Well Prepared English Teaching

by Leffi Noviyenty

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Leffi Noviyenty

Well - Prepared English Teaching

(A Contextual Friend
to bring the perfect teaching in your grasp)

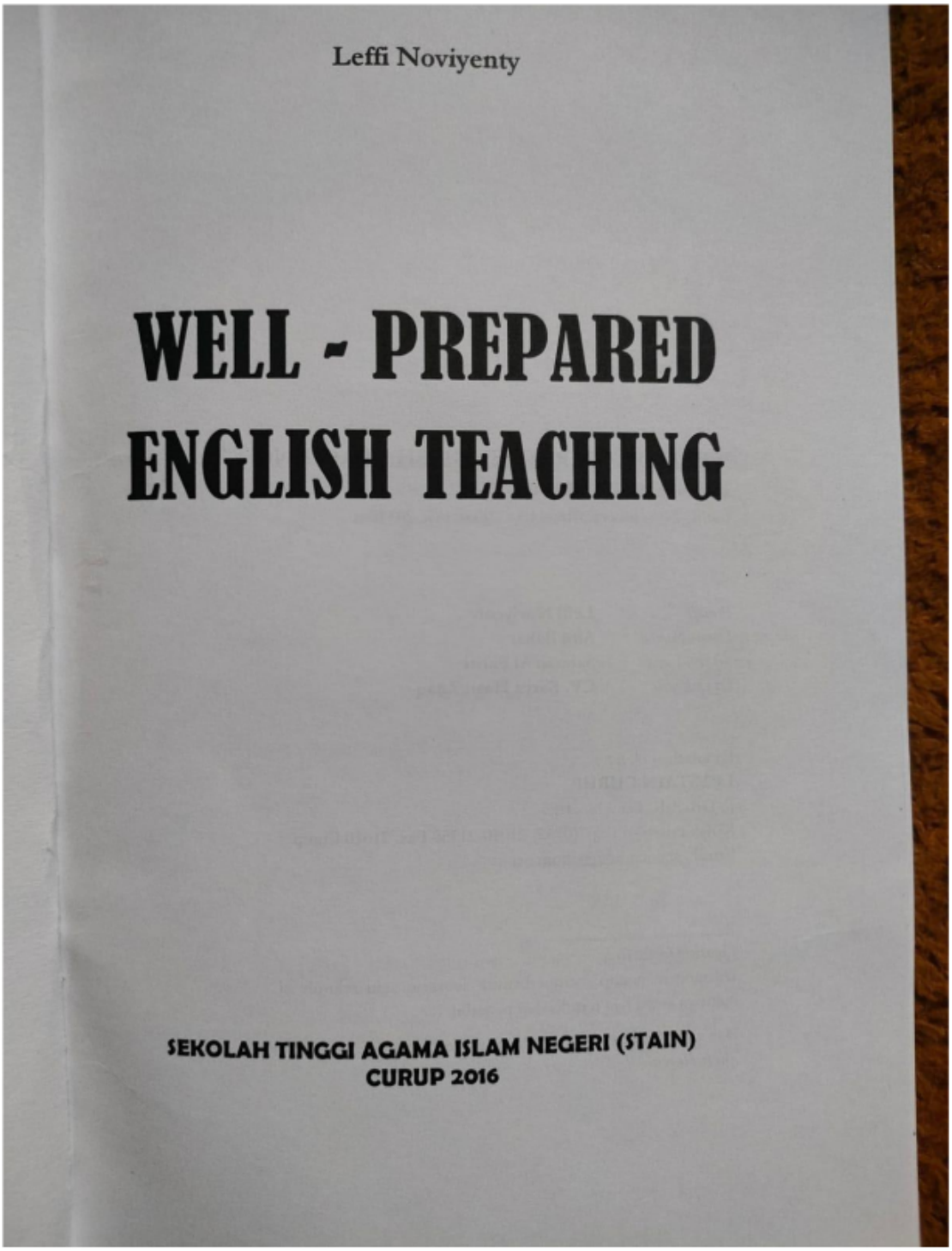








LP2 STAIN Curup


Leffi Noviyenty
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Kata Pengantar

Alhamdulillah puji syukur kehadirat Allah SWT, yang selalu dan terus menerus melimpahkan rahmat dan hidayah-Nya sehingga buku ini dapat diselesaikan.

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Curup, Agustus 2022,
Penulis
Leffi Noviyenty

Big Hug and Deep kisses to My Heroes, My fresh breath, My fantastic suns:

Azzam Al Farras Fawwaz Ziddan (Ziddan)

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CONTENT

Cover i
Kata pengantar ii
Content iii

Par t One
Teaching The Knowledge

Chapter I
Overseas Education System and Condition 1

Chapter 2
English Curriculum in Indonesia 28

Chapter 3
English Teacher Competence 39

Chapter 4
Instructional Planning for Teaching 51
A. What does Instructional Planning mean? 51
B. Instructional Planning Phase 59
C. The process of Instructional Planning 61

Chapter 5
The Place of Syllabus 65
A. An Introduction to Syllabus Design 65
B. Approaches to Foreign Language Syllabus Design 74
C. Types of Syllabus 75

Chapter 6
Lesson Planning 80
A. Strategies for Effective Lesson Planning 80
B. Steps for preparing a Lesson Plan 81
C. Six Common Mistakes in Writing Lesson Plan 86
D. The Lesson Plan 89
E. Pengertian dan Komponen RPP Kurikulum 2013 93
F. Komponen RPP Lengkap SD/SMP/SMA/SMK 96
G. Prinsip-prinsip penyusunan RPP 99

Part Two
Implementing the Knowledge to Classroom Activities

Chapter 1
Seating Arrangement 100

Chapter 2
Teaching Media 121

Chapter 3
Strategy in Teaching English 140

Chapter 4
Method in Teaching English 151

Chapter 5
Techniques in Teaching English 170

Chapter 6
Variety of Classroom Activities 185

References 197
Index 202
Apendix 203
Biodata

Part One

Teaching The Knowledge

Chapter I
Overseas Education System and Condition

(7 Negara Pertama Memiliki Sistem Pendidikan Terbaik di Dunia)



Sistem Pendidikan Terbaik di Dunia | Foto: cristinawati(dot)wordpress(dot)com

Sistem pendidikan merupakan salah satu hal penting bagi sebuah Negara. Setiap Negara sudah sepatutnya memperhatikan sistem pendidikan bagi anak-anak dan remajanya. Semua Negara di dunia ini berlomba-lomba meraih penghargaan sistem pendidikan terbaik di dunia. Berbagai cara ditempuh untuk mendapatkan sistem pendidikan yang baik untuk setiap warganya. Tak terkecuali Indonesia, setiap tahun pemerintah negeri ini memperbaiki sistem pendidikan ke arah yang lebih baik dan lebih modern. Hal ini dilakukan agar sistem pendidikan di Indonesia tak ketinggalan dengan Negara-negara lain. Beberapa faktor pendukung sistem pendidikan pun harus diperhatikan, seperti pendanaan sistem pendidikan, kualitas pengajar, sarana dan prasaran pendidikan itu sendiri.

Berbagai lembaga telah melakukan survey mengenai sistem pendidikan terbaik di dunia. Selain itu, mereka juga telah merilis daftar Negara yang memiliki sistem pendidikan terbaik. Dalam daftar tersebut setidaknya ada lima Negara Asia yang memiliki sistem pendidikan paling baik. Lantas Negara apa saja yang memiliki sistem pendidikan terbaik di dunia? Berikut ini adalah daftar Negara dengan sistem pendidikan terbaik di dunia;

1. Finlandia



Sistem Pendidikan di Finlandia | Foto: carapedia(dot)com

Negara pertama yang memiliki **sistem pendidikan terbaik di dunia** adalah Finlandia. Dari tahun ke tahun sistem pendidikan di Finlandia selalu menduduki perinkat teratas. Bahkan sebuah survey global mengatakan, Finlandia disebut sebagai Negara dengan kualitas hidup nomor wahid di dunia. Pemerintah Negara Finlandia memang memberikan andil besar dalam hal ini. Pemerintah Negara ini ikut terjun langsung dalam mengawasi sistem pendidikannya. Finlandia memiliki keunggulan dalam melaksanakan sistem pendidikannya.



Salah Satu Sekolah di Finlandia | Foto: luqmanhamzah(dot)wordpress(dot)com

Sedikitnya ada 5 hal yang menjadikan Finlandia sebagai Negara dengan sistem pendidikan terbaik di dunia peringkat pertama. Diantaranya, pilihan sekolah di Finlandia hanya sedikit dan semuanya dikelola oleh pemerintah, tidak ada tugas rumah, tidak ada ujian nasional, kurikulum pendidikan yang fleksibel, dan guru dengan kualitas terbaik. Semua itu diterapkan pemerintah Finlandia. Meskipun hanya memiliki sekolah sedikit, tapi Finlandia membuktikan bahwa mereka mampu memiliki sistem yang terbaik. Sekolah yang sedikit serta guru dengan kualitas terbaik adalah kuncinya.

2. Korea Selatan



Sistem Pendidikan di Korea Selatan | Foto: comeontoyourdream(dot)blogspot(dot)com

Sama seperti di Indonesia dan Negara-negara lain, Korea Selatan juga menerapkan sistem pendidikan dalam beberapa jenjang, yaitu pendidikan primer, pendidikan sekunder, dan pendidikan tinggi. Sistem Pendidikan di Korea Selatan adalah 6-3-3-4, yang terdiri dari 6 tahun SD, 3 tahun SMP, 3 tahun SMA dan 4 tahun perguruan tinggi. Untuk jenjang pendidikan primer dari SD hingga SMP semua biaya sekolah ditanggung oleh pemerintah. Sedangkan untuk jenjang pendidikan tingkat SMA dikenakan biaya, tapi hanya setengahnya karena setengahnya lagi ditanggung pemerintah.



Salah Satu Sekolah di korea Selatan | Foto: serambimata(dot)wordpress(dot)com

Sistem pendidikan dari jenjang pendidikan pra sekolah hingga perguruan tinggi terbagi menjadi dua semester pertahunnya. Libur yang diberikan setiap sekolah pun tergolong lama. Sekolah di Korea Selatan akan diliburkan pada musim panas, liburan musim dingin dan musim semi. Para siswa di Korea Selatan juga dididik dengan keras dan cermat. Dimulai dari usia 3 tahun anak-anak di Korea Selatan sudah diperbolehkan masuk sekolah. Dukungan pemerintah dibidang pendidikan juga sangat tinggi. Hal

inilah yang menjadikan sistem pendidikan di Korea Selatan salah satu yang terbaik di dunia.

3. Hongkong



Sistem Pendidikan di Hongkong | Foto: idbite(dot)com

Salah satu Negara dengan sistem pendidikan terbaik di dunia adalah Hongkong. Sistem pendidikan yang diterapkan oleh pemerintah Hongkong adalah kompetitif dan mengedepankan kualitas pengajar. Selain itu, sistem pendidikannya pun mengadopsi struktur pendidikan Inggris. Pendidikan di Hongkong juga lebih mengutamakan pengetahuan, kehlian praktik, serta kemampuan interpersonal. Penerapan praktik kerja nyata ini bertujuan melatih para siswa di Hongkong akan terbiasa hingga nanti ke jenjang pekerjaan. Anak-anak di Hongkong mulai diperbolehkan bersekolah ketika mereka menginjak umur 3 tahun. Sekolah di Hongkong di mulai dari TK, kemudian dilanjutkan ke sekolah dasar selama enam tahun. Setelah sekolah dasar selesai, lalu dilakukan pemeriksaan intens terhadap semua siswa. Pemeriksaan ini bertujuan untuk menentukan sekolah menengah bagi setiap siswa.



Sekolah di Hongkong | foto: vevnews(dot)blogspot(dot)com

Sekolah menengah di Hongkong memang terbagi menjadi dua tingkat, yaitu Junior dan Senior. Sekolah-sekolah menengah tersebut juga dibagi lagi menjadi tiga kelompok. Pengelompokan ini bertujuan untuk menentukan peringkat dalam urutan Prestise Akademik. Kelompok nomor 1 tentu kelompok yang paling bergengsi. Semakin baik peringkat siswa tersebut dari sekolah, maka semakin besar pula kesempatannya untuk masuk ke Universitas bergengsi. Pengelompokan sekolah menengah ini adalah kunci dalam meraih *sistem pendidikan terbaik di dunia* yang diterapkan Hongkong dari dulu hingga saat ini. Sama seperti di Indonesia, sistem pendidikan di Hongkong juga menerapkan ujian di akhir periode sekolah. Terdiri dari dua ujian yang harus dilalui masing-masing siswa, yaitu *Ujian pendidikan Hongkong* (HKCEE) dan P*emeriksaan Tingkat Lanjutan Hongkong* (HKALE).

4. Jepang



Sistem pendidik
an di Jepang / Foto: akenoyuki(dot)wordpress(dot)com

Kualitas sistem pendidikan di Jepang memang sudah tak diragukan lagi. keberhasilan Jepang membentuk sumber sumber daya manusia yang berkualitas memang patut diacungi jempol. Salah satu hal yang berperan penting dalam membentuk sumber daya manusia yang super canggih adalah sistem kurikulum di Negari Sakura. Bukan hanya di Indonesia saja yang mengalami perubahan kurikulum, Negara sekaliber Jepang pun sering melakukan perubahan kurikulum. Perubahan tersebut tentu berdampak pada permintaan kualifikasi dan komepetensi yang semakin tinggi.



