support to groups and individuals at different levels in the same classroom working on different tasks • can use a wide range of techniques to provide/ elicit feedback

2.1.3 Methodology: Knowledge and Skills

Language teachers usually depend on research conducted by linguists, psycholinguists and sociolinguists. Language teachers practice theories provided by theoreticians, including linguists and educationalists, in their classroom. These theories that will finally lead to methods help the language teachers to create various techniques in order to teach a foreign language in their classroom effectively. Therefore, language theories will guide language teachers to select and follow an approach or a method to the teaching of any new language.

Nunan (1995: 2) pointed out that methodology can be defined as the study of the practices and procedures used in teaching, and the principles and beliefs that underlie them. Thus, according to Nunan (1995: 2), methodology may include a) study of the nature of language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) and procedures for teaching them, b) study of the preparation of lesson plans, materials, and textbooks for teaching language skills, c) the evaluation and comparison of language teaching methods, such as the silent way, direct approach and audio lingual method. Tamura (2006: 169) pointed out that methodology in English language teaching has a task to improve the process of teaching English by empowering and facilitating teachers to work proficiently. Tamura (2006: 169) went on to say that teaching itself involves a continuous analysis of one's own work, the experiences of other teachers, and the search for new means to improve teaching.

Language teachers do not simply deliver and transfer materials to their learners, but they must also be facilitators who can help their learners to learn optimally. Having a sufficient and appropriate quality could help language teachers and their learners to achieve educational objectives. Among the many requirements that language teachers have to possess, pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) is an important aspect to develop teacher expertise.

The pedagogical content knowledge was introduced by Shulman (1986). Shulman (1987: 8) explained that in order to achieve effective teaching, teachers need to combine the subject and pedagogy so that they demonstrate “an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organized, represented, and adapted to diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction”. In other words, in order to make knowledge understandable and teachable to students, teachers need to transform knowledge into forms of representations, analogies, illustrations, examples, explanations, and demonstrations (Shulman, 1986, 9).

In addition, Shulman (1986) distinguished two main components in PCK, namely a) the most regularly taught topics in one’s subject area and the most useful forms of representation of these topics, and b) an understanding of what makes learning of several topics easy or difficult. Shulman (1987) considered PCK as one of seven categories of teacher knowledge, along with content knowledge (CK), general pedagogical

knowledge (PK), curriculum knowledge, knowledge of learners, knowledge of educational contexts, and knowledge of educational purposes.

In the methodology sub category of the EPG-based Key Teaching Competences, the area, which is focused on, is language teaching. The descriptors in the sub category of methodology include knowledge and understanding of teaching methods, and skills required to choose and use these teaching methods appropriately (Rossner, 2017: 136). The descriptors in this sub category show that it is important to know and understand about methodology, and that the ability to recognize and use methodology appropriately for various teaching purposes is gained gradually in a teacher's career.

2.1.4 Assessment

Language assessment or testing is an important phase in the process of language teaching and learning as it monitors students' educational improvement and evaluate the quality of the systems at school (Fulcher and Davidson: 2007). Smith (2011) defined assessment as a process that teachers should do in order to understand and draw conclusions about students' learning process, progress and learning outcome. Brown (2004: 4) defined assessment as an ongoing process that encompasses a much wider domain. Whenever a student responds to a question, offers a comment, or tries out a new word or structure, the teacher subconsciously makes an assessment of the student's performance. Haines (2004) shared a similar idea with what Smith (2011)

and Brown (2004) stated that assessment consists of process where the achievement and improvement of the learners are measured by the teachers. Another definition of assessment was given by Hanna and Dettmer (2004) that assessment is the process of gathering data. More specifically, assessment is a way instructors gather data about their teaching and their students' learning. Angelo and Cross (1993) also pointed out that assessment is "an interactive process between students and teachers. It informs the teachers how well their students in learning what they are teaching."

