CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter consists of topics discussion of this study that includes; need analysis, theory of perceptions, learning material, syllabus, speaking skills, and children language learning.

2.1. Needs Analysis

2.1.1 Definition of need analysis

Need analysis is the information collection technique or procedure that is proposed to design a course, syllabus, or learning materials (Nunan, 1999). Need analysis will serve as the basis for the developing a curriculum that based on the learning needs of particular group of learner. Therefore need analysis could be considered as an integral part of systematic curriculum building (Brown, 1995). Need analysis also serves as the logical starting point of language program development which is responsive both to the learner and learning needs (Richard & Renandya, 2002).

Need analysis is used to determine the language content and learning process for specified group of learners (Nunan, 1999). In the process of

analyzing the needs of certain group of learners, not only learners that will be involved, but also teachers or employers could all be involved in determining learners' needs. In the process of collecting information related to the learners' needs, it could be done from the resources of the teaching institution (learning materials used), objectives of the language learning (syllabus used), or even the method in language teaching and learning (Richard, 2001).

2.1.2 Need analysis categories

Need analysis could be divided into two categories; target needs and learning needs. The target needs focuses on what the learner needs to do in the target situation that is related with necessities, lacks, and wants of the learner in learning language (Hutchinson and Waters, 1989).

Necessities refer to the type of need that is determined by the demands of the target situation. It means that what the learner has to know in order to function effectively in the target situation. However, only getting the information about the necessities of the learner itself is not enough. Getting information related to what learner knows already is also important. In other words, needs to be matched against the existing proficiency of the learner. This gap can be referred as the lacks of learner (Hutchison, Waters, and Breen, 1979). Then, after information about necessities and lacks of the

learner has been collected, the next step is to find out about what learner wants to learn as it is related with the motivation of learner toward the language learning.

Besides the target needs, there is also the learning needs that focuses on what the learner needs to do in order to learn. In other words, it will be about the route to learn. There is a framework that consists of specific questions for analyzing learning need; 1. Why are the learners taking the course?, 2. How do the learners learn?, 3. What resources are available?, 4. Who are the learners?, 5. Where will the course take place and 6. When will the course take place. Based on the framework, it is concluded that learning need should be interpreted in order to lead the learner through the right route of integrated series of teaching learning experiences to a particular state of knowledge (Hutchinson and Waters, 1989).

2.1.3 Need analysis Procedures

There are a variety of procedures that could be used in conducting need analysis and the kind of information collected could differ based on the procedure selected. Need analysis that involved incomplete and partial source of information is the triangular approach. Triangular approach is collecting information from the two or more sources such as by using certain kinds of

instruments, such as questionnaires, interview, observations, analysis of available information, and case study (Richard, 2001).

The first is questionnaires are the most common instrument used as it is easy to prepare and the information obtain from questionnaire is easy to tabulate and analyze. Questionnaires are based on either structured items that requires the participants to choose from a limited item response or unstructured that is in the form of open-ended questions (Richard, 2001). The second is interview that could be individual interview that allows for gathering personal responses privately and group interview that involved a group of people. The third is observation that involves watching an individual or a number of individuals, and recording the behaviors that occur. The fourth is existing information that has the purpose of utilizing preexisting information that may be available (Brown, 2001). The fifth is case study that is determining the characteristics of particular situations that involved an individual or selected group based on relevant work or educational experience (Richard, 2001).

2.2. Perception Theories

Perception is closely related with attitude. Perception is the process of interpreting and organizing sensation that is done by organism in order to produce meaningful experience of the world (Lindsay & Norman, 1977). The

importance of study perceptions is regarded as study the world as it tells how ideas created and the world is mainly the world of perceptions, images or ideas. Perceptions explain how individuals possess images, constructs rational and ideas that create themselves. Perceptions as objects which form the content and diversity of the world and also as the starting point and the source of any sensual or intellectual cognition that becomes the subject of our thoughts (Démuth, 2013).

Perception involves the brain's processing and interpretation of the information that include two ways; bottom-up processing and top-down processing. In bottom-up processing, the system takes in particular stimulus that related with individual elements and then combines them into a unified perception (Passer & Smith, 2009). The characteristic feature of bottom–up theories of perception is the fact that the content and quality of sensory input could influence the final percept (Démuth, 2013).

In top-down processing, sensory information is interpreted through the existing knowledge, concepts, ideas, and expectations. It involves higher-order knowledge that cause different perception of individuals as a given sentence may even convey a different personal meaning than to another person when it is linked with particular content of unique personal experience. (Passer & Smith, 2009).