Salah Satu Sekolah di Jepang / Foto: munadiakrom(dot)wordpress(dot)com

Tingkat pendidikan di Jepang sebenarnya hampir sama seperti di Indonesia. Pendidikan SD 6 tahun, SMP 3 tahun dan SMA 3 tahun. Sistem pendidikan di Jepang mengacu pada sistem pendidikan Amerika. Sama seperti di Finlandia, di Jepang juga tidak mengenal ujian kenaikan kelas. Sistemnya yaitu setiap siswa yang telah menyelesaikan proses belajar di kelas satu otomatis akan langsung naik ke kelas dua, demikian seterusnya. Ujian akhir sekolah pun tidak ada, jadi bagi siswa yang telah berhasil menyelesaikan SD langsung bisa mendaftar ke SMP. Nah, untuk siswa yang akan melanjutkan pendidikan ke jenjang SMA harus mengikuti ujian masuk. Namun ujiannya pun bersifat standar. Seperti yang telah diketahui, kurikulum di Jepang memang kerap mengalami perubahan. Tapi loyalitas pengajar seta tingginya sikap kedisiplinan siswa yang membuat Jepang memiliki sistem pendidikan terbaik didunia.

5. Singapura



Sistem Pendidikan di Singapura | Foto: ikelas(dot)com

Negara yang terkenal dengan patung merlionnya ini memang menjadi sasaran empuk orang Indonesia untuk menempuh pendidikannya di Negara tetangga ini. Sistem

pendidikan di Singapura juga tak kalah dengan Finlandia. Terbukti dengan banyaknya orang sukses lulusan Negeri Singa ini.



Salah Satu Sekolah di Singapura | Foto: fareast(dot)com(dot)sg

Kualitas pengajar dan infrastruktur yang memadai membuat Singapura menjadi salah satu Negara dengan sistem pendidikan terbaik di dunia. Untuk tingkat pendidikan pra-sekolah dan sekolah dasar sebetulnya hampir sama seperti yang diterapkan di Indonesia. Waktu belajarnya pun tergolong mirip. Sedangkan untuk tingkat menengah, kurkulum sistem pendidikannya sedikit berbeda. Untuk tingkat menengah ini terbagi menjadi dua kelompok, yaitu GCE N (Normal) dan GCE O (Ordinary). Kelompok GCE O sendiri terdiri dari siswa-siswa berprestasi. Jenjang pendidikan sekolah menengah di Singapura dilaksanakan selama 4 tahun. Jika siswa dari kelompok GCE N ingin mendapatkan sertifikat GCE O maka harus melakukan ujian di tahun ke lima. Itu tandanya waktu belajarnya ditambah satu tahun. Singapura sendiri memiliki sistem pendidikan yang mendarah daging. Para siswa dituntut harus mengajukan pertanyaan dan mencari jawabannya dengan cara memecahkannya secara bersama-sama. Hal inilah yang membuat Singapura menjadi salah satu Negara dengan sistem pendidikan terbaik di dunia.

6. Belanda



Sistem pendidikan di Belanda | Foto: sulitabatigol(dot)wordpress(dot)com

Negara kincir angin ini terkenal dengan sistem pendidikan yang cukup tinggi dan lingkungan studi internasional. Standar kualitas pendidikan di Belanda ini terapkan oleh Hukum lho. Menurut hukum yang berlakum, setiap program studi harus diakreditas oleh Pemerintah. Sistem pendidikan di Belanda juga terkenal sangat unik dan berbeda dengan Negara lain. Di Belanda penjurursan akademik sudah dimulai sejak pendidikan sekolah dasar. Hal ini dilakukan dengan mempertimbangkan minat dan kemampuan akademis masing-masing siswa. Para siswa di Belanda diperbolehkan mengikuti sistem pendidikan yang beradasar pada kurikulum Negara lain. Kurikulum tersebut harus dikembangkan ke dalam kurikulum khusus, yakni *International Baccalaureate* (IB). Semua program pendidikan itu diakui secara internasional. Siswa yang mengikuti kurikulum IB juga mendapat kesempatan untuk meneruskan pendidikan ke jenjang yang lebih tinggi di Negara mana pun.

7. Kanada

Kanada juga termasuk ke dalam daftar Negara dengan sistem pendidikan terbaik di dunia. Negara ini menerapkan sistem pendidikan yang mencakup sekolah privat dan sekolah swasta. Sistem tersebut termasuk perguruan tinggi, institute kejuruan, sekolah menengah, sekolah bahasa, dan universitas.

Sama seperti Negara lainnya, tingkat pendidikan di kanada juga terbagi menjadi tiga, yaitu pendidkan tingkat dasar, tingkat menengah dan perguruan tinggi. Di Kanada tidak ada peringkat resmi untuk institusi pendidikan tertentu. Namun, kita akan menemukan berbagai sekolah berkualitas diseluruh pelosok Kanada. Terlepas dari itu, pengajar dan siswanya yang bertanggung jawab mampu mengukuhkan Negara ini sebagai salah satu Negara dengan sistem pendidikan terbaik di dunia. Itulah 7 negara dengan sistem pendidikan terbaik di dunia. Tak heran jika Negara-negara tersebut mampu menghasilkan sumber daya manusia yang berkualitas. Apakah Anda ingin melanjutkan studi di salah satu Negara d atas?



8. Amerika Serikat

a. Pendidikan Dasar dan Menengah

Sistem pendidikan di Amerika Serikat (AS) mencerminkan ciri dari sistem pemerintahan di sana yaitu federal dengan desentralisasi melalui pemerintahan negara-negara bagian (*states*). Penanggung jawab utama sistem pendidikan di sana adalah departemen pendidikan pemerintah federal di Washington D.C, namun kegiatan sehari-hari didelegasikan penuh kepada pemerintah setiap negara bagian yang kemudian mendelegasikannya lagi kepada Kantor Pendidikan Distrik (*Public School District*), dan kepada badan-badan penyantun *college* dan universitas. Tugas dari *Local Public Sschool Districts* adalah mengawasi sekolahsekolah dasar dan menengah milik negara dalam kawasan sebesar kota atau desa. Pada setiap *district* ini, badan pembuat kebijakan tertinggi adalah *Board of Education* atau *School Committee* yang anggotanya biasanya dipilih secara berkala, setiap dua atau tiga tahun, oleh para pemilih yang berada dalam wilayah *School Districts* itu. Untuk menjadi calon anggota *School Districts* tersebut, seseorang tidak perlu memiliki kualifikasi pendidikan atau profesional tertentu. Yang terpenting adalah si calon adalah warga di daerah yang menjadi cakupan *School Districts* tersebut dan mempunyai kepedulian akan maju mundurnya Sistem pendidikan di daerahnya. Keberadaan *School Districts* ini (semacam rayon, kalau di Indonesia) sangat memudahkan penduduk AS termasuk pendatang seperti mahasiswa asing untuk menempuh pendidikan yang bermutu karena terus dijaga kwalitasnya oleh *School District*, murah (tidak ada uang sekolah dan sebagian besar fasilitas

belajar dijamin), dan aman (letak sekolah tidak jauh dari rumah, sehingga keberadaan siswa lebih mudah diawasi).

Selain pemerintah, organisasi swasta dan kelompok keagamaan juga boleh membuka sekolah dasar dan sekolah menengah di semua negara bagian. Sekolah-sekolah swasta ini tidak berkait dengan *School Districts* setempat, dan memperoleh kebebasan dalam mengembangkan sistem pendidikan yang berbeda dengan yang telah ditetapkan pemerintah negara bagian. *Boarding school* (sekolah dengan sistem asrama) adalah salah satu contoh dari jenis sekolah yang dibuka organisasi swasta atau keagamaan. Sekitar 50% sekolah-sekolah swasta di AS dimiliki oleh gereja Roma Katolik, dan 30% lagi dibuka oleh berbagai kelompok keagamaan yang lain.

b. Pendidikan S-1

Seperti halnya pendidikan dasar dan menengah, penyelenggaraan pendidikan tinggi di AS juga dilakukan oleh pihak pemerintah negara bagian dan organisasi swasta/keagamaan. *College* atau universitas yang dimiliki pemerintah mempunyai konsep yang berbeda dengan universitas negeri di Indonesia yang mengacu langsung kepada Depdikbud di Jakarta. Sampai tingkat tertentu, universitas-universitas pemerintah di AS mempunyai kebebasan dalam menjalankan organisasinya sehingga kadang-kadang agak sukar dibedakan apakah universitas tersebut milik negara atau milik swasta 100%. Setiap universitas milik pemerintah bebas mencari sumber dana sendiri baik dari proyek-proyek penelitian, donasi,

ataupun kegiatan-kegiatan lainnya. Bahkan mereka juga dapat menentukan berapa besar uang sekolahnya (*tuition*) per semester berikut iuran-iuran kegiatan (f*ees*) lainnya. Akan tetapi, penentuan besarnya *tuition* and *fees* tersebut harus mendapat persetujuan badan penyantun universitas tersebut. Di setiap negara bagian, biasanya ada *Higher Education Board* yang terdiri dari tokoh-tokoh pemerintah dan swasta, yang berwenang memberikan persetujuan akan perubahan *tuition* and *fees* suatu universitas. Meskipun pihak pimpinan universitas sudah setuju untuk menaikkan *tuition* and *fees*, kalau *Board* tidak setuju maka secara hukum kenaikan tidak dapat dilaksanakan. Selain itu, *Board* juga bertugas untuk memperjuangkan kenaikan anggaran bagi universitas-universitas milik pemerintah tersebut kepada pemerintah negara bagian (kantor gubernur). Secara umum, Sistem pendidikan tinggi di AS dapat dibedakan atas *University* dan *College*. *University* pada umumnya menawarkan pendidikan *undergraduate* dan *graduate*, sedangkan *College* umumnya lebih berfokus pada pendidikan *undergraduate* dengan beberapa perkecualian. Di *university,* istilah *College* mempunyai arti yang sama dengan Fakultas kalau di Indonesia. Fakultas teknik, misalnya, biasa disebut sebagai *College of Engineering*, Fakultas Hukum sebagai *College of Law* dan lain-lain. Istilah *College* tersebut, seperti telah dijelaskan di atas, hanya berfokus pada pendidikan *undergraduate* atau dengan kata lain administrasi *College* hanya mengurusi mahasiswa *undergraduate*. Mahasiswa *graduate*, secara administratif,

berhubungan dengan *Graduate College* (seperti Fakultas Program Pasca Sarjana di Indonesia).

Apabila anda seorang lulusan Fakultas Ekonomi di Indonesia dan hendak menempuh studi *Master of Economics* di AS, maka *College* yang akan menerima lamaran adalah *Graduate College*. *Graduate College* tersebut kemudian akan meneruskan lamaran ke *Department of Economics*, dan kemudian *Department* akan mengembalikannya lagi ke *Graduate College* untuk membuat keputusan akhir apakah diterima atau tidak. Kalau diterima, secara administratif akan tercatat sebagai mahasiswa *Graduate College* dan secara akademis akan tercatat sebagai mahasiswa *Department of Economics*. Khusus untuk pendidikan *undergraduate*, *College* dapat dibagi menjadi tiga jenis. Yang hanya disebut sebagai *College* tanpa embelembel apapun di depannya biasanya menawarkan pendidikan *undergraduate* penuh selama empat tahun sampai si mahasiswa meraih gelar *Bachelor*. Umumnya pendidikan di *College* memakan waktu empat tahun dimana setiap tahun mahasiswa mengalami semacam kenaikan tingkat berdasarkan beban kredit yang diambilnya. Mahasiswa yang baru masuk, disebut *freshman*, kemudian tahun kedua disebut *sophomore*, tahun ketiga *junior*, dan tahun keempat atau terakhir *senior*. Jenis *College* lainnya adalah C*ommunity College* yang umumnya berada di bawah jurisdiksi suatu kota kecil atau desa. *Community College* lebih ditujukan untuk pendidikan keterampilan dengan memberikan sertifikat bagi lulusannya. Lama pendidikannya biasanya dua tahun, dan gelar yang diberikan bagi lulusannya

adalah *Associate Degree*. Meskipun lebih dititik beratkan pada keterampilan, *Community College* juga membuka jurusan yang umumnya ada di *College* biasa seperti *Engineering, Business, Accounting, Computer Science*. Para mahasiswa yang mengambil jurusan-jurusan tersebut, setelah mendapatkan gelar *Associate Degree*, biasanya bermaksud untuk pindah ke *College* yang menawarkan gelar *Bachelor*.

Dalam proses perpindahan ini, mereka dapat mentransfer sebagian besar kredit yang telah mereka dapatkan di *Community College* ke *College* biasa. Dengan demikian, mereka masuk ke *College* biasa langsung sebagai mahasiswa junior dan biasanya membutuhkan dua sampai tiga tahun lagi untuk mendapatkan gelar *Bachelor*nya. Jenis *College* terakhir adalah *Junior College (Juco)* yang menyelenggara-kan pendidikan *undergraduate* selama tiga tahun. Konsep *College* ini hampir sama dengan *Community College*, hanya mereka mensyaratkan waktu belajar lebih lama dan ketrampilan yang lebih tinggi. Di Indonesia, mungkin *College* ini dapat diasosiasikan dengan program D3. Sama halnya dengan *Community College*, lulusan *Juco* dapat pindah ke *College* biasa dengan memindahkan sebagian besar kredit yang sudah didapat.