Assessment, test and evaluation are three different terms that are related to each other. They mean very different things and yet most people are unable to adequately explain the differences (Kizlik, 2012). Brown (2004: 3) defined test as "a method of measuring a person's ability, knowledge or performance in a given domain". Brown (2004: 4) also pointed out that tests are a subset of assessment and they are obviously not the only form of assessment that a teacher can make. Meanwhile, Overton (2012) explained that test is a method to determine students' ability to complete certain tasks or demonstrate mastery of skills or knowledge of content. He added that test is one form of an assessment.

Overton (2012) stated that evaluation is a procedure used to determine whether the students have already met desired criteria. Evaluation more focuses on grades and adds the ingredients of value judgment to assessment. Furthermore, evaluation also uses assessment (in the form of a test) to "make a determination of qualification in

accordance with a predetermined criteria". Thus, assessment does have an impact on the students' approaches to learning. Considering the impact, assessment should be done by teachers in order to obtain data about students' performance and to reflect on how this information can be analyzed and used to make decisions about how to arrange a course and what tasks and materials to use (Vik, 2013:16).

Brown (2004: 5) mentioned and explained informal and formal assessment. Informal assessment can be given by a number of forms, such as incidental, unplanned comments and responses along with coaching and other impromptu feedback to students. Examples of informal assessment include saying "Great job!", "Nice work", or "Did you say *two* or *too*?". Formal assessment, on the other hand, refers to exercises or procedures specifically designed to find out about students' skills and knowledge according to Brown (2004: 6).

Brown (2004: 6) also explained two types of assessment based on its function, summative and formative assessment. For the formative assessment, it evaluates students in the process of forming their competencies and skills with the goal of helping them to continue that growth process. The summative assessment, on the other hand, is used to measure, or summarize, what a student has grasped, and typically occurs at the end of a course or unit of instruction.

According to Rossner (2017: 139), the EPG was developed with the view that assessment is a crucial part in teaching and learning activities. As a result, teachers have a great deal of responsibilities in assessment.

In the assessment sub category of the EPG, the descriptors are mainly practical and refer to various kinds of assessment which are usually used in language teaching. In addition, the descriptors do not only include assessment activities, but they also cover activities that relate to assessment, such as feedback.

2.1.5 Lesson and Course Planning

Planning is an essential part of teaching. A lack of good planning in a lesson or course will affect the quality and effectiveness of teaching. This does not mean that improvisation and deviation from a plan will automatically result in bad quality of teaching. On the contrary, unplanned elements in a lesson or course may become the dynamic of the lesson or course and allow for flexible attention to students' needs and interests.

Farrell (2002: 30) defined a lesson plan as "a unit in which it is a sequence of correlated lessons around a particular theme or it can be specified as a systematic record of a teacher's thoughts about what will be covered during a lesson". He further added that a daily lesson plan is a written description of how students will move towards obtaining specific objectives. Spratt, Pulverness and Williams (2005) pointed out that a lesson plan is a series of course plan that provides directions for a teacher of what kind of materials of study to be taught and how to teach them. Learners are expected to get bored during the teaching and learning process. As a result, language teachers need to think of this challenge. The way to overcome this challenge is in teachers' hand. Lesson plan is

one option for teachers to manage properly. According to Naimie et al. (2012), lesson plan is teacher-made depending upon the class and learners' needs.

Amininik et al. (2000) pointed out that lesson plan preparation by faculty members is one of the appropriate ways for promotion of education quality since it can help the lecturers in teaching as guidance. Moreover, Coppola et al. (2004) stated that lesson plan is main foundation of educational structure and it is core of education. Thus, faculty members should not be present in class without a lesson plan because it is required for a successful teaching. Houston and Beech (2002), on the other hand, believed that meeting different learning needs of students can create several problems for teachers because there are students with different characteristics and a range of abilities in a class. Therefore, the best source of action to meet this challenge is to design effective lesson plans as stated by Kame'enui and Simmons (1999 as cited in Houston and Beech, 2002). Yildirim (2003) pointed out that lesson planning is an important process in teacher trainees' gaining experience since it forces them to reflect on what to teach, how to teach and how to evaluate.