The key feature separating the top–down theories and the bottom–up theories is the participation of higher cognitive functions in the process of

perception in the form of support of discrimination and interpretation of perceived contents. While top–down theories prefer direct perception without participation of knowledge and previous experience (Démuth, 2013).

2.3 Learning Material

2.3.1 Definition of Learning Material

Materials include linguistic, visual, auditory or kinaesthetic which is used to facilitate language learning. Materials can presented in different ways such through printed materials, live performance or display, or on cassette, CD-RoM, DVD or the internet (Tomlinson, 2013). Materials can be in the forms of instructional, experiential, elicitative or exploratory. Materials is used as the source of information about language for learners that may also provide experience of the language in use, stimulate language use or they can help learners to make discoveries about the language for themselves (Richard, 2001).

Teaching materials are a key component in most language program as it generally serves as the basis for language learning that includes the language input learners receive and the language practice that occurs in the classroom. Materials could take the form of printed materials such as books, workbooks, worksheets, or readers; nonprint materials such as cassette or audio materials, videos, or computer-based materials; materials that comprise

both print and nonprint sources such as self-access materials and materials on the internet (Richards & Renandya, 2002).

There are two categories of materials; authentic materials and created materials. Authentic materials refers to the use in teaching of text, photographs, video selections, and other teaching resources (tape recordings, magazines, short stories, folklore), World Wide Web, visuals, realia that were not especially prepared for pedagogical purposes (Bragger & Rice, 1998). On the other hand, created materials refers to textbooks and other specially developed instructional resource as textbook is included as one of many tools in teaching materials (Richards, 2001).

By their very nature, teaching materials represent the meticulous and creative planning product and not classroom events' interactive process results. Frequently, it is considered as grammatical structures or vocabulary items carriers that have to be introduced to the learners (Kumaravadivelu, 2002). There are content areas that should be covered in materials that includes the use of fictionalized characters and events, general interest, academic subject matter, a focus on language itself, and literature (Nunan, 2000).

2.3.2 Components of Learning Material

There are four key components of learning material. Those are input, content, language and task. First component is input that is typically source of learning materials that could be text, video, picture, etc. that provides a stimulus for thoughts or discussion, new language items or the re-presentation of earlier items, a context and a purpose, models of language learning, spur to the use of targeted process skills, opportunities to process information, and opportunities for leaners to use and build on prior knowledge. Input is very crucial as it serves as the basis to construct language comprehension. Hence learners cannot learn to communicate effectively without the existence of this input. Second component is content that is subject-matter contained in materials that includes topics, situations and information to generate meaningful communication. Third component is language that includes language use and language learning should involve opportunities for analyses and for students to integrate new knowledge. The fourth component is task. Task is an activity which is designed to meet the expected learning outcomes. It should lead towards a communicative task, in which learners use the content and language of the unit, and ultimately to an assignment (Hutchison and Waters, 1987).

2.3.3 Characteristics of Learning Material

Learning materials characterized by its role as a hidden curriculum that includes attitudes toward knowledge, teaching and learning, the role and relationship of the teacher and student, values and attitudes related to gender, society, etc. Materials have an underlying instructional philosophy, approach, method, and content that include both linguistic and cultural information (Littlejohn and Windeatt, 1989).

Good learning materials should help learners feel at ease and develop their confidence, what is being taught is authentic, comprehensible and should be perceived by learners as meaningful, relevance, useful and the learners' attention should be gathered on linguistic features of the input, materials should provide the learners with opportunities to achieve communicative purpose, materials should take into account that learners have different learning styles and affective attitudes and therefore should maximize learning potentials of the learners, materials should take into account positive effects of instruction and should provide opportunities for outcomes feedback (Tomlinson, 2013).

2.4 Syllabus

2.4.1 Definition of Syllabus

Traditionally the term syllabus has been used to refer to the form of a specified linguistic and subject-matter content in a course which is designed

to meet the needs of a designated group of learners in a defined context and for the purpose of carrying out a particular learning program. (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). "Syllabus is a specification of the content of a course of instruction [which] lists what will be taught and tested." (Richards, 2001).