9. Inggris

Pendidikan tinggi di Inggris dilaksanakan oleh 96 universitas, 50 college dan schools ataupun kursus Bahasa Inggris atau keahlian khusus. Diantaranya yang besar-besar bisa dilihat di *lampiran*. Universitas merupakan lembaga pendidikan tinggi yang bebas, *self governing*, dan memiliki wewenang yang diatur dalam

Royal Charter atau dalam *Act of Parliament* untuk memberikan gelar. Colleges dan institusi pendidikan tinggi yang setara juga memberikan gelar yang sama dengan yang diberikan oleh universitas. *Colleges* pada umumnya lebih kecil dari universitas seringkali menawarkan bidang studi tertentu, seperti latihan guru yang dapat menuju kepada suatu klasifikasi pascasarjana yang diasuh oleh instansi resmi atauuniversitas yang terdekat. Belum lama ini (1993-1995) telah terjadi perubahan sistem pendidikan di Inggris yang menyebabkan sebagian besar politeknik (yang umumnya dimiliki oleh Pemda) berubah bentuknya menjadi Universitas, misalnya: Leeds Polytechnic berubah menjadi Leeds Metropolitan University. Hal ini perlu dicermati bagi mereka yang akan memiliki universitas, karena secara umum mutu universitas bisa dikatakan lebih baik dibanding politeknik, terutama untuk aspek-aspek akademiknya. Seperti diketahui politeknik di Inggris juga lebih menekankan pada sisi praktek program (profesional).

Pendidikan pascasarjana dapat memberikan gelar Diploma, atau *Certificate*, Master atau *Doctor of Phylosophy*. Seringkali suatu bidang studi (*course*) memberikan baik gelar yang sederajat magister ataupun diploma (misalnya DIC *Diplome of Imperial College*), atau *certificate*, tergantung pada beberapa faktor yang merupakan persyaratan yang telah dimiliki oleh mahasiswa, nilai standar yang telah dicapainya atau apakah telah menyusun suatu disertasi yang dinilai memuaskan atau melakukan suatu proyek sebagai tambahan untuk lulus dalam ujian. Adalah sulit untuk menentukan dari gelar yang diperoleh apakah gelar tersebut diperoleh dari kuliah sepenuhnya atau

penelitian sepenuhnya. Beberapa universitas memberikan gelar yang sama baik untuk yang kuliah sepenuhnya dan untuk yang penelitian sepenuhnya (MA dan MSc). Beberapa universitas lainnya memberikan gelar seperti MA dan MSc untuk gelar yang diperoleh dari mengikuti kuliah sepenuhnya dan memberikan gelar M.Phil. untuk gelar yang melakukan penelitian sepenuhnya pada tingkat S2. Gelar ini (MA, MSc, M.Phil.) tidak mencerminkan bidang studi yang telah diambil. Mahasiswa yang mengikuti kuliah program S2 waktu penuh (*full time student*) biasanya membutuhkan (satu atau dua tahun) untuk menyelesaikan program tersebut. Sedang mahasiswa waktu sebagian (*part time*) dalam dua tahun hingga 3 tahun. Akan tetapi ini tidak berarti hanya satu atau dua tahun akademi yang terdiri dari 9 bulan/tahunnya. Kebanyakan program ini berakhir selama 12, 15, 21 atau 24 bulan dan kadang-kadang mahasiswa harus melaksanakan penelitian atau pekerjaan proyek selama waktu liburan yang panjang untuk melengkapi persyaratan untuk sesuatu gelar. Akan tetapi untuk mahasiswa yang melaksanakan pascasarjana diploma atau *certificate* biasanya melaksanakan program ini selama 9 atau 12 bulan.



Seperti juga di Indonesia, struktur pendidikan tinggi di Inggris terdiri dari universitas, fakultas, *department* (jurusan) dan bagian (*subdepartment*). Disamping itu terdapat lembaga-lembaga atau pusatpusat (*institute, centre*) ada yang langsung berada di bawah universitas, fakultas bahkan jurusan. Universitas dipimpin oleh seorang *chancellor* yang biasanya diberikan pada orang-orang terhormat/keluarga kerajaan, akan tetapi kegiatan sehari-hari dilakukan oleh *vice chancellor*. Wewenang fakultas hanya mengurus administrasi pendidikan, seperti pendaftaran mahasiswa baru dan sebagainya. Wewenang penerimaan itu sendiri dan penyelenggaraan pendidikan pada umumnya ada pada jurusan, terutama *subdepartmnet* (laboratorium/bagian). Bagian (*sub-department*) sangat berperanan dalam struktur pendidikan tinggi ini. Bagian ini merupakan pengelola satu bidang ilmu yang diketuai (pada umumnya) oleh seorang profesor, dan hanya ada satu profesor dalam satu bagian. Seluruh kegiatan pendidikan dan pengawasan penelitian dikelola oleh bagian. Ketua jurusan adalah seorang profesor yang mengelola administrasi pendidikan, penelitian dan seminar.

Dibawah jurusan umumnya terdapat laboratorium-laboratorium atau unit pendukung lainnya seperti studio, ruang gambar yang masingmasing diatur dalam kendali jurusan. Di tingkat universitas biasanya ada bagian administrasi (*Administration Office*) yang mengurusi administrasi, termasuk pembayaran uang kuliah dan urusan-urusan wisuda. Termasuk yang juga disediakan oleh universitas bagi mahasiswa asing adalah *Overseas Student Advisor* dan *Accommodation Office* yang

terakhir ini untuk urusan akomodasi/tempat tinggal/asrama sedang yang pertama terkait dengan urusan keimigrasian, hukum atau masalah politik yang menimpa mahasiswa. Hampir seluruh universitas melaksanakan program pendidikan strata 1, 2 dan 3, dan juga program *post doctoral* bagi para peneliti, demikian juga yang berlaku di politeknik dan SCI. Namun perlu dicermati ada beberapa yang belum mampu menyelenggarakan program doktor (misalnya hanya sampai M.Phil.).

Pada umumnya tahun akademik dimulai bulan September atau Oktober. Tahun akademik ini dibagi atas tiga *terms* atau musim. Setiap *term*, di universitas, terdiri dari 8 - 12 minggu. Pada politeknik dan *college* waktu *term* agak lebih panjang. Waktu *term* ini adalah sebagai berikut:

Term I : September - Desember

Term II : Januari - Maret

Term III : April - Juni/Juli

Pada beberapa lembaga pendidikan tertentu (sebagai contoh:
University of Stirling, (untuk beberapa bidang studi tertentu) dan *City University*, tahun akademik berlangsung selama 2 semester tiap tahun dan dimulai pada bulan September. Sebagai dampak perubahan sistem pendidikan di Inggris, banyak universitas yang beralih dari term ke semester. Universitas-universitas di Skotlandia telah menggunakan sistem semester sebelumnya (1980-an). Namun dalam pelaksanaannya ada yang satu tahun 2 semester masing-masing 6 bulan tetapi ada juga yang pengertian semesternya berbeda. Di beberapa universitas di England seperti Leeds, pengertian semester satu adalah Oktober - akhir Januari

dan semester dua adalah Februari - akhir Juni. Perbedaan dengan sistem term adalah ujian pada sistem semester dilakukan pada tiap akhir semester. Periode Juli - September adalah untuk menyelesaikan tesis.

Waktu perkuliahan mengikuti hari kerja dari hari Senin sampai dengan hari Jum‘at. Satu jam kuliah adalah satu jam tatap muka. Ketentuan kredit semester agak sulit untuk dijelaskan di sini. Pada umumnya, sesuai dengan pembagian tahun akademik dalam *term*, maka ketentuan satu kredit semester adalah 16 jam tatap muka tiap semester seperti yang berlaku di Indonesia sulit untuk dibandingkan. Untuk yang sistem semester (sistem baru), pengertian satu unit kredit adalah usaha belajar dalam waktu 10 jam tiap semester pada periode kuliah sekitar 12 minggu. Untuk sistem lama/dengan term ujian mata kuliah dilaksanakan pada akhir tahun kuliah untuk seluruh mata kuliah program tersebut (setelah 2-3 *terms*). Sedang untuk sistem semester, ujian dilakukan di akhir semester 1 dan semester 2. Baik yang sistem term maupun semester, sebelum ujian selalu didahului oleh periode –tenang‖, biasanya 1 - 2 minggu yang disebut *revision*. Untuk *revision* ini biasanya mahasiswa mengerjakan soal-soal tahun-tahun sebelumnya yang bisa diperoleh melalui bagian dokumentasi soalsoal di Administrasi Universitas. Ujian dilaksanakan secara tertulis pada akhir *term* ketiga jika tanpa tesis atau akhir term 2 yang dengan tesis. Ujian diberikan dalam bentuk yang disebut *papers*. Setiap paper berisi soal yang berasal dari mata ajaran yang sejenis. Mahasiswa dapat memilih beberapa *papers* untuk dikerjakan dari sejumlah tertentu *papers* yang diberikan. Bentuk ujian adalah esai, tidak ada soal pilihan berganda. Setelah ujian tertulis, dan

setelah mahasiswa menyerahkan disertasinya atau laporan pekerjaan proyeknya, mahasiswa mengikuti ujian lisan dengan pengujinya seorang yang berasal dari universitas lain (*external examiner*).

Beberapa tingkat nilai kelulusan diberikan berdasarkan nilai hasil ujian tertulis, lisan dan nilai disertasi atau laporan pekerjaan. Gelar bagi mahasiswa program strata 2 yang mengikuti kuliah penuh ini adalah MA atau MSc seperti telah dikemukakan dalam bagian 1 diatas. Wewenang pemberian gelar ini dibatasi oleh undang-undang, dan Departemen Pendidikan dan Ilmu telah menyusun daftar lembaga atau universitas yang diakui dan berhak memberikan gelar tersebut. Daftar lembaga dan universitas ini dapat ditanyakan ke kantor British Council setempat.

Strategi keberhasilan dalam menempuh studi lanjut adalah dalam mengatur alokasi waktu. Ini harus disesuaikan dengan *course* yang diambil. Termasuk alokasi pada masa kuliah maupun liburan.

Meskipun mungkin terdapat variasi antar mahasiswa, namun secara umum bobot mata kuliah (dalam credit) mencerminkan waktu yang dibutuhkan untuk menguasainya. Peserta program perlu untuk mempelajari *course handbook* untuk mengetahui bobot tiap-tiap mata kuliah. Sebagai contoh mata kuliah *Transport Planning and Policy* (di ITS, Leeds) berbobot 15 credit (semester 1) memerlukan alokasi waktu: kuliah 20 jam, seminar 15 jam, *coursework* 40 jam (berbobot 50%, sisanya ujian 50%) dan lain-lain (belajar mandiri, *literature search*) 75 jam. Jadi totalnya adalah 150 jam untuk 15 credit. Jika dalam 1 semester terdapat total ± 14 minggu maka per minggu sekitar 10-11 jam untuk 1 mata kuliah. Mata kuliah yang lain memiliki bobot 5

dan 10 credit. Berikut adalah suatu contoh alokasi waktu untuk periode semester 1 di suatu program MSc di Leeds (*Transport Planning and Engineering*): kuliah, seminar 100 jam (semester 2, 80 jam), praktikum dan *group projects* 45 jam, *coursework* (tergantung creditnya*) 20 - 6- jam,* external seminar 30 jam dan *background reading and revision* sekitar 100 jam atau lebih, tugas akhir 55 jam pada semester 1 dan 2 ditambah 11 minggu penuh setelah semester 2 dan *optional lecture* (tidak diujikan) maksimum 40 jam.

Pada umumnya kegiatan akademik baik di Skotlandia maupun di Inggris sangat mirip, baik dalam pembagian waktu kuliah, praktikum dan kegiatan lainnya. Kegiatan di dalam kelas (tatap muka) hanya berlangsung selama jam dan hari kerja (Senin sampai dengan Jum'at). Sedangkan kegiatan di luar kelas (percobaan/ penelitian) dapat berlangsung setiap saat sesuai dengan kebutuhan mahasiswa. Kegiatan tatap muka pada umumnya selalu dilengkapi dengan alat peraga, dan satu mata kuliah pada umumnya disampaikan oleh seorang dosen. Pada umumnya perkuliahan berlangsung seperti yang umum dilakukan di sini para mahasiswa hanya mencatat garis besar materi, sedangkan rincian materi dicari sendiri dari rujukan baik yang telah diberikan maupun yang tidak. Pertanyaan-pertanyaan dari mahasiswa dapat langsung diajukan saat dosen sedang memberikan kuliah, atau saat tertentu yang diberikan oleh dosen. Dosen sendiri sering juga mengajukan pertanyaan yang berkaitan dengan materi yang telah diberikan dan ada hubungannya dengan materi yang sedang dibicarakan. Pada umumnya diharapkan setiap mahasiswa membaca materi yang telah pernah diberikan. Kadangkala

kuliahnya berupa seminar dimana mahasiswa mempresentasikan di depan kelas. Mahasiswa harus siap mendapatkan referensi dari tiap-tiap topik kuliah. Kadang-kadang topik menuntut 10-20 bacaan/ referensi.

2

10. **Jerman**

Republik Federasi Jerman (RFJ) adalah suatu negara federal, yang di dalam istilah mereka biasa disebut BUNDES-REPUBLIK DEUTSCHLAND (BRD) dengan ibu kotanya Berlin. Sebelum terjadi penyatuan Jerman Barat dan Jerman Timur pada tanggal 3 Oktober 1990, istilah RFJ biasanya dimaksudkan untuk Jerman Barat saja, tetapi ternyata sekarang nama ini diadopsi sebagai nama negara Jerman tersebut. Sebagai suatu negara federal dapat dimengerti kalau dalam sistem pendidikannya terdapat variasi dari suatu negara bagian ke negara bagian lainnya (nama-nama bagian dicantumkan pada Lampiran A). Meskipun demikian secara umum sistem pendidikan yang berlaku untuk seluruh RFJ dapat disederhanakan seperti pada Gambar 1 pada Lampiran B, dimana tahap-tahap pendidikan di RFJ dapat mencakup berbagai subsistem:

1. *Kindergarten,* sebagai suatu *Pre-School Education* atau tahap persiapan sekolah yang tidak terlau banyak diatur oleh negara/pemerintah;
2. *Grundschule* atau *Primary Education*, biasanya ditempuh dalam empat tahun ajaran, yang merupakan tahap awal pendidikan formal;
3. *Secondary Education* yang terdiri dari *Realschule, Hauptschule,Gesamtschule, Berufschule, Fachschule* dan *Gymnasium*.