There are some benefits to writing a lesson plan. First, lesson planning produces more unified lessons according to Jensen (2001). She explained that lesson planning provides teachers opportunities to think deliberately about their choice of lesson objectives, the types of activities that will meet these objectives, the sequence of those activities, the

materials needed, how long each activity might take, and how students should be grouped.

Second, according to Reed and Michaud (2010), the lesson planning process allows teachers to evaluate their own knowledge with regards to the content to be taught. For example, if a teacher has to teach a complex grammatical structure and is not sure of the rules, the teacher will be aware of this during lesson planning and can take steps to acquire the necessary information.

Third, according to Jensen (2001), a teacher with a plan is a more confident teacher. The teacher is clear on what needs to be done, how, and when. The lesson will tend to flow more smoothly because all the information has been gathered and the details have been decided upon beforehand. The teacher's confidence will lead to more respect from the learners. As a result, it will reduce discipline problems and help the learners to feel more relaxed and open to learning.

Some teachers feel that lesson planning takes much time. However, lesson plans can be actually used again and again, in whole or in part, in other lessons months or years in the future (Jensen, 2001). Many teachers keep files of previous lessons they have taught, which they then draw on to facilitate planning for their current classes. In other words, lesson planning now can save time later.

The last benefit of writing a lesson plan is that lesson plans can be useful for other people as well according to Jensen (2001). Substitute teachers sometimes need to teach another teacher's class and they will

appreciate if they receive a detailed lesson plan to follow. Understanding that substitute teachers will follow the lesson plan also gives the regular classroom teacher confidence that the class time is being used productively in his or her absence.

According to Rossner (2017: 141), the descriptors in the sub category of lesson and course planning of the EPG show that planning involves responding to the needs of students. This can be seen, for example, at development phase 1.2 which reads 'can adjust lesson plans as instructed to take account of learning success and difficulties'. At the phase 1.2, 'as instructed' is included in the descriptors and it indicates that guidance is still needed. However, at the development phase 2.1 which reads 'can compare learners' needs and refer to these in planning main and supplementary objectives for lessons', teachers should be able to compare learners' needs and refer to these in planning.

2.1.6 Interaction Management and Monitoring

Classroom interaction is considered as one of the most important pedagogical research topics in language classrooms in recent decades. It has been mostly due to the influence of the Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky. Vygotskian sociocultural theory, as quoted in Hall and Walsh (2002), views language learning as a social activity that children build their knowledge through the help and scaffolding of more knowledgeable peers or teachers. According to Luk and Lin (2007), interactions in language classrooms are important social activities for students through which they

do not only construct knowledge, but they also build confidence and identity as competent language users. In an in-depth ethnographic study of teacher-student interactions in Hong Kong, Luk and Lin (2007) found out that students develop multiple identities through their classroom interactions with their language teachers. Although the study took place in an ESL classroom where native English language teachers are available, Luk and Lin (2007: 188) presented a storytelling about how students negotiate identity and cultural resources, which are “translated into non-institutionally sanctioned language practices and identities”. Perhaps, the social knowledge students bring into the classrooms might be those “non-institutional language practices”, which schools and teachers are supposed to build on in order to enhance their learning.

Interaction in the classroom refers to conversations between teachers and students, as well as among the students, in which active participation and learning of the students will be crucial. Conversations are part of the sociocultural activities through which students construct knowledge collaboratively. Conversations between and among various parties in the classroom have been referred to as educational talk according to Mercer and Dawes (2008) or “exploratory talk” and “presentational talk” according to Barnes (2008: 5).

Presentational talk is one way lecture conducted by teachers in the classroom, which contributes little to encouraging and engaging students in a communicative dialogue. On the other hand, exploratory talk is a purposeful conversation, often deliberately designed by teachers, which

provide opportunities to students to engage in the conversation enabling them to “try out new ideas, to hear how they sound, to see what others make of them, to arrange information and ideas into different patterns” (Barnes, 2008:5). Thus, when students engage in interactions, they produce “symmetric dialogic context” (Mercer and Dawes, 2008: 66) where everyone can participate, get respected and get the decisions made jointly. Students’ participation in interactions, therefore, can help them enrich their linguistic resources and build their confidence to communicate with others in English. Jong and Hawley (1995) mentioned that there are three stages of interactions in a classroom, namely a) interaction of the students with the teacher, which is teacher and students whole-class interaction, b) pair interaction, which is interaction of the students with their peers sitting together or next to them, c) group interaction, which is interaction among the students in a group of 4 – 5 students.