Syllabus is defined as the product of organizing and sequencing a course (Graves, 1999). It is supported by the fact that a syllabus consists of course content lists to be taught. Therefore items selection, sequence and integration are the key tasks for the syllabus designer (Nunan, 1999). "Syllabus is a statement on the subject matter, topics, or areas to be covered by the course leading to the particular examination." (Stern, 1984)

A syllabus is a public statement of the work of an educational unit (e.g; learners, teachers, etc.) that is designed based on a specific needs (Brumfit, 1984). One the main needs is to be included as a teaching and learning guide or map that may need to be altered based on the course commencement (Feez and Joyce, 1998). A syllabus as sort of guide to the teacher tells what the teachers are supposed to be teaching (WR Lee, 1987). Therefore a syllabus should be a course of study plan that is designed explicitly and coherently to meet these functions.

2.4.2   Components of Syllabus

The components of syllabus is features or parts that is included in designing syllabus. There are some necessary components of a language

syllabus: The situations in which the foreign language will be used (including the topics which trill be dealt with); the language activities in which the learner will engage; the language functions which the learner will fulfil; what the learner will be able to do with respect to each topic; the general notions which the learner will be able to handle; the specific (topic-related) notions which the learner will be able to handle; the language forms which the learner will be able to use; and the degree of skill with which the learner will be able to perform (Van Ek, 1975).

The components of syllabus above could be summarized in the following: (1) Course information; consists of all information about the course, section code, credit hours, total meetings, semester and pre-requisites of the course if there is any that students need or important to know; (2) Instructor information; consists of the instructor's information, such as full name, address, contact number, some philosophy and interest, etc.; (3) Course description; consists of information about the content of the course, such as how the course is structured and organized; (4) Course objective; consists of the expected outcomes of the course that includes the learning skills that will be developed in each unit of the course; (5) Course requirements and assignments; consists of the requirements of the course, kind of assignments and tests to pass the course; (6) Course policies; consists of policies and general rules that students have to follow such as attendance, class participation, lateness, academic dishonesty and other classroom management

issues; (7) Grading and evaluation; consists of the information about the monitoring, evaluating and grading system; (8) Learning resource and references; consists of materials that will be used during the course such as textbooks, webpage, software, etc.; (9) Course calendar; consists of the schedule of the content of the course (Altman & Cashin, 1992).

2.4.3   Characteristics of syllabus

A well-designed language teaching syllabus characterized by the fact that syllabus attempts mainly in clarifying the learning and teaching aims and objectives; and indicating the classroom procedures the teacher may wish to follow (Kumaravadivelu, 2005). A syllabus should also ideally provide the following: A clear framework of selected knowledge and capabilities to be appropriate to overall aims; classroom work continuity and a sense of direction for teacher and students; a record of what has been covered in the course; a basis for students' progress evaluation; a basis for the appropriateness of the course in relation with the overall aims and students' needs as well as with the broader language curriculum and the educational situation (Breen, 2001).

A good syllabus must be efficient and based on language, language learning, and language use concepts and should be categorized into a negotiable and adjustable public document and an accountable expression that

has a particular group's work specification which specifies the time to achieve

that work and the order in which the material has to be taught (Brumfit, 1984).

2.5 Speaking

2.5.1 The Definition of speaking

Speaking is the activity of using a language actively to express meanings so that other people can understand it. To speak in the foreign language requires attention to language details precisely in order to share understandings with people. A speaker needs to find the most appropriate words and correct grammar to communicate accurate and precise meaning, and needs to organize the discourse so that a listener will understand (Cameron, 2001).

Speaking is carried out with the purpose of communicating interactional or transactional behavior that involves two or more people. When we speak with other people, our interest and attitudes toward them are revealed. These messages are communicated thoroughly through the prosodic features of language: stress, rhythm, intonation, pitch variation, and volume (Richard & Renandya, 2002).

People are considered to be able to speak a language if they have the ability to function that language. To function a language, one needs an adequate

vocabulary, one needs to master syntax and know how to articulate sounds in a comprehensible manner (Nunan, 1999).

2.5.2 Types of speaking

There are three major speech types; Interactions, Transactions and Performances. The following is the features of each of types of major speech (Richards, 2008).

The first is interaction that creates social interaction by addressing needs of participants. It carries out interactively and requires two-way participation. It includes greetings, small talk, compliments, personal recounts, and narratives. Teaching talk as interaction could be done by providing dialogs to model small talk, open dialogs to practice feedback responses, practice conversation (e.g. information, gap activities, role plays, group discussions).

The second is transactions that focuses on message that could be giving or obtaining information, or getting goods and services by making communication strategies. It is included as information oriented (e.g. asking for directions, describing how to use something, sharing opinions and ideas, discussing plans, and included as goods and services oriented (e.g. focus on achieving a goal or service, checking into a hotel, shopping, ordering a meal). Teaching talk as transaction could be done by providing certain kinds of

activity such as information-gap activities, role plays, group discussions or by providing language support and follow-up activities to focus on accuracy.