Pada dasarnya lulusan Gymnasium inilah merupakan calon utama untuk meneruskan perjalanan di perguruan tinggi. Tahap ini diselesaikan selama sembilan tahun setelah Grundschule.

Dengan demikian untuk mulai belajar pada tingkat pendidikan tinggi mereka telah menempuh 13 tahun pendidikan dasar dan menengah. Mereka harus menempuh ujian akhir yang disebut *Abiturprüfung* untuk memperoleh kualifikasi meneruskan ke perguruan tinggi (*Zulassung zum Ztudium*), dimana pembagian tempat studi ini diatur secara terpusat oleh *Zentralstelle für die Vergabe von Studienplatzen* (ZVS). Dikenal tiga pola/prosedur untuk pembagian tempat studi ini, yaitu:

a. *Special Distribution Procedure*, kalau jumlah peminat lebih sedikit dari jumlah tempat studi tersedia;
b. *General Selection Procedure*, kalau jumlah peminat lebih besar dari jumlah tempat studi tersedia. Di sini prioritas diberikan berdasarkan nilai ujian Abitur masing-masing calon serta *waiting period* yang bersangkutan. Biasanya untuk calon asing baik pemula maupun yang sudah mempunyai tambahan pendidikan tinggi diberikan persentase jumlah atau jatah maksimal tertentu;
c. *Transitional Procedure*, terutama diberlakukan untuk bidang bidang *numerus clausus* seperti kedokteran, kedokteran hewan dan kedokteran gigi, dimana dilakukan ujian/tes yang digabung dengan hasil ujian Abitur;
d. *Tertiary Education* atau *Higher Education* atau dalam istilah kita disebut pendidikan tinggi. Selanjutnya pembicaraan dalam tulisan ini akan ditekankan terutama tentang sistem pendidikan tinggi ini.

11. Sistem Pendidikan di Jepang

Pada prinsipnya sistem pendidikan di Jepang mengikuti pola penjenjangan yang mirip dengan yang ada di Indonesia yaitu pola penjenjangan dengan sistem 6-3-3-4, yaitu enam tahun pendidikan dasar, masing-masing tiga tahun pendidikan menengah pertama dan menengah atas serta empat tahun pendidikan tinggi kecuali bidang kedokteran, kedokteran hewan dan dokter gigi. Untuk jenjang pendidikan pasca sarjana Jepang juga mengikuti pola 2-3, yaitu dua tahun untuk Program Magister dan tiga tahun untuk Program Doktor. Di Jepang ada empat jenis pendidikan tinggi, yakni :

1). Universitas (*Daigaku*), 4 tahun;

2). Akademi Teknologi (*Tanki-daigaku*), 5 tahun, minimal 167 kredit;

3). Sekolah Tinggi Teknik (*Koto-senmon-gakko*);

4). Sekolah Kejuruan (*Senmon-gakko*).





Universitas sebagai suatu pusat pendidikan bertujuan untuk menyelenggarakan pengajaran dan studi untuk bidang-bidang profesional dan seni serta memberi pengetahuan luas dan mengembangkan intelektual, moral dan kemampuan berpraktek. Hal ini tertuang dalam artikel 52 dari Undang-Undang Pendidikan Jepang. Universitas melaksanakan program empat tahun disebut sebagai program sarjana. Tetapi kedokteran, kedokteran gigi, kedokteran hewan memprasyaratkan program pendidikan selama enam tahun. Pada prinsipnya mereka yang sudah menyelesaikan pelajaran di tingkat sekolah menengah atau yang telah menyelesaikan sekolah selama dua belas tahun sebagai program yang biasa dilakukan, mempunyai kualifikasi untuk melamar ke universitas. Belum semua perguruan tinggi di Jepang telah mempunyai Program Pasca sarjana. Walaupun demikian beberapa perguruan tinggi menyelanggarankan program pascasarjana secara bekerjasama yang dinamakan United Graduate Program atau dalam bahasa Jepangny dikenal sebagai *Rengo Daigakuin*. Program Pascasarjana di Jepang seperti juga di negara maju lainnya bertujuan untuk menyelenggarakan pendidikan di tingkat yang lebih

tinggi (*advanced*) tentang teori dan penerapan dari suatu bidang keahlian, menguasai secara mendalam bidang keahlian tersebut dan memberikan kontribusi terhadap pengembangan budaya. Hal ini tertulis dalam artikel 65 dari Undang-Undang Pendidikan di Jepang.

Pendidikan Pasca sarjana terdiri atas Program Magister (*Sushi Katei*) selama dua tahun dan Program Doktor (*Hakushi Katei*) selama tiga tahun. Pada tingkat Magister (Sushi) masih diberikan kuliah tanpa praktikum tetapi pada tingkat program Doktor, umumnya kulia tidak diberikan lagi. Pelaksanaan pendidikan pascasarjana umumnya dilakukan dalam bentuk seminar mingguan di masing-masing Laboratorium Pendidikan (*kenyushitsu atau* secara harfiah kamar studi). Suatu Laboratorium Penedidikan terdiri atas seorang Professor (*Kyoju*) sebagai Kepala, seorang Associate Professor (*Jukyoju*) dan satu atau dua orang Asisten (*Josyu*) Daftar beberapa perguruan tinggi yang menyelenggarakan program pasca sarjana di Jepang dapat dilihat pada Tabel A, Lampiran I.

Pada tahun 1996 di Jepang terdapat 576 universitas yang terdiri dari 98 universitas negeri, 53 universitas yang dimiliki pemerintah daerah atau organisasi publik lokal dan 425 universitas swasta. Disamping itu terdapat 598 akademi dan sekolah tinggi di antaranya 96 dikelola pemerintah pusat, 54 pemerintah daerah dan 498 swasta. Akademi teknologi biasanya menawarkan lima tahun program pendidikan kepada lulusan Sekolah Lanjutan Tingkat Pertama (SLTP) dengan tujuan memberi pengetahuan keterampilan yang dapat mengimbangi laju perkembangan ilmu pengetahuan dan teknologi. Mayoritas akademi menawarkan bidang studi

kerekayasaan dan dapat menerima mahasiswa asing yang mendapat
beasiswa Kementerian Pendidikan, Kebudayaan dan Sains Jepang (Monbukagakusho). Akademi dan sekolah tinggi kejuruan mempunyai lama studi satu sampai tiga tahun dengan tujuan untuk memberi latihan kerja kejuruan bagi pesertanya. Pada tanggal 1 Mei 2000, mahasiswa asing yang belajar di Jepang berjumlah 64011 orang, umumnya berasal dari Asia dan sekitar 2.11% (1348 orang) berasal dari Indonesia. Dari jumlah tersebut 864 orang (64.1%) mahasiswa Indnoesia belajar pada tingkat pascasarjana.

Universitas atau institut kedua-duanya disebut *Daigaku* dalam bahasa Jepang. Sebagai contoh, umpamanya Institut Teknologi Tokyo dikenal dengan sebutan *Tokyo Kogyo Daigaku* atau disingkat dengan *Tokodai* sedangkan Universitas Tokyo dikenal sebagai *Tokyo Daigaku* atau disingkat *Todai*. Suatu universitas/institut dikepalai oleh seorang presiden universitas/institut dan dikenal dengan sebutan *Gakucho* atau *Socho*. Dalam universitas/institut terdapat pula senat guru besar (*Kyojukai*) yang juga dipimpin oleh presiden universitas/ institut. Seorang presiden universitas/institut dapat membawahi :

- Biro Administrasi
- Biro Kemahasiswaan
- Pusat Kesehatan
- Perpustakaan
- Fakultas
- Program Pascasarjana
- Pusat-pusat penelitian
- Fasilitas bersama, dll.

Suatu universitas/institut umumnya terdiri dari sejumlah fakultas (*gakubu*) dan setiap fakultas membawahi beberapa jurusan (*gakka*) yang terdiri atas beberapa laboratorium (*kenkyu-shistsu*). Program Pascasarjana (*daigakuin*) terdiri atas beberapa Bidang kajian (*kenkyu-ka*) yang meliputi beberapa Program studi (*senko*) atau Divisi. Jadi suatu Bidang Kajian Ilmu Teknik (*Kogaku Kenkyuka*) mempunyai beberapa Program Studi seperti *Kikai Kogaku Senko* (Program Studi Teknik Mesin), *Denki Denasi Kogaku Senko* (Program Studi Teknik Listrik dan Elektronik), *Joho Kogaku Senko* (Program Studi Teknik Informatika), dll.. Umumnya program pasca sarjana di Jepang terintegrasi dengan program Sarjana, sehingga dalam suatu laboratorium kita dapat melihat ketiga strata pendidikan tadi dilaksanakan secara bersamaan dan terpadu. Dalam suatu laboratorium (*kenkyu-shitsu*) biasanya terdiri atas seorang guru besar (*kyoju*), seorang guru besar pembantu (*jukyoju*), dan satu sampai dua orang asisten (*joshu*).

Penerimaan mahasiswa untuk perguruan tinggi di Jepang dibatasi pada mereka yang telah menyelesaikan 12 tahun pendidikan dasar dan menengah, atau juga kepada mereka yang dapat menunjukkan data pendidikan yang dianggap sama atau ekuivalen. Mahasiswa asing yang telah menyelesaikan pendidikan dasar dan menengah selama 12 tahun di negaranya serta berkeinginan memasuki perguruan tinggi di Jepang, maka dia harus mempelajari bahasa Jepang selama satu tahun di *International Students Institute* di Tokyo atau *Kansai International Students Institute* di Osaka. Penerimaan mahasiswa untuk program pasca sarjana dibatasi kepada mereka yang telah menyelesaikan

pendidikan selama 16 tahun yakni lulusan sarjana dengan jumlah kredit (unit) 144 atau kepada mereka yang mempunyai pendidikan sederajat untuk memasuki Program Master dan telah lulus Program Master bagi yang akan masuk Program Doktor. Lulusan Program Sarjana dan Program Master dari Indonesia dapat diakui kesetaraannya oleh sebagian besar perguruan tinggi di Jepang. Mahasiswa riset (*Kenkyu-Sei*) adalah mahasiswa pasca sarjana yang kegiatan utamanya adalah untuk melakukan riset dan bukan untuk memperoleh gelar. Walaupun demikian penerima beasiswa Monbukagakusho, biasanya diterima dahulu sebagai mahasiswa riset dan setelah lulus ujian masuk dapat dialihkan menjadi mahasiswa pasca sarjana untuk program MASTER dan DOKTOR. Selama menjadi mahasiswa riset (K*enkyu-Sei*) seorang karyasiswa dapat mempersiapkan diri untuk menempuh ujian masuk pasca sarjana melalui bimbingan/arahan dari seorang pembimbing (*Shidokyakan*).

Tahun akademik dimulai pada bulan April hingga bulan Maret tahun berikutnya. Perkualiahan diberikan dalam dua semester, semester pertama (*Zenki*) berlangsung dari bulan Maret sampai dengan bulan September dan semester kedua (*Goki*) dimulai dari bulan Oktober dan berakhir dalambulan Maret. Jumlah hari kuliah termasuk hari ujian dalam satu tahun adalah 210 hari atau 35 minggu. Liburan musim panas bervariasi tergantung pada perguruan tinggi penyelenggara, tetapi umumnya dimulai pada pertengahan Juli hingga akhir Agustus. Liburan musim dingin selama dua minggu pada bulan Desember dan Januari. Liburan musim semi kirakira 40 hari pada bulan Maret dan April. Akhir-akhir ini beberapa perguruan

tinggi seperti Tokyo Institute of Technology (*Tokodai)* membuka program internasional yang tahun akademik dimulai pada bulan Oktober. Pada perguruan tinggi ini biasanya tidak diperlukan ujian masuk. Pada prinsipnya semua perkuliahan pada perguruan tinggi di Jepang dilaksanakan dengan bahasa pengantar bahasa Jepang. Penggunaan bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa pengantar hanya terdapat pada program pasca sarjana dalam jumlah yang sangat terbatas, yang mempunyai program internasional. Pada Program Master (*Sushi Katei*) kuliah masih diberikan dengan menggunakan materi yang jauh lebih maju yang didasarkan kepada bahan-bahan dari jurnal ilmiah terakhir. Pada tingkat ini pratikum tidak lagi diberikan, tetapi penelitian mandiri diberikan angka kredit. Selain kuliah seorang peserta pasca sarjana diharuskan mengikuti seminar laboratorium, yang sering juga diikuti oleh mahasiswa sarjana tingkat akhir.

Chapter 2

English Curriculum in Indonesia

Pengajaran Bahasa Inggris di Indonesia sudah dimulai sejak zaman penjajahan Belanda. Namun, pengajaran Bahasa Inggris dihapus oleh pemerintah pendudukan Jepang. Penghapusan itu merupakan bagian dari revisi sistem pendidikan yang telah diadakan oleh pemerintah kolonial Belanda. Setelah Indonesia memproklamasikan kemerdekaan pada tahun 1945, pengajaran Bahasa Inggris dimulai lagi.