Monitoring is a classroom management technique, which is sometimes considered as listening to learners for their accuracy and fluency, or checking to see whether activities are going to plan and that the learners are on task. Nevertheless, monitoring is often done as a vague listening and looking exercise by the teacher, and sometimes not done at all, whereas, in fact, effective monitoring is a skill that needs to be developed if learners are to benefit fully from activities, particularly those of the information gap and group interactive types. The idea of teacher monitoring usually takes place during the process of pair or group interactions. Teachers may evaluate the extent and forms of interactions

students conducted during the process, and at the same time, provide feedback and support to the weaker students.

According to Rossner (2017: 143), the sub category of interaction management and monitoring of the EPG is related to the interaction between teachers and their students. It might be thought that this sub category belongs to methodology sub category, but it is a separate sub category because this interaction management and monitoring is crucial to the effectiveness of teaching. This sub category covers three main areas:

1. Giving students instructions and encouragement so that they can carry out tasks individually, in pairs or groups, or as a whole class.
2. Monitoring what individuals and the whole group are doing and if the tasks and activities are contributing to learning or not.
3. Giving feedback to students on the way they are working, and on the language they are using.

In general, being sensitive to the mood, feelings, and needs of students during teaching is important in good interaction management and monitoring. Knowing each student individually enables teachers to interact productively and to avoid causing upset and stress, and at the same time, teachers have to ensure that all students are involved and motivated in classroom activities.

2.2 Curriculum

According to Pratt (1994: 5) and Barrow and Milburn (1990: 84), the word “curriculum” derives from the Latin verb *currere* meaning “to run.” A

great number of researchers have defined what curriculum is. However, the term curriculum which is used in this study refers to 'the overall plan or design for a course and how the content for a course is transformed into a blueprint for teaching and learning which enables the desired learning outcomes to be achieved' (Richards, 2013: 6). Goodson (1994: 111) defined curriculum as "a multifaceted concept, constructed, negotiated, and renegotiated at a variety of levels and in a variety of arenas." Meanwhile, Longstreet and Shane (1993) mentioned another side of curriculum which requires decision making. Bharvad (2010: 72) defined curriculum "as the sum of all experiences, which are to be provided in an educational institution" while Lovat and Smith (1995: 23, as cited in Thornton and Chapman, 2000: 3) stated that curriculum can best be conceived as decision-making action that integrates both intention and the manner in which the intention becomes operationalized into classroom reality.

In a narrower point of view, Eisner (2002: 25) mentioned that curriculum may refer to "what schools teach" and "a specific educational activity planned for a particular student at a particular point in time," which are exactly far from each other or as a product or set of items for teaching, deriving materials and methodology and finally the planning for a program. Su (2012: 153 - 154) stated that the key terms of different definitions of the term curriculum are goals or objectives where curriculum can be seen as a means of achieving specific educational goals and objectives; courses of study or content where curriculum can be understood as a process of

selecting courses of study or content; plans where curriculum can be seen as a plan or a sort of blueprint for systematically implementing educational activities; documents where curriculum is associated with the official written programs of study published by ministries or departments of education, local authorities or boards of education, and commercial firms or teams of educational specialists working on specially funded projects; and experiences where curriculum is seen as a program for experiences.