The third is performances that focusses on a "product" that is produced by a single speaker. It means that a single speaker produces longer stretches of discourse or recognizable "scripts" (e.g., welcome speech, business presentation, class talk). Teaching talk as performance could be done by providing model speeches, presentations, and other model texts or by examining discourse and grammatical features, then constructing and practicing parallel texts.

2.5.3 Speaking difficulties

There are some studies which have investigated the speaking difficulties encountered by EFL learners. A study investigated speaking difficulties faced by elementary school students shows that students have three major difficulties in speaking English: linguistic difficulties, mother tongue use, and inhibition (Hosni, 2014).

The first is the linguistic difficulties that is showed by the lack of vocabulary and the lack of sentence building. As students struggle to find the appropriate vocabulary items when trying to speak English, it reflects students' insufficient vocabulary repertoire. Moreover, students also struggle

to form a short sentence when they try to speak English that reflects students' comprehension of grammar rules and sentence patterns.

The second is mother tongue use that emerges mainly as the result of the lack of linguistic difficulties. It means that the inadequate vocabulary repertoire and weak sentence building skills are the major reasons for the students to have tendency using their mother tongue than using the target language they learn.

The third is inhibition in the form of students' anxieties in speaking English. This anxiety is the result of their fear of making mistakes when they speak.

Another study investigated an overview of major difficulties faced by Libyan EFL learners in speaking English has similar result that students have problems related with to the use of adjectives, preposition, and grammar (it can be concluded as linguistic device problems), the problem in pronouncing words (due to the differences in the sound systems between the first language and the target language), the problem in the use of English idioms (this problem is primarily due to the cultural differences), and the problem of semantic error in the use of collocation (due to the lack of associate words). Other problems that students faced in speaking English are lack of vocabulary, anxiety of making error, lack of interest or motivation, lack of practice, lack of environment for practice, etc. all of these are mainly influenced by the first language influences (Pathan, Aldersi & Alsout, 2014).

2.5.4   A Framework for developing speaking materials

There are at least five recommendations to guide how materials can be developed for speaking skills: conceptualizing learner needs, identifying subject matter and communication situations, identifying verbal communication strategies, utilizing verbal sources from real life, and designing skill-acquiring activities. Effective speaking materials for oral communication should enable learners to be actively: share and process information, control meanings, choose how to participate, utilize affectivity, utilize individual knowledge, become aware of ellipsis in spoken language, move beyond the Initiation-Respond-Feedback model (Tomlinson, 2013).

Speaking course could be organized around functions (functions that commonly needed in English), interaction skills (involving active two way participation), and topics (different topics and how to talk about them in English) (Richard, 2008).

2.6   Children language learning

2.6.1   The nature of children language learning

The most essential factor in a learner's language acquisition is the amount of comprehensible input to which that learner is exposed. As based on Krashen's input hypothesis (i + 1), the use of the target language to communicate message should be in a way that is understood by the student at all times. Therefore language acquisition takes place most effectively when

the input is context embedded, meaningful and interesting to the learner, when it is comprehensible, and when it is not grammatically sequenced (Yule, 2006; Brown, 2001). The principles of second-language acquisition will be devoted to strategies for making the target language comprehensible to the students as based on this theory, children 's acquisition takes place in a predictable stages and the degree of acquisition is correlated with the time as children are more likely to develop native-like proficiency before age 10 (Curtain & Dahlberg, 2010; Harmer, 2007; Shrum & Glisan, 2010).

2.6.2 Different views of children language learning

The most influential views about L2 acquisition arise from: behaviourist, nativist, cognitive-developmental, and social-interactionist. The first is from behaviourists that believe imitation and practice or habit formation are key processes in language development. This view emphasizes the importance of positive reinforcement in L2 acquisition where every correct learning behavior will be rewarded. The second is from nativists that believe with the universal features of the human mind. This view emphasizes that children are pre-programmed to learn a language and are highly sensitive to the linguistic features of their environment as they are fully equipped with Innate Language Acquisition (LAD). The third is from cognitive-developmental view that emphasizes language development as an aspect of

general cognitive growth and claims certain thinking skill should be acquired first to create framework for early language development. In terms of L2 learning, there is Critical Period Hypothesis that suggests the specific and limited times for language acquisition. The last is the social-interactionists that view the importance of human social interaction and the role of adult and child relationship in learning. Adults act as the partner with whom the children interacts and gets assistance in language learning which Brunner referred to as 'scaffolding'. The work of Vygotsky also stresses the importance of adults and children interaction that is referred as Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) that explains the fact that children can learn better with the help of someone more knowledgeable and skilled (Brewster, Ellis, & Girard, 2002)

2.6.3 The developmental characteristic of fourth graders

The developmental characteristics of fourth graders (children age 8 to 10) are divided into three based on: cognitive development, layers of educational development, and elementary school learners' development.