Pengembangan pengajaran Bahasa Inggris tampak jelas setelah Mr. Wachendorf, orang pertama yang menjabat Kepala Inspektorat Pusat Pengajaran Bahasa Inggris di Departemen Pendidikan, menyatakan bahwa Bahasa Inggris berkedudukan sebagai bahasa asing pertama yang harus diajarkan di sekolah-sekolah menengah di Indonesia. Adapun tujuan pengajaran Bahasa Inggris, menurut Wachendorf ialah untuk membekali siswa dengan "working knowledge of English". Pengajaran Bahasa Inggris tersebut diperkuat dengan Keputusan Menteri Pendidikan Dan Kebudayaan, No. 096/1967, yang masih berlaku sampai sekarang.

Tujuan akhir dari pengajaran Bahasa Inggris di dalam kurikulum 1946, 1953, 1962,1968, 1975, 1984, 1994 untuk SMP/SLTP, dan 1950, 1962, 1968, 1975, 1984, 1994 untuk SMA/SMU, pada prinsipnya sama, **yaitu membekali siswa dengan kemahiran Bahasa Inggris dengan penguasaan kecakapan: membaca, mendengar, menulis, dan berbicara**. Akan tetapi, di dalam kurikulum 1984 dan 1994 disebutkan prioritasnya berubah menjadi: membaca, menyimak, berbicara, dan menulis. Program-program pengajaran bahasa Inggris berubah sesuai dengan

perubahan kurikulum dalam rangka menjawab tuntutan perkembangan pendidikan khususnya dan masyarakat pada umumnya, tetapi tetap mengacu pada tujuan yang telah ditetapkan di dalam kurikulum. Dalam kaitan perubahan kurikulum itu, materi pengajaran yang diberikan untuk siswa SMP dan SMA dari kurikulum yang satu ke yang lain pada hakekatnya sama, hanya penyajiannya (kemasannya) yang berbeda. Selain itu, metode pengajaran yang digunakan disebutkan bahwa perubahan metode dimulai dari metode Gramatika-Terjemahan (Grammar-Translation Method), metode Langsung (Direct Method), pendekatan Aural-Oral (Aural Oral Approach), menjadi pendekatan komunikatif (Communicative Approach).

Semua program pengajaran bahasa Inggris yang telah diatur di dalam kurikulum tidak akan tercapai tanpa adanya guru-guru yang berkualitas. Untuk itu, keberadaan dan perkembangan Lembaga Pendidikan Guru (LPG) perlu ditelusuri untuk mengetahui seberapa jauh lembaga-lembaga ini telah berperan. LPG yang pada awalnya berbentuk in-service training, seperti B-1, PGSLP dan PGSLA, Balai Pendidikan Guru, Pusat Bahasa Inggris, berubah menjadi pre-service training, seperti STC, dan Program Pendidikan Guru untuk tingkat perguruan tinggi (PTPG, FKIP, IKIP, STKIP, Universitas Terbuka).

Perkembangan Kurikulum dalam Pengajaran Baha

Pembukaan Undang-Undang Dasar 1945 mengamanatkan bahwa tujuan pembentukan Pemerintah Negara Indonesia antara lain untuk mencerdaskan kehidupan bangsa. Untuk mewujudkan amanat itu, pemerintah memberlakukan Undang-undang Nomor 20 Tahun 2003 tentang Sistem Pendidikan Nasional sebagai upaya pembangunan pendidikan nasional. Salah satu

produk UU Sisdiknas tersebut adalah kurikulum. Kurikulum memiliki peran strategis dan signifikan dalam kemajuan pendidikan nasional. Karena kurikulum membantu terwujudnya kualitas potensi peserta didik. Lalu apakah yang dimaksud kurikulum itu?

Ada banyak definisi kurikulum hingga saat ini. Dalam kurikulum termuat komponen pemerintah, lembaga pendidikan, guru, dan orang tua. Tiap komponen memiliki pandangan berbeda mengenai kurikulum. Secara umum definisi kurikulum adalah sebagai sebuah rencana tindakan atau dokumen tertulis yang mencakup strategi untuk mencapai tujuan yang di[89]inkan atau tujuan akhir. Sementara itu, [67]merintah melalui UU nomor 20 tahun 2003 dan PP nomor 19 tahun 2005 mendefinisikan kurikulum sebagai seperangkat rencana dan pengaturan mengenai tujuan, isi, dan bahan pelajaran serta cara yang digunakan sebagai pedoman penyelenggaraan kegiatan pembelajaran untuk mencapai tujuan pendidikan tertentu untuk satu satuan atau jenjang pendidikan. Berdasar definisi tersebut kedudukan pemerintah dalam kurikulum adalah penyusun dan pengatur penyelenggaraan kegiatan pembelajaran. Selanjutnya, kurikulum juga diartikan suatu rencana yang disusun untuk melancarkan proses belajar mengajar di bawah bimbingan dan tanggung jawab sekolah atau lembaga pendidikan beserta staf pengajarnya. Definisi ini mewakili pandangan lembaga pendidikan bahwa sekolah dan guru sebagai pelaksana kurikulum. Artinya lembaga pendidikan dan guru berposisi sebagai pembimbing dan penanggung jawab pelaksanaan kurikulum.

Di sisi lain, orang tua beranggapan bahwa kurikulum merupakan tempat merumuskan tujuan pendidikan dan bahan-bahan yang harus ditempuh anaknya untuk mencapai tingkat tertentu. Orang tua mengharapkan kurikulum dapat

membentuk kepribadian, keterampilan, dan ilmu pengetahuan bagi anaknya. Perbedaan pandangan di atas terjadi karena pemerintah, lembaga pendidikan, guru, dan orang tua memiliki peran berbeda baik dalam penyusunan maupun evaluasi pelaksanaan kurikulum. Pemerintah adalan penyusun dan pengatur pedoman penyelenggaraan pendidikan. Lembaga pendidikan dan guru bertindak sebagai pelaksana. Sementara orang tua sebagai pemberi saran dan masukan.

Kurikulum akan selalu dikembangkan sesuai tuntutan kebutuhan masyarakat. Pengembangan kurikulum khususnya kurikulum bahasa Indonesia dilandasi tiga pandangan teoretis dalam pengajaran bahasa. Pandangan pertama adalah pandangan paling tradisional di antara yang lain, yaitu pandangan structural[1]. Pandangan menyatakan bahwa bahasa adalah sebuah sistem elemen struktural terkait untuk mengoding makna. Target pembelajaran bahasa dilihar dari penguasaan elemen sistem bahasa seperti fonologikal dan unit gramatikal, operasi gramatikal, dan unit leksikal. Audiolingual method, TPR, dan Silent Way menggunakan pandangan ini. Pandangan kedua adalah fungsional bahasa. Menurut pandangan ini bahasa adalah sarana untuk ekspresi makna fungsional. Teori ini menekankan pada dimensi semantik dan komunikatif daripada hanya pada karakteristik gramatikal bahasa[2]. Teori ini juga mengarahkan pada spesifikasi dan organisasi isi pengajaran bahasa dengan kategori fungsi dan makna daripada dengan elemen struktur dan tata bahasa.

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[1] Ur, Penny. 2000. *A Course in Language Teaching Practice and Theory*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[2] Swann, Pugh and Lee (Ed). 1980. *Language and Language Use*. London: Heineman Educational Books Ltd.

Pandangan ketiga adalah pandangan interaksional. Pandangan ini melihat bahasa sebagai sarana untuk merealisasikan hubungan interpersonal dan untuk kinerja transaski antarindividu. Bahasa dilihat sebagai sebuah alat untuk mengkreasikan dan memelihara hubungan sosial. Isi pengajaran bahasa menurut pandangan ini ditentukan dan diorganisasi oleh pola pertukaran dan interaksi.

Kurikulum pendidikan nasional telah mengalami sederetan perubahan dimulai tahun 1947, 1952, 1964, 1968, 1975, 1984, 1994, 1999, 2004, 2006, dan 2013. Perubahan tersebut memang merupakan akibat logis dari perubahan sistem politik, sistem ekonomi, sosial budaya, dan iptek dalam masyarakat berbangsa dan bernegara. Perubahan kurikulum di Indonesia terbagi dalam tiga kategori, yaitu tahun 1947 s.d. 1968 disebut kurikulum rencana pelajaran, tahun 1975 s.d. 1984 disebut dengan rencana pendidikan, tahun 1999 s.d. 2013 disebut dengan kurikulum berbasis kompetensi.

Kurikulum tahun 1947 dikenal dengan istilah rencana pelajaran. Bentuk kurikulum ini dipengaruhi oleh sistem kolonial pemerintahan Belanda. Kurikulum ini berisi dua hal pokok yaitu a) daftar mata pelajaran dan jam pengajarannya dan b) garis-garis besar pengajaran. Selain itu, kurikulum ini kurang menekankan pada aspek kognitif tetapi aspek watak dan perilaku. Kemudian terjadi penyempurnaan pada tahun 1952. Kurikulum itu dinamakan rencana pelajaran terurai. Hal yang menonjol dalam rencana pelajaran terurai ini adalah isi pelajaran dihubungkan dengan kehidupan sehari-hari. Di penghujung era Presiden Soekarno, muncul Rencana Pendidikan 1964 atau Kurikulum 1964. Fokusnya pada pengembangan Pancawardhana, yaitu :a) Daya cipta, b) Rasa, c) Karsa, d) Karya, e) Moral. Setelah itu, lahirlah kurikulum pada tahun

1975 yang berorientasi pada tujuan. Kurikulum ini menekankan pada isi atau materi pelajaran. Menurut kurikulum ini belajar adalah menguasai materi sebanyak-banyaknya. Dipengaruhi oleh teori behaviorisme, bahwa proses belajar mengajar adalah berupa stimulus dan respon. Kurikulum 1975 hingga tahun 1983 dianggap sudah tidak lagi memenuhi perkembangan kebutuhan masyarakat dan iptek sehingga muncullah kurikulum 1984. Ciri kurikulum ini yaitu berorientasi pada tujuan instruksional, pendekatan belajar CBSA, materi pelajaran dikemas dengan pendekatan spiral, materi diberikan berdasarkan kesiapan dan kematangan siswa, dan menggunakan pendekatan keterampilan proses.

Selanjutnya, kurikulum 1984 pun akhirnya disempurnakan lagi dengan kurikulum yang lebih baru, yaitu kurikulum 1994. Kurikulum 1994 ini bercirikan dikenalnya sistem caturwulan, menekankan materi pelajaran yang cukup padat, menggunakan strategi yang melibatkan siswa secara aktif. Sesudah dievaluasi, ternyata kurikulum 1947 s.d. 1994 memiliki kelemahan yaitu kurangnya penguasaan keterampilan (skill) karena yang lebih ditonjolkan penguasaan kognitif. Untuk semakin memenuhi tuntutan perkembangan masyarakat, disusunlah kurikulum yang berbasis kompetensi. Kurikulum tersebut adalah kurikulum 2004 dan 2006 (KTSP) yang menekankan penguasaan kompetensi secara holistis. Kurikulum 2004 dikembangkan secara sentralisasi (disusun oleh pusat), sedangkan kurikulum 2006 dikembangkan secara desentralisasi (kerangka dasar kurikulum dari pusat, sekolah dapat mengembangkan sesuai kondisi). Keduanya sama-sama berbasis kompetensi. Kurikulum 2004 memuat SK, KD, MP, dan indikator pencapaian sementara kurikulum 2006

hanya memuat SK, KD dan komponen lain dikembangkan oleh guru.

Secara umum setiap kurikulum yang disusun akan dilandasi oleh landasan filosofis, landasan psikologis, landasan sosiologis, dan landasan iptek. Ornstein dan Hunkins (2009:32) menjelaskan bahwa landasan filosofis ini menjelaskan tujuan pendidikan, kecocokan isi, proses pembelajaran dan pengajaran, dan pengalaman serta aktivitas yang seharusnya ditekankan oleh sekolah. Landasan psikologis menyediakan sebuah dasar untuk memahami proses pengajaran dan pembelajaran. Selain itu, Ornstein dan Hunkins (2009:108) juga menegaskan peranan psikologi yaitu untuk memberi dorongan pembentukan dasar untuk metode, materi, dan aktivitas belajar yang termuat dalam kurikulum.

Berkaitan dengan perkembangan kurikulum di Indonesia, lantas apa saja pendekatan yang melandasi perubahan kurikulum sejak tahun 1947 s.d. 2013? Kurikulum tahun 1947 s.d. 1964 dilandasi oleh pendekatan behaviorisme karena menekankan pembentukan watak perjuangan. Kurikulum 1975 s.d. 1994 dilandasi oleh pendekatan komunikatif dan keterampilan proses karena melibatkan siswa secara aktif dalam pembelajaran. Lalu kurikulum 2004 s.d. 2013 dilandasi oleh pendekatan kompetensi dan kontekstual-komunikatif karena siswa diarahkan pada pencapaian kompetensi secara holistis dan memiliki kompetensi komunikatif.

Karakteristik kurikulum bahasa akan mempengaruhi penggunaan metode pengajaran bahasa. Metode yang digunakan pun ada bermacam-macam. Metode-metode yang pernah digunakan dalam pengajaran bahasa dipaparkan berikut ini.

Grammar-Translation Method.