It would be appropriate to clarify the definitions of the terms curriculum and syllabus since there are several conflicting views on what it is that distinguishes syllabus design from development (Nunan, 1993: 5). Regarding this difference, Nunan pointed out that it is possible to differentiate a broad and a narrow approach to syllabus design. Another explanation related to curriculum and syllabus refers to what Candlin (1984: 31) mentioned that curriculum is concerned with making general statements about language learning, learning purpose, experience, evaluation, and the role and relationships of teachers and learners. Syllabus, on the other hand, is more localized and is based on accounts and records of what actually happens at the classroom level as teachers and learners apply a given curriculum to their own situation (narrower definition). Nunan (1993: 8) explained similarly to what Candlin had explained that curriculum is concerned with planning, implementation, evaluation, management, and administration of education programs while syllabus focuses more narrowly on the selection and grading of content.

Krahnke (1987: 2) pointed out that the difference between curriculum and syllabus is not a big issue. Krahnke (1987: 2) explained that curriculum includes syllabus, but syllabus does not include curriculum. He went on to explain that a syllabus is more specific and more concrete than a curriculum, and a curriculum may contain a number of syllabi. Krahnke (1987: 2) also stated that a curriculum may only specify the goals (what learners will be able to do at the end of a lesson) while a syllabus specifies the content of the lesson in order to move the learners towards the goals. Furthermore, Krahnke (1987) explained six different types of language teaching syllabi based on the content of language teaching as follows:

1. A structural or formal syllabus. In a structural or formal syllabus, the content of language teaching is a collection of the forms and structures, usually grammatical, of the language that is being taught. Examples include nouns, verbs, adjectives, statements, questions, subordinate clauses, and so on.
2. A notional or functional syllabus. In a notional or functional syllabus, the content of the language teaching 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.
3. A situational syllabus. In a situational syllabus, the content of language teaching 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 activities in a specific setting. The language in the situation involves a number of functions, combined into a reasonable segment of discourse. Examples of situations include: seeing the doctor, complaining to the landlady, buying a book at the book store, meeting a new colleague, and others.

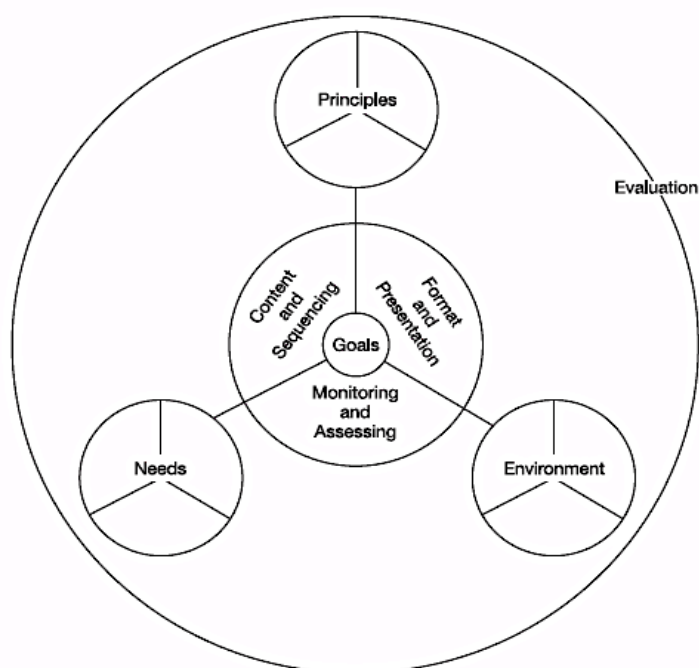
4. A skill-based syllabus. In this skill-based syllabus, the content of the language teaching is a collection of specific abilities that may play a part in using a language. Skills are things that people must be able to do to be competent in a language, relatively independently of the situation or setting in which the language use can occur. A skill-based syllabus groups linguistic competences (such as pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and discourse) together into generalized types of behavior, such as listening to spoken language for the main ideas, writing well-formed paragraphs, giving effective oral presentations, and others. The main purpose of a skill-based instruction is to learn a specific language skill. Another 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. In a task-based syllabus, the content of the teaching is a series of complex and purposeful tasks that the students want or need to perform with the language they are learning. The tasks can be defined as activities with a purpose other than language learning, but the performance of the tasks is approached in such a

way that is intended to develop second language ability. Language learning is a subordinate to task performance, and language teaching occurs only as the need arises during the performance of a given task. Tasks integrate language skills in specific settings of language use. Tasks that can be used for language learning are, generally, tasks that learners actually have to perform in any case. Examples include: applying for a job, talking with a receptionist, getting product information over the telephone, and others.