The first is developmental characteristics of the learner in the stages of cognitive development that is proposed by Piaget (1963). Teachers working with children should keep the characteristics of each cognitive stage in mind that children age 7 to 11 years the child develops the ability to apply logical

thought to concrete problems with the help of the existing experience to understand new concepts and ideas. The next characteristic in developmental characteristic of the learner is proposed by the Canadian educator Kieran Egan (1979, 1986, 1992) is referred as layers of educational development. Egan describes developmental characteristics that determine how the learner makes sense of the world. The romantic layer that consists of children ages 8 to 9 through 14 to 15 years are characterized by the way they develop a sense of their own identity and also attracted to realistic detail. They emphasizes qualities that can overcome the threat and qualities developing a sense of romance, wonder, and awe. The last characteristic is developmental characteristic of fourth graders elementary school learners that is categorized as intermediate students (ages 8‑10; grades 3‑5): they are social learners that work well in groups involving peer editing and scoring activities, which is also supported by concrete learning experiences as they begin to understand cause and effect and learn best from imagination and stories that feature binary opposites (e.g., good vs. evil) and real-life heroes and heroines involving enjoy peer editing and scoring activities (Curtain & Dahlberg, 2010).

2.7 Learning materials for fourth graders

2.7.1   Songs

Children love song, rhymes and chants and their repetitive nature and rhythm make them an ideal vehicle for learning a second or foreign language. Song is recognized by most primary school teacher by their usefulness in children language teaching. The benefit of using song includes a linguistic resource that helps teachers to allow new language to be introduced and structures, pronunciation, and vocabulary to be reinforced, present familiar language in an enjoyable and exciting way, rich and imaginative, a psychological/affective resource that helps teachers develop students' learning motivation and self-confidence, also support children to feel at ease, a cultural resource that helps teachers raise cultural awareness of children from authentic resources, and a social resources that helps teachers develop a class or group identity as song is a share social experiences (Brewster, Ellis, & Girard, 2002; Slattery & Willis, 2001).

2.7.2 Games

Games are designed to provoke communication between students and also could be used to make language learning amusing (Harmer, 2001). Games are a familiar method by which elementary school teachers create setting for children to acquire their second or foreign language. Games provide motivation and a sense of play that brain research and teacher

experience indicate can increase both learning and memory of children (Curtain & Pesola, 1988).

Children enjoy constructive play and games that is not only fun but also motivating and provide excellent practice for improving pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar and the four skills. By using games in language learning, children can feel more secure and confident. The benefit of using games are because they encourage the memorization of language chunks, provide useful pronunciation practice, encourage more creative use of language, involve children with informal language analysis and help children notice language items and rules. Games also help to make learning memorable, accessible and may be practiced together with a wider educational or conceptual goal (Brewster, Ellis, & Girard, 2002).

2.7.3 Stories

The value of using story is divided into two: the educational value and language teaching value. The value of stories that is related with the educational value are the role that stories have in helping children relate things to what they already know, helping children to recognize real life from different viewpoints, as well as other cultures and attitudes, helping children to share their experience and develop their thinking skills and most

importantly, helping children enjoy their language learning. The value of stories that is related with language teaching are the role that stories have in helping teachers introduce new language in context, revise language that the children familiar with, increase children awareness of language structures, provide authentic materials that enables children to acquire intonation and pronunciation. (Slattery & Willis, 2001).

Other than those values, stories also has another important value in helping children to increase vocabulary, grammar and oral and literacy skills. Learning a second or foreign language by using stories also provides holistic learning experience that enables children to comprehend their target language (Cameron, 2001).

2.8   Previous Research

This study related with Hayes, D. and Raman, U.K.'s study (2013). This study was about the need analysis that was conducted with the purpose of generating data to enable the British Council to identify the needs and requirements for a large-scale English language teacher-training initiative at the primary level in Madhya Pradesh. From this study, it was found that there was a requirement for any school administer to evaluate the suitability of the textbooks for all primary classes, particularly in terms of their grading.