Metode ini tidak hanya menentukan cara yang seharusnya digunakan untuk mengajarkan bahasa, dengan menekankan pada penggunaan ekslusif bahasa target, teknik pengajaran tanya jawab intensif, demonstrasi, dramatisasi untuk mengokunikasikan makna kata. Metode ini juga menentukan kosakata dan tata bahasa yang diajarkan dan cara menyajikannya. Sesuai dengan namanya metode in merupakan kombinasi antara Metode Tata Bahasa dan Translation Method atau Metode Terjemahan. Ciri-ciri khusus metode ini dengan sendirinya sama dengan ciri-ciri kedua metode tersebut, antara lain:

1. Seperti halnya dengan Metode Tata Bahasa, metode ini cocok untuk kelas yang besar dan tidak memerlukan seorang guru yang harus menguasai bahasa asing secara aktif dan lancer atau pendidikan khusus
2. Tata bahasa yang diajarkan adalah tata bahasa formal
3. Kosakata yang dipergunakan tergantung pada teks atau bacaan yang telah dipilih
4. Pelajaran dimulai dengan kaidah-kaidah tata bahasa, kosakata tanpa konteks, dan terjemahan
5. Kegiatan penerjemahan dimulai dengan penerjemahan kosakata tanpa konteks, kemudia bacaan-bacaan pendek, mula-mula dari bahasa asing ke dalam bahasa siswa, kemudian sebaliknya.
6. Setiap pelajaran berisi kaidah tata bahasa, kosakata yang harus diterjemahkan, paradigma yang harus dihafal, serta latihan menerjemahkan, jumlah jam pelajaran disesuaikan dengan jumlah jam yang tersedia untuk pengajaran bahasa
7. Pronounciation atau ucapan tidak diajarkan, kalaupun diberikan hanya sedikit sekali dan tidak ada latihan yang

mengarah kepada kemahiran menggunakan bahasa secara lisan.

Structural Method

Structural Method dikenalkan pertama pada tahun 1920 oleh ahli linguis terapan terkemuka Inggris, Harold Palmer. Ia adalah orang yang meletakkan dasar untuk Structural Method. Dalam buku Curriculum Development in Language Teaching[3] disampaikan rangkuman prinsip metodologi pengajaran bahasa pada tahun 1920 yaitu,

- Orientasi siswa ke arah pembelajaran bahasa
- Membentuk kebiasaan
- Ketepatan – menghindari bahasa tidak akurat
- Gradasi – setiap tahap menyiapkan siswa untuk tahap selanjutnya
- Proporsi – setiap aspek bahasa diberikan penekanan
- Konkretisasi – bergerak dari konkret menuju abstrak
- Perhatian – membangkitkan perhatian siswa sepanjang waktu
- Urutan perkembangan – mendengarkan sebelum berbicara,
  dan mendengarkan-berbicara sebelum menulis
- Beberapa garis pendekatan – banyak digunakan cara berbeda untuk mengajar bahasa

Langkah awal ke arah metode ini berpusat pada pendekatan untuk menentukan isi kosakata dan tata bahasa program pengajaran bahasa. Hal ini menyebabkan munculnya prosedur yang dikenal dengan seleksi dan gradasi. Bidang seleksi dalam pengajaran bahasa berkaitan dengan pilihan

35

[3] Richards, Jack C and Willy Renandya. *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice*. 2004. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

unit bahasa yang sesuai untuk tujuan pengajaran dan dengan pengembangan teknik dan prosedur di mana bahasa dapat disederhanakan pada bahasa yang paling berguna untuk pelajar. Dua aspek seleksi yang mendapat perhatian utama dalam beberapa dekade pertama abad 20 adalah vocabulary selection dan grammar selection. Pendekatan untuk dua aspek seleksi meletakkan dasar untuk desain silabus dalam pengajaran bahasa. Vocabulary selection mengacu pada _kata apa yang seharusnya diajarkan?'. Kata-kata dengan frekuensi tertinggi dan jangkauan terluas dianggap yang paling berguna untuk tujuan pengajaran bahasa. Gradasi berkaitan dengan pengelompokkan dan pengurutan item mengajar dalam silabus. Silabus gramatikal menentukan kumpulan struktur gramatikal yang diajarkan dan urutan di mana seharusnya diajarkan.

Situasional Method

Munculnya metode ini dilatarbelakangi oleh pengajaran bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa kedua atau bahasa asing menjadi aktivitas semakin penting setelah perang dunia kedua (1950-an). Mobiltas orang yang semakin luas akibat pertumbuhan perjalanan udara dan pariwisata internasional. Semakin penting dalam perdagangan dunia. Semua perkembangan ini mendukung perlunya perintah praktis bahasa Inggris untuk orang-orang di berbagai belahan dunia daripada penguasaan bahasa akademik sebagai salah satu hal yang diperoleh dalam program kelas biasa.

Dengan kata lain, pendekatan yang digunakan menitikberatkan pada bahasa sebagai alat komunikasi. Oleh karena itu, lahirlah metodologi yang menarik pada pendekatan lisan pada 1950-an dan 1960-an. Metodologi tersebut memiliki karakteristik sebagai berikut.

- Silabus structural dengan tingkat kosakata bergradasi
- Penyajian struktur bermakna dalam konteks melalui penggunaan situasi untuk mengontekstualisasikan poin pengajaran baru
- Urutan aktivitas kelas dimulai dari presentasi, latihan terkontrol, produksi bebas. Ini menjadi dikenal sebagai pendekatan situasional or pendekatan structural situasional atau pengajaran bahasa situasional. Di Amerika pada tahun 1960-an pengajaran bahasa di bawah pengaruh metode yang kuat yaitu audiolingualisme. Teknik pengajaran memanfaatkan pola pengulangan dialog dan praktik sebagai dasar untuk otomatisasi diikuti dengan latihan yang melibatkan pentransferan pola belajar untuk situasi baru[4].

Karakteristik utama metode ini adalah:

- Pengajaran bahasa dimulai dengan bahasa lisan. Materi diajarkan secara lisan sebelum disajikan dalam bentuk tertulis
- Bahasa target adalah bahasa yang digunakan di kelas
- Poin bahasa baru dikenalkan dan dipraktikkan secara situasional
- Prosedur pemilihan kosakata diikuti untuk memastikan kosakata pelayanan umum tercakup
- Item tata bahasa yang dinilai mengikuti prinsip bahwa bentuk sederhana lebih dulu diajarkan daripada bentuk yang kompleks.
(Richard dan Rodger 2001:39)

Communicative Method

[4] Bloomfield, Leonard. 1995. *Language*. Jakarta: PT Gramedia.

Metode ini didasarkan pada pendekatan komunikatif dalam pengajaran bahasa. Pendekatan komunikatif berawal dari teori bahasa sebagai komunikasi[5]. Tujuan pengajaran bahasa adalah sebagai kompetensi komunikatif[6]. Teori belajar bahasa menurut metode ini adalah 1) aktivitas yang melibatkan komunikasi nyata dalam pembelajaran; 2) aktivitas di mana bahasa digunakan untuk melakukan tugas bermakna; 3) bahasa yang berarti bagi pelajar adalah yang mendukung proses belajar. Harmer[7] memaparkan bahwa pengajaran bahasa komunikatif adalah seperangkat keyakinan yang dicakup tidak hanya pada apa aspek bahasa untuk mengajar tetapi juga pergeseran dalam penekanan dalam bagaimana cara untuk mengajar. Metode ini juga menekankan pada pentingnya fungsi bahasa daripada memfokuskan semata-mata pada tata bahasa dan kosakata (daripada menekankan pada pola-pola mekanik bahasa).

78

[5] Richards, Jack C and Willy Renandya. *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice*. 2004. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[6] Canale, M. 1983. From Communicative Competence to Communicative Language Pedagogy. In Richards, J.C. and R.W. Schmidt, *Language and Communication*. London: Longman.

98

[7] Harmer, Jeremy. *The Practice of English Language Teaching*.------- England: Longman.

Principles of Communicative Language Teaching

- Learners learn a language through using it to communicate.
- Authentic and meaningful communication should be the goal of classroom activities.
- Fluency is an important dimension of communication.
- Communication involves the integration of different language skills.
- Learning is a process of creative construction and involves trial and error.

Chapter 3

English Teachers' Competence (1)

A. Standar Kompetensi Guru di Indonesia

Ada baiknya chapter 3 ini dimul 47 dengan peraturan Menteri Pendidikan Nasional Nomor 16 Tahun 2007 tentang Kualifikasi Akademik dan Kompetensi Guru, sebagai berikut: Standar kompetensi guru ini dikembangkan secara utuh dari empat kompetensi utama, yaitu kompetensi pedagogik, kepribadian, sosial, dan profesional. Keempat kompetensi tersebut terintegrasi dalam kinerja guru.

1. Ko 3 petensi Pedagodik

a. Menguasai karakteristik peserta didik dari aspek fisik, moral, sosial, kultural, emosional, dan intelektual.
b. Menguasai teori belajar dan prinsip-prinsip pembelajaran yang mendidik.
c. Mengembangkan kurikulum yang terkait dengan bidang pengembangan yang diampu
d. Menyelenggarakan kegiatan pengembangan yang mendidik
e. Memanfaatkan teknologi informasi dan komunikasi untuk kepentingan penyelenggaraan kegiatan pengembangan yang mendidik.
f. Memfasilitasi pengembangan potensi peserta didik untuk mengaktualisasikan berbagai potensi yang dimiliki.
g. Berkomunikasi secara efektif, empatik, dan santun dengan peserta didik.
h. Menyelenggarakan penilaian dan evaluasi proses dan hasil belajar

i. Memanfaatkan hasil penilaian dan evaluasi untuk kepentingan pembelajaran.
j. Melakukan tindakan reflektif untuk peningkatan kualitas pembelajaran.

2. Kompetensi Kepribadian

a. Bertindak sesuai dengan norma agama, hukum, sosial, dan kebudayaan nasional Indonesia.
b. Menampilkan diri sebagai pribadi yang jujur, berakhlak mulia, dan teladan bagi peserta didik dan masyarakat.
c. Menampilkan diri sebagai pribadi yang mantap, stabil, dewasa, arif, dan berwibawa.
d. Menunjukkan etos kerja, tanggungjawab yang tinggi, rasa bangga menjadi guru, dan rasa percaya diri.
e. Menjunjung tinggi kode etik profesi guru.

3. Kompetensi Sosial

a. Bersikap inklusif, bertindak objektif, serta tidak diskriminatif karena pertimbangan jenis kelamin, agama, ras, kondisi fisik, latar belakang keluarga, dan status sosial ekonomi.
b. Berkomunikasi secara efektif, empatik, dan santun dengan sesama pendidik, tenaga kependidikan, orang tua, dan masyarakat.
c. Beradaptasi di tempat bertugas di seluruh wilayah Republik Indonesia yang memiliki keragaman sosial budaya.
d. Berkomunikasi dengan komunitas profesi sendiri dan profesi lain secara lisan dan tulisan atau bentuk lain.

4. **Kompetensi Profesional**
   a. Menguasai materi, struktur, konsep, dan pola pikir keilmuan yang mendukung mata pelajaran yang diampu.
   b. Menguasai standar kompetensi dan kompetensi dasar mata pelajaran/bidang pengembangan yang diampu.
   c. Mengembangkan materi pembelajaran yang diampu secara kreatif.
   d. Mengembangkan keprofesionalan secara berkelanjutan dengan melakukan tindakan reflektif.
   e. Memanfaatkan teknologi informasi dan komunikasi untuk berkomunikasi dan mengembangkan diri.

Kompetensi Guru mata pelajaran Bahasa Asing (Bahasa Inggris pada SD/MI, SMP/MTs, dan SMA/MA, SMK/MAK) menurut peraturan ini adalah sebagai berikut:

1. Memiliki pengetahuan tentang berbagai aspek kebahasaan dalam bahasa Inggris (linguistik, wacana, sosiolinguistik, dan strategis).
2. Menguasai bahasa Inggris lisan dan tulis, reseptif dan produktif dalam segala aspek komunikatifnya (linguistik, wacana, sosiolinguistik, dan strategis).

Guru merupakan komponen yang paling menentukan dalam sistem pendidikan secara keseluruhan, yang harus mendapat perhatian sentral, pertama, dan utama. Figur yang satu ini akan senantiasa menjadi sorotan strategis ketika berbicara mengenai masalah pendidikan, karena guru selalu terkait dengan komponen manapun dalam sistem pendidikan. Guru memegang peranan utama dalam pembangunan pendidikan khususnya yang diselenggarakan secara formal di sekolah. Guru juga

sangat menentukan keberhasilan peserta didik, terutama dalam kaitannya dengan proses pembelajaran. Dengan kata lain, perbaikan kualitas pendidikan harus berpangkal dari guru dan berujung pada guru pula. Guru memiliki peran yang sangat strategis dalam upaya mewujudkan tujuan pembangunan nasional, khususnya di bidang pendidikan, sehingga perlu dikembangkan sebagai tenaga profesi yang berharkat, bermartabat dan profesional.

Sebagai figur sentral dalam proses pendidikan di sekolah, guru merupakan komponen yang paling berpengaruh terhadap terciptanya proses dan hasil pendidikan yang berkualitas. Oleh karena itu, untuk menjadi seorang guru yang profesional maka dituntut untuk memiliki keahlian sebagai guru yang disebut dengan kompetensi. Menurut Departemen Pendidikan Nasional (2006: 2), Kompetensi merupakan kemampuan bersikap, berpikir dan bertindak secara konsisten sebagai perwujudan dari pengetahuan, sikap dan keterampilan yang dimiliki peserta didik. Dengan kata lain kompetensi itu merupakan kemampuan unjuk kerja yang dilatarbelakangi oleh penguasaan pengetahuan, sikap dan keterampilan. Hal ini mengandung arti bahwa kualitas unjuk kerja itu ditentukan oleh kualitas penguasaan pengetahuan, sikap dan keterampilan. Ketika guru telah memenuhi standar profesional guru, maka guru tersebut berhak untuk mendapatkan sertifikasi guru yakni serbuah sertifikat yang ditandatangani oleh perguruan tinggi sebagai penyelenggara sertifikasi sebagai bukti formal pengakuan profesionalisme guru yang diberikan sebagai tenaga profesional. Sertifikasi guru merupakan prosedur yang digunakan oleh pihak yang berwenang

untuk memberikan jaminan tertulis bahwa seseorang telah memenuhi persyaratan kompetensi sebagai guru.