6. A content-based syllabus. In a content-based syllabus, the main purpose of instruction is to teach some content or information using the language that learners are learning. The learners are language students and students of whatever content is being taught. The subject matter is essential, 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 that the learners need or want to learn, possibly with linguistic adjustment to make the science more comprehensible.

Meanwhile, Nation and Macalister (2010) explained their view that curriculum design can be seen as one kind of writing activity and as such it can be studied as a process. Typical sub processes of the writing process (gathering ideas, ordering ideas, ideas to text, reviewing, editing) can be

applied to curriculum design, but it makes it easier to draw on current curriculum design theory and practice if a different set of parts is used. In addition, Nation and Macallister (2010) introduced the curriculum design model (see figure 1) consisting of three outside circles and a subdivided inner circle. The outer circles in the curriculum design process according to Nation and Macallister (2010) are environment analysis, needs analysis and the application of principles. In the view of distinguishing curriculum from syllabus, both the outer circles and the inner circle make up the curriculum in the mentioned model by Nation and Macalister (2010). Furthermore, the inner circle represents the syllabus that includes goals as its center, content and sequencing, format and presentation, and also monitoring and assessment. Finally, the large outer circle represents evaluation that is aimed at judging whether the course is adequate or not and where it needs improvement. The considerable merit of this model is the ease of remembering the connection between inner and outer circles in designing curriculum. Nation and Macallister (2010) also pointed out the main focus of designing curriculum is both making connection between the research and theory of language learning and the practice of designing lessons and courses and making a course with useful goals to satisfy the users. There is a tendency for this connection not to be made, with the result that curriculum design and therefore learners do not benefit from developments in knowledge gained from research.



**Figure 1. A Model of the Parts of the Curriculum Design Process
(Nation and Macallister, 2010)**

In order to see how adequate a model is, it can be compared with other models to see where they overlap and where they do not overlap. The table below lists the parts of language curriculum design model and that of Graves' model (2000).

Table 2.2 A Comparative Analysis of Graves's Model of Curriculum Design (2000)

Language Curriculum Design Model (Nation and Macallister, 2010)	Framework of Course Development Processes (Graves, 2000)
Environment analysis	Defining the context
Needs analysis	Assessing needs
Principles	Articulating beliefs
Goals	Formulating goals and objectives
Content and sequencing	Organizing the course Conceptualizing content
Format and presentation	Developing materials
Monitoring and assessment	Designing an assessment plan
Evaluation	Designing an assessment plan

As it can be seen above that each of the models has eight parts and there are some considerable overlaps between the two models. There are two major differences. 1) Content and sequencing in the Nation and Macallister's Language Curriculum Design (2010) model matches two parts of the Graves (2000) model, which are organizing the course and conceptualizing content. 2) Monitoring and assessment and evaluation in the Language Curriculum Design model are included in one part of the Graves (2000) model, which is designing an assessment plan.

2.2.1 Curriculum of English Education Study Programs in Indonesia

According to Moeliodihardjo (2015: 1), Indonesian higher education system is largely influenced by the American (Anglo Saxon) model, except in some areas, such as medical and vocational education where some forms of European (continental) model were adopted. Moeliodihardjo (2015: 1) went on to explain that the Indonesian higher education system here refers to all post secondary education, constitutes vocational, academic, and professional education. The term university is usually used to represent all types of higher education institution, i.e. university, institute, polytechnic, college, and academy. Higher education programs in Indonesia, according to Moeliodihardjo (2015: 1), are offered by five types of institution namely: academy, polytechnic, college, institute, and university. The first two institutions, academy and polytechnic, specialize

in vocational education system, whilst the last three institutions are more comprehensive and allowed to offer all education streams.

Alhamuddin (2015: 9) explained some problems related to Indonesian higher education system, such as quality, potentials, system, work ethics, funding, supporting facilities, and graduates. He went on to say that one of the roots of those problems is related to curriculum considering that curriculum is an educational plan that is given to students. Furthermore, Alhamuddin (2015: 10) quoted Hamalik (2008: 4) that even in the broader sense, the existence of curriculum is not only limited to the materials to be provided in classrooms, but it also includes what is deliberately or neglected to be experienced by students within the campus.

The mandate of Law Number 12 Year 2012 Article 35 paragraph 2 concerning the curriculum states that the higher education curriculum in Indonesia is developed by every higher education institution in Indonesia in accordance with National Standards of Higher Education for each study program that includes the development of intellectual intelligence, noble characters, and skills. According to Indonesian Ministry of Research, Technology, and Higher Education (2016), curriculum is defined as an overall plan and rules that include learning outcomes, materials, learning process, and evaluation which are used as guidelines for study programs.

Courses offered in an English education study program is different in each university. Nevertheless, there are some basic courses that are similar, such as Religion, *Pancasila*, Civics, and Indonesian Language.

Those courses are mandatory courses in every study program in a university. The other courses in an English education study program are categorized as main courses, which give knowledge and skills in English language teaching and learning, elective courses, which students may select according to what they would like to focus on, and courses, which are related to public, such as community service program and teaching practice. The example of courses offered in English education study program can be seen as follows.

No	Group	Semester credit
1	General courses	11
2	Basic courses for education	12
3	Courses of expertise and support	105-107
4	Courses of learning	12-14
Total		144-146

Group	Course	Semester credit
General Courses	Religion	3
	<i>Pancasila</i>	2
	Civics	2
	Indonesian Language	2
	Basic of Science	2
Total		11
Basic Courses for Education	The Foundation of Educational Science	4
	Psychological Development	2
	Theory of Learning and Learning Process	4
	Professional Development	2
Total		12
Courses of Expertise and Support	English for Interpersonal Communication	3
	English for Social Communication	3
	English in Social Discourse	3
	English for Business Communication	3
	English in Business Discourse	3
	English in Academic Discourse	3
	Grammar for Interpersonal and Social Communication	3

	English in Academic Discourse	3
	Grammar for Interpersonal and Social Communication	2
	Grammar for Business Communication	2
	English in Literary Works	3
	Introduction to Translation	3
	Practicum of Translation	3
	Diction in Discourse	3
	Public Speaking	3
	Introduction to Language	3
	English Phonetics and Phonology (EPP)	4
	English Morphology and Syntax (EMS)	3
	Introduction to Functional Grammar	3
Courses of Expertise and Support	Semantics and Pragmatics	3
	Introduction to Discourse Analysis	3
	Language Learning and Teaching Theory (LLTT)	3
	English Language Education Management	3
	Current Issues and Policies in Education	3
	ELT Methodology	4
	Peer teaching and microteaching	2
	Curriculum and Material Development	3
	English Language Assessment	3
	PKM/Internship	2
	Introduction to Research	3
	Language Education Research Methodology	3
	Personality Developmental and Interpersonal skills	2
	Statistics	2
	Philosophy of Science	2
	Community Service Program/ <i>KKN</i>	2
	Job Training	1
	Aesthetics	2
	Undergraduate Thesis	6
	(Comprehensive paper)	(2)
Total		105-107
Courses of Learning	ESP for Materials Production	3
	English for Journalism	3
	Journalism Ethics	3
	Media Discourse*	3

	Teaching English for young learners	3
	Error analysis in ELT*	3
	Interpreting and Subtitling	3
	English for News Anchor*	2
	Creative Writing*	3
	Information Communication and Technology (ICT) in ELT	3
	Linguistics for Translators	3
	Indonesian Language for Translators	3
	English in CMC and EMC	3
Total		12-15
Grand total		144

(retrieved from: fbs.unj.ac.id)