Peraturan Pemerintah nomor 19 tahun 2005 Bab IV pasal 19 ayat 1 mengatakan –Proses pembelajaran pada satuan pendidikan diselenggarakan secara interaktif, inspiratif, menyenangkan, menantang, memotivasi peserta didik untuk berpartisipasi aktif, serta memberikan ruang yang cukup bagi prakarsa, kreatifitas, dan kemandirian sesuai dengan bakat, minat, dan perkembangan fisik serta psikologis peserta didik. Pemahaman tentang berbagai potensi peserta didik mutlak harus dimiliki oleh setiap pendidik. Hal itu sejalan dengan tujuh prinsip penyusunan kurikulum tingkat satuan pendidikan (KTSP), yaitu (1) Berpusat pada potensi,
perkembangan, kebutuhan, dan kepentingan peserta didik dan lingkungannya, (2) Beragam dan terpadu, (3) Tanggap terhadap perkembangan ilmu pengetahuan, teknologi dan seni, (4) Relevan dengan kebutuhan kehidupan, (5) Menyeluruh dan berkesinambungan, (6) Belajar sepanjang hayat, dan (7) Seimbang antara kepentingan nasional dan kepentingan.

Here is a selection of top tips to help teachers of English develop their professional competence. They cover issues of professional conduct, strategies for dealing with students and their language production, the importance of meaningful communication and the example the teacher sets. This is the first of two such articles.

Professional competence 1[8]

It covers: Professional conduct, Classroom management, Teacher's approach and Language production.

a. Professional conduct.

- The English teachers should be prompt and punctual because promptness and punctuality lead to systematic work.
- They are bound by the virtue of your professional growth to change and modify their approach to fit the ever-changing factors in the fields of learning and teaching. Therefore, seek the best ways to improve and brush up their English.
- Evaluate teaching teaching tactics occasionally through self-criticism, which is highly constructive and leads to perfection.

b. Classroom management

- Create a relaxed atmosphere in the classroom to achieve full student participation.
- Discipline and firmness are of paramount importance especially when students practise group work. The friendly relationship between the teachers and the class has its vital impact on the students' attitude towards learning the language.

c. Teacher's approach

[8] Saleh M. Abdo, English Language Unit, National College of Science & Technology Salalah, Sultanate of Oman

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- The teachers should be creative because much of the teacher's success depends upon his/her imaginative power, originality and creativity. Teaching is more an art than a science.
- Be an example of a good planner and organizer. By doing so, the teachers encourage their students to develop their planning and organizational abilities.
- The teachers should prepare the lessons regularly and adequately makes them surefooted in the classroom. It sets their mind at ease and makes they realize the main aim of the lesson. Do not over-plan. Make the lesson plan brief, informative, clear and purposeful. Include various activities to suit the individual differences in the classroom.
- Be active. An active teacher means an active lesson. Avoid being indifferent because this creates a sort of boredom in the classroom.
- Make the lesson enjoyable because the ability to enjoy is the key to effective learning. Remember that what one learns through enjoyment, one never forgets and its effect on the memory never fades. Lack of interest means lack of response.

d. Language production

- The teacher should involve their students in authentic communication situations, which encourage a continuous flow of speech. In fact, the acquisition of the language depends on practising it naturally.
- Give the students every possible chance to use the language. Talk as little as possible to give the

students the opportunity to interact. Do not over teach. Make the lesson student centred, not teacher centred.

- Teach the language in appropriate social contexts. Relate the word to a sentence, the sentence to a situation and the situation to real life.
- Use the teaching media properly to make the lesson more attractive and perceptive. They save time and effort.
- Use effective means to eradicate errors. Always look at what they have achieved rather than at what they have failed to achieve.
- Be accurate in evaluating your students' achievement. The marks given should be in conformity with the real standard of the class.

Communicative Competence

A. Introduction

Ferdinand de Saussure was the expert who first clearly distinguish between the subject matters linguistic (is the research field linguist, which covers all the phenomena that closely or less closely related to the use of language) with the object of his (is sector or aspect of the phenomenon which will attract the attention of the linguist). Saussure mentions it as an object language (la langue: language) and subject matters as speech (la parole: speech or utterance). Noam Chomsky[9] and his colleagues or his followers often to the difference between language and

35

[9] Nunan, david. 2000. *Language Teaching Methodology. A textbook for Teachers*. Sydney : Longman.

speech, between la langue and la parole, between language and speech is the distinction they make between linguistic competence and linguistic performance, for short between linguistic competence and performance.

Competence from the point of functional skills, there are 3 components namely:

1. Participatory competence: the ability to provide an adequate response to the demands of classroom tasks and the procedural rules to resolve
2. Interaction competencies: The ability to provide an adequate response against the rules of classroom discourse and the rules of social discourse, to interact appropriately with peers and adults when completing class assignments
3. Academic Competence: The ability to acquire new skills, assimilate or understand, and shape /building new concepts

If we look at aspects of communicative competence in terms of the communicative competence is at least covers 4 areas of knowledge and skills are:

1. Grammatical competence, which includes knowledge of vocabulary, the rules of word formation and sentence, linguistic semantics, pronunciation and spelling

2. Sociolinguistic competence, which includes eligibility rules meanings (the messages being allowed, permitted) and grammatical forms in the sociolinguistic contexts of diverse and different

57

3. Discourse competence which includes knowledge required to combine or merge the forms and meanings to achieve oral texts and written or fully integrated

4. Strategic competence, which includes knowledge about strategies for verbal and non verbal communication that can be used to offset the restrictions in one or more other areas of communicative competence.

2. Language Competence

A. Functional Skills Competency

In the field of education bilingual William J. Tikunoff suggested examples how to interrogate teaching content with language teaching. He gives the characteristics of students who can participate in teaching effective language classes in English as functionally proficient or who should be entitled functional proficiency. So he gives three components of students who have a functional proficiency, namely:

a. Participatory competence is the ability to give an adequate response or answer to the guidance of various classroom tasks and procedural rules to complete these tasks.

b. Interaction competence is the ability to provide a satisfactory response to classroom discourse rules and the rules of social discourse and can interact well with peers and adults when completing class assignments.

c. Academic competence is the ability to acquire new skills, assimilate or understand new information and establish or develop new concepts.

B. Communicative competence[10]

Communicative competence is the ability to apply the grammatical rules a language to form sentences that are grammatically correct and to find out when and where to use these sentences and to whom. Communicative competence includes:

1) Knowledge of grammar and vocabulary relevant language
2) Knowledge about the rules of speaking
3) Knowing how to use and give response to various types of speech acts.
4) Knowing how to use language appropriately and satisfactorily

Component of Communicative Competence:

1. Grammatical competence

Grammatical competence is closely related to the mastery of the language code itself, both verbally and nonverbally. So involve characteristic to them and the rules of language such as vocabulary, word formation, sentence formation, speech, spelling and linguistic semantics.

2. Sociolinguistic competence

[10] Murcia, Marriane Celce. 2001. Ed. *Teaching English as A Second or Foreign Language*. Third Edition. United States: Heinle and Heinle Thomson.

Sociolinguistic competence are extensive direct or level of understanding utterances produced and understood appropriately and satisfactorily in various sociolinguistic contexts depending on contextual factors such as the status of participants, purpose/objective of interactions, and norms or conventions of interaction against these factors.

In short it can also be concluded that this sociolinguistic competence, are:

a) expression and understanding of social meanings that are appropriate and satisfactory in the sociolinguistic contexts of diverse
b) Expression and understanding of grammatical forms are appropriate and satisfactory for communicative functions in diverse sociolinguistic contexts are different.

3. Discourse competence

Type of competence is related to dominance combine forms and meanings of grammatical to involve oral or written text that is integrated into a wide range of 'genres'. The meaning of 'genre' here is the type of text, for example:

a) Oral or written narrative
b) Essay argumentative
c) Scientific reports
d) Business Letter
e) Set instructions, each of which represent every genre

In conclusion we can say that discourse competence is genres oral or written public are

selected based on analysis of communication needs and interests of learners, which includes:

a. *Genres cohesion in a diverse, there are:*
   1) Means of lexical cohesion in the context of such repeated lexical items, the use of synonymous-synonymous (which applies to the activities of listening, speaking manner, reading, writing)
   2) Grammatical cohesion means in the context of, for example, co-reference nomina with pronomina, ellipsis, logical connectors, parallel structures (which applies to activities speaking manner, reading, writing)

b. *Coherence in the genres of diverse, there are:*
   1) Patterns of oral discourse, such as advanced motion-normal meanings, particularly *kalamiah* meanings and communicative functions in conversation casual (in effect on the activities of listening, speaking, and writing)
   2) Patterns of written discourse: forward movement, normal meanings in a business letter, for example (which applies in the activities of reading and writing only)

4. Strategic competence

Strategic competency is composed of control strategies for verbal and non verbal communication that can be involved into the action because of two reasons, namely:

a. To offset the congestion-bottlenecks in communication

b. To higher or improve communication effectiveness

Some important benefits in teaching or language learning include:

a. For grammatical difficulties
b. For sociolinguistic difficulties
c. For discourse difficulties
d. For the performance factors

Chapter 4
Instructional Planning for Teaching

A. What does instructional planning mean?

Instructional Planinng is the ability of the teacher to visualize and forecast into the future of what, why and how of the teaching-learning process. The importance of Instryctional planning:

1. provides for logical sequencing and pacing lessons,
2. economizes cost - time and energy,
3. provides for a variety of instructional objectives,
4. creates the opportunity for higher level of questioning,
5. guides teachers.
6. Provides direction for the teachers
7. Correlates instructional events
8. Develops a sequence of well-organized learning experiences
9. Presents a comprehensive, integrated and meaningful content at an appropriate level
10. Prepares pupils/students for the day‘s activities

Components of Instructional Planning are as follow:

1. The teachers‘ attitudes, beliefs, orientations and teachers‘ social background
2. The pupils‘/students‘ age, background, knowledge, motivational level of interest
3. The type of content that influences the planning process, textbook and other instructional materials.
4. The learning content which is characterized by the subject matter guidelines

5. Material resources which include equipment/tools for teaching
6. Time frame which is considerable

The Principles of Instructional planning:

1. To understand the rationale of the course in the context of the goals of the educational institution
2. To determine what content to incorporate into the course in relation to the set objectives.
3. To clarify thrusts of the course
4. To understand the rationale of the course in the context of the goals of the educational institution
5. To determine what content to incorporate into the course in relation to the set objectives.
6. To clarify thrusts of the course

Types of Instructional Planning

1. Course plan

   A long-range teacher guide is usually called a map or course of study. MAPPING – identifies and details the content, concepts, skills and sometimes, values to be taught for the entire course.

   Guidelines for mapping:

   a. Be sure you understand the rational of the course in the context of goals of the school.
   b. Be sure you understand the objectives of the course, according to DepEd or district guidelines.
   c. Clarify the focus of the course designed to stress subject matter, learner‘s need, or social needs.

d. Be sure you understand the rational of the course in the context of goals of the school.
e. Be sure you understand the objectives of the course, according to DepEd or district guidelines.
f. Clarify the focus of the course designed to stress subject matter, learner‘s need, or social needs.

g. Be sure you understand the rational of the course in the context of goals of the school.
h. Be sure you understand the objectives of the course, according to DepEd or district guidelines.
i. Clarify the focus of the course designed to stress subject matter, learner‘s need, or social needs

2. Unit of Plan

A unit plan reflects long-range goals and is means of organizing various aspects of the course of the study and serves as a basis for developing a set of related daily teaching plans and educational activities. It covers: Objectives, Content, Skills, Learning activities, Resources and Materials, and Evaluation procedures.

3. Lesson Plan

A lesson plan is a very important tool of a teacher. It is a guide which includes the aims and objectives, subject matter, materials and devices to be used, time frame, anticipated problems and procedures, e.g., motivation, teaching strategies and techniques and evaluation for achieving the desired results. The components of a lesson plan are objectives. Motivation, outline, methods, materials and media, and assignment or homework.

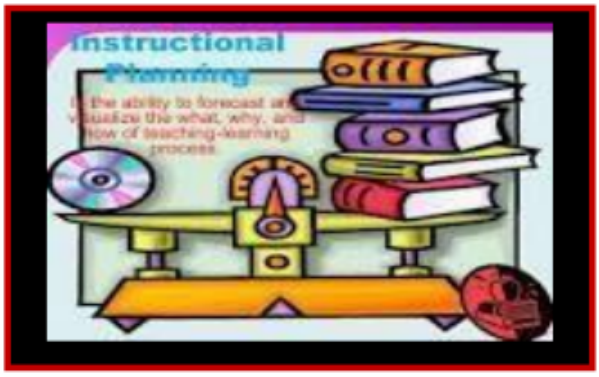
4. **Writing an Objectives**

   There are two types of objectives in designing in instructional planning, Performance Objectives and Process Objectives. The principles of designing goal and objective is **SMART** (Specific, Measurable, Attainable, Result-oriented, and Time-bound and Terminal).

5. Development and designing a lesson

6. **Assessment**

   Is the on going process of interpreting the evidence of what a student can do. Means finding out what students know and are able to do. Its emphasis is on observation of what is happening now. The purposes of assessment: to assist in student learning, to assess and improve student learning, to identify children's strengths and weaknesses, and to assess the effectiveness of a particular instructional strategy.