2.2.2 Curriculum of Pre-Service Teacher Training Programs in Indonesia

Pre-service teacher training program in Indonesia, called *PPG* (*Pendidikan Profesi Guru*) is a one-year professional development program for pre-service teachers to prepare bachelor degree graduates from education and non-education universities in Indonesia and have talents and interests as teachers to master full teacher competences based on national standards to be able to obtain certificate of professional educators in early childhood education, primary education, and secondary education in Indonesia. (Regulation of Minister of Education No 87, 2013). This pre-service teacher training program is expected to produce competent prospective teachers in Indonesia to plan, implement, assess learning, follow up the results of the assessment, coach and train learners, conduct research, and be able to develop sustainable professionalism. Participants are expected to master their field of study especially in the area of knowledge and pedagogy after graduating from this program.

There are two types of pre-service teacher training program (*PPG*): *PPG-SM3T* and *PPG* regular. These two programs basically have similar management. Participants of *PPG-SM3T* program are required to join *SM3T* program for one year before joining the pre-service teacher training program. *SM3T* program is a government program where the participants are sent to teach at schools in remote areas, such as underdeveloped regions, border regions, and the country's outermost regions. After completing this one-year program, all the participants are then able to join *PPG* program for free (*PPG-SM3T*) while participants of *PPG* regular are graduates of education and non-education universities and they do not join *SM3T* program, so they need pay the tuition fee of the *PPG* regular.

According to Adnyani (2015), the structure of curriculum in *PPG* program for pre-service teachers consists of workshops in developing learning media, teaching practice through micro teaching, peer teaching, field teaching practice, and subject enrichment program. During *PPG-SM3T*, participants are required to stay in a dorm together with other participants (which is called boarding program) and obliged to follow all the rules in this boarding program. However, participants of *PPG* regular are not required to stay in a dorm.

2.2.3 Learning Outcomes

Learning outcomes have become common within curriculum policy in recent years. According to CEDEFOP (2009), this move comes with many potential benefits since it shifts the focus from providers to users of

education, and it introduces a common language, addressing issues of progression, transparency and equity.

CEDEFOP (2009: 9) stated that learning outcomes can best be defined as statements of what a learner knows, understands and is able to do after completion of learning. A similar definition is also given by European Union (2011) that defined learning outcomes as statements of what learners are expected to know, understand, or be able to do at the end of their learning process. From those two definitions, it can be concluded that learning outcomes identify what students should know and be able to do as a result of completing their particular degree programs. As a result, Learning outcomes should clearly state the intended knowledge, skills, abilities, and competencies that characterize the essential learning required of a graduate of a study program. Moreover, learning outcomes should specify both an observable action on the part of the students and the object of that action. In addition, they also may include criteria for acceptable performance and/or other modifiers of the action or object of the action. According to IACBE (International Assembly for Collegiate Business Education) (2016: 5), in learning outcomes, it may be useful to begin each learning outcome statement with "Students will be able to...", followed by an appropriate verb relating to the desired action or performance associated with the intended cognitive level (e.g., using Bloom's taxonomy), IACBE (2016: 8) continued to explain that learning outcomes should:

- 1) specify the level, criteria, or standards for the knowledge, skills, abilities, or competences that students are expected to be able to demonstrate.
- 2) include conditions under which students should be able to demonstrate their knowledge, skills, abilities, or competences.
- 3) contain active verbs.
- 4) be measurable. be expressed in ways that make them capable of being measured by more than one assessment tool, instrument, or metric.

In terms of curriculum design and development, learning outcomes are at the forefront of educational change. They represent an adjustment in emphasis from 'teaching' to 'learning' typified by what is known as the adoption of a student-centered approach in contrast to the traditional teacher-centered viewpoint. Student-centered learning produces a focus on the teaching - learning - assessment relationship and the fundamental links between the design, delivery and measurement of learning (European Union: 2011).

In Indonesia, learning outcomes are formulated by referring to the Indonesia's National Qualification Frameworks (IQF). IQF is a statement of the quality of human resources in Indonesia whose level of qualification is based on the level ability expressed in the learning outcomes.