In general terms, planning means the -act or process of making or carrying out plans.I instructional planning is a process of the teacher using appropriate curricula, instructional strategies, and resources during the planning

process to address the diverse needs of students. A teacher‘s teaching begins before he/she steps into the classroom and starts talking. Prior to each lesson, unit, semester, or school year, while teachers are planning the content of instruction, selecting teaching materials, designing the learning activities and grouping methods, and deciding on the pacing and allocation of instructional time, they are actually determining what learning opportunities their students are going to have. Teachers could use state or district curriculum standards, school district curriculum goals and objectives, and learning outcomes developed by professional organizations to plotthe scope and sequence of subject topics.Teachers also could apply their knowledge of research-based practices to plan what strategies and techniques will be adopted to deliver instruction. Nevertheless, the most informative source for any instructional planning resides in the teachers‘ classrooms – the students.

What does research say about instructional planning of the teacher?

Planning is preparation for action.To improve practices, one needs to have prior thought and planning, ongoing review, and continuous adjustment as the plan unfolds in practice, and, finally, reflection on what worked, what didn‘t, and how to improve. Indeed, planning is an essential tool for effective teaching. Teaching is a complex activity that involves careful preparation and planning, both for short-term learning purposes or long-term learning purposes. Misulis commented –regardless of the teaching model and methods used, effective instruction begins with careful, thorough, and organized planning on the part of the teacher.[1] A solid planning process is integral to a teacher‘s efforts in identifying appropriate curriculum,

instructional strategies, and resources to address the needs of all students. Furthermore, teachers' planning influences the content of instruction, the sequence and cognitive demands of subject topics, learning activities and students' opportunities to learn, and the pacing and allocation of instructional time.Various research studies have found that effective teachers are more likely to have the following planning behaviors while deciding on subject content:

1. Construct a blueprint of how to address the curriculum during the instructional time.
2. Collaborate withone or more teachers while planning, rather than plan lessons alone.
3. Facilitate planning units in advance to make intra-and interdisciplinary connections.
4. Use student assessment data to plan what goals and objectives to address.
5. Plan for the context of the lesson to help students relate, organize, and make knowledge become a part of students' long-term memory.
6. Sequence material to promote student's cognitive and developmental growth.
7. Use knowledge of available resources to determine what resources they need to acquire or develop.
8. Plan instructionin a multi-sourced manner.
9. Take into account the abilities of their students and the students' strengths and weaknesses as well as their interest level.Comparatively, less effective teachers have more difficulty responding to individual student needs in their planning.

They tend to develop a one-size fits all approach to planning; whereas, more experienced teachers build in differentiation and contingencies at different points during the lesson To further assist with meeting individual needs, effective teachers typically plan a blend of whole-group, small-group, and individualized instruction.To highlight, a study by Haynie examined the planning practices of ten effective and ten less effective teachers, whose effectiveness was identified by their students‘ achievement gains. The most effective teachers collaborated with one or more teachers while planning lessons; however, the less effective teachers reported they always planned lessons alone.The most effective teachers also were not restricted by pacing guides, and reached beyond prepared resources to plan their own activities, while the less effective teachers used resources already prepared. The most effective teachers used student assessment data in the planning of instruction. Based on data drawn from frequent assessments, they made data-driven decisions about what goals and objectives to address.Effective teachers also evaluate the quality of available resources when designing a unit or lesson. They use criteria such as appropriateness for grade level, alignment to national, state, or local standards, accuracy of information contained within the resource, the time allowed for the lesson or unit, and the learning benefits that come from using the resource. Effective teachers maximize the instructional benefits of resources while minimizing time allocated to less relevant or unnecessary material. Research indicates the following key questions that teachers need to consider for effective instructional planning:

1) What should be taught?
2) How should it be taught?

3) How should instruction and student learning be assessed?

What should be taught?

Effective student learning requires a progressive and coherent set of learning objectives. Effective teachers excel in delineating the intended outcomes of each lesson and describing the behaviors or actions that students should be able to perform after participating in the learning activities. In deciding what should be taught, effective teachers often useprescribed textbooks, but they hardly ever follow traditional plans. In fact, they frequently have a blue print in their minds that has been formed and re-formed over time. Perhaps because of their expertise gained over time through a constant process of planning-reflection-refining, effective teachers are likely to rely on written, formalized lessons less than on their well-formed and fluid mental planning model. Expert teachers conceive a lesson along two dimensions simultaneously:

1. teacher‘s own actions,thoughts, and habits; and
2. students‘ thinking and understanding of the content. Thus, effective teachers not only plan what to teach, but more importantly, they plan for whom they are going to teach. They exert effort to reach beyond their comfort zone of disciplinary thinking and actions to incorporate their students‘ learning needs.
3. Brief

Performance Standard 2: Instructional Planning

How Should It Be Taught?

Once the learning objectives are developed, evidence suggests that expertteachers are more competent in

translating their instructional plans into actions than non-expert teachers.

Additionally, effective teachers follow thepredefined plan while remaining open to changes and continuously adjusting their instruction based on student needs. Further, expert teachers anticipate the difficulties students might encounter while learning the content of the lesson. They consider students‘ thinking in order to assess the success of the lesson plan and then modify their instruction promptly. Having a lesson plan cannot ensure that the actual lesson will be implemented as what‘s prescribed beforehand in the plan. The classroom is full of ebbs and flows. Consequently, teachers need to be opportunistic and tap into their pedagogical and content resources in a fluid and flexible manner in order to proceed smoothly.

How Should Instruction and Student Learning Be Assessed?

When the learning objectives are set up, in addition to aligning activities to them, teachers also need to link the assessment plan to the learning objectives. Alignment of curriculum, learning activities, and assessment is integral to any instructional design. (This type of alignment is referred to as _Opportunity to Learn.‘) Before the actual instruction starts, teachers need to decide upon valid and reliable assessment techniques that are available to solicit student learning data and judge the success of the instructional plan. Additionally, teachers should communicate to their students about what they are expected to achieve and inform them about how they will be assessed after participating in the learning activities. Sample performance indicators for the instructional planning of teachers.

Uses student learning data to guide planning.

1. Plans time realistically for pacing, content mastery, and transitions.
2. Plans for differentiated instruction.
3. Aligns lesson objectives to the school's curriculum and student learning needs.
4. Develops appropriate long-and short-range plans, and adapts plans when needed.

B. Instructional Planning Phase

A system design for curriculum raises the standard for what students should know. The curriculum design framing the past schooling of most adults defined what students should know by topics and related facts. Traditional objectives asked students to "list", "define", "identify," and "explain" important, fact-based information.

Concept-process teachers clearly identify and teach toward these transferable ideas. Specific topics become the building blocks for developing increasingly sophisticated ideas.

Every content-based discipline has a core of conceptual, essential understandings. For example, the topic of Indonesian reformation for a middle elementary grade level, students need a mental schema to pattern and short information. As they progress through the grades, students build conceptual structure in the brain as they relate new examples to past learnings. This means that teachers, in writing curricula, need to identify conceptual ideas, often stated as essential understandings, that are developmentally appropriate for the age level of their students.

So, in this paper we are going to talk about;

1. How to describe the concept of instructional design.
2. How to identify the process of instructional design.

3. How to identify the element related to the process of instructional design.

a. Introduction

Instructional Design is the process of analysis of learning needs and goals and the development of a delivery system to meet those needs. Instructional design is a formal process that has its roots in behaviourism. "Educational" design is a term that is also sometimes used frequently and interchangeably, and takes into account some of the diverse and new theories in instructional design.

Instructional Design is the systematic development of instructional specifications using learning and instructional theory to ensure the quality of instruction. It is the entire process of analysis of learning needs and goals and the development of a delivery system to meet those needs. It includes development of instructional materials and activities; and tryout and evaluation of all instruction and learner activities.

An instructional system is an arrangement of resources and procedures to promote learning. Instructional design is the systematic process of developing instructional systems and instructional development is the process of implementing the system or plan.

Instructional Design is a field that prescribes specific instructional actions to achieve desired instructional outcomes; the process decides the best methods of instruction for enacting desired changes in knowledge and skills for a specific course content and learner population. Instructional design is usually the

initial stage of systematic instruction, for which there are dozens of models, For example, Instructional Systems Design (ISD) includes instructional development, delivery, and evaluation.

b. Describing the Concept of Instructional Design

1) Instructional Design as a Process:
Instructional Design is the systematic development of instructional specifications using learning and instructional theory to ensure the quality of instruction. It is the entire process of analysis of learning needs and goals and the development of a delivery system to meet those needs. It includes development of instructional materials and activities; and tryout and evaluation of all instruction and learner activities.

2) Instructional Design as a Discipline:
Instructional Design is that branch of knowledge concerned with research and theory about instructional strategies and the process for developing and implementing those strategies.

3) Instructional Design as a Science:
Instructional Design is the science of creating detailed specifications for the development, implementation, evaluation, and maintenance of situations that facilitate the learning of both large and small units of subject matter at all levels of complexity.

4) Instructional Design as Reality:
Instructional Design can start at any point in the design process. Often a glimmer of an idea is developed to give the core of an instruction situation. By the time the entire process is done the

designer looks back and she or he checks to see that all parts of the "science" have been taken into account. Then the entire process is written up as if it occurred in a systematic fashion

C. The Process of Instructional Design

Since the planning of courses and the writing of materials is a sparsely documented area, designers and writers has tended to work on the basis of their best intuitions. Fortunately, people who design language courses are usually thoroughly familiar with what goes on in classroom. However, designing courses which will be used by other teachers or evaluate, writing textbooks for a wide and unknown audience is different from planning one's own teaching. Taba's outline (1962:12) of the steps which a course designer must work through to develop subject matter courses has become the foundation for many other writers suggestions. Her list of 'curriculum process' includes the following:

1. Diagnosis of needs
2. Formulation of objectives
3. Selection of content
4. Organization of content
5. Selection of learning experiences
6. Organization of learning experiences
7. Determination of what to evaluate, and the means to evaluate .

In the other hand, the process of instructional course design or course redesign use models like these to determine the best changes to implement.

1. Identify Instructional Design Goals and Objectives
2. Determine Assessment Procedures

3. Design the Instruction
4. Develop the Instruction
5. Pilot-test the Instruction
6. Revise instruction based on student performance and feedback
7. Deliver the Instruction

Most of the instructional design processes contain five essential phases:
1. analysis,
2. design,
3. development,
4. implementation, and
5. evaluation.

Following this process, the instructional designer incorporates the principles of the learning and educational training to develop highly interactive, participant-centered learning events.

Analysis

The analysis phase provides the information needed to carry out all other phases of the instructional design process. The purpose of this phase is to identify barriers or constraints to quality family planning service delivery, define the problems, identify the cause of the problems and determine possible solutions. Common analysis techniques include needs assessments. The results of the needs assessments include statements of the problems and possible solutions. The instructional content analysis process produces a list of information to be taught, tasks to be learned and attitudes to be developed.

Design

The design phase uses the results of the analysis phase to create the structure of the course. The instructional designer will develop the course syllabus, write course objectives and create the course outline and schedule.

Developme

The focus of the development phase is on generating the course documents and materials used by faculty, trainers and participants during the delivery of the course as designed. Documents produced during this phase include competency-based learning guides and checklists, pre- and midcourse questionnaires, trainer's notes, presentation plans, assignment sheets, case studies and role plays.

Implementation

The implementation phase of the instructional design process refers to the actual delivery of the instruction as designed. Instruction could take place in a group-based inservice training course for family planning service providers, within the curriculum of a school or in a program. The product of this phase is a competent individual who has mastered the knowledge and skills presented during the learning process.

Evaluation

The evaluation phase refers to the systematic collection, processing, analysis and interpretation of data to determine whether education or training has met its objectives (e.g., whether an individual's knowledge, skills and attitudes related to job performance have improved). This phase also identifies aspects of the process that should be strengthened. Types of evaluation include participant reaction, participant learning, on-the-job performance and

effect of training. The results of this phase a recommendations for improving all of the other phases of the instructional design process: analysis, design, development and implementation.

The elements that related to the process of instructional design are:

a. The unit theme
b. The concept
c. Webbing the topic for study
d. Generalization (Essential Understanding)
e. Essential Questions
f. Process and Skill
g. Instructional Activities
h. Culminating Performance
i. Scoring Guide for Culminating Performance
j. The type of learning
k. Media
l. The Goal
m. Needs
n. The materials
o. Activities teaching-learning
p. Methods and strategies

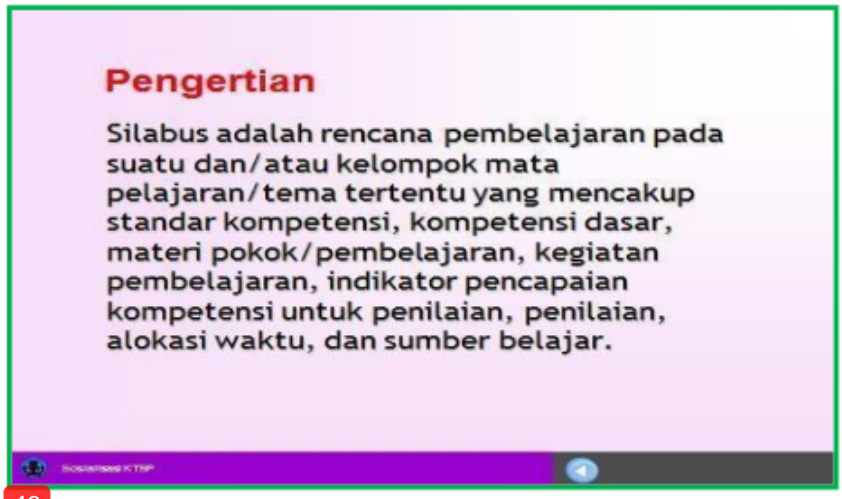
Conclusion

Instructional Design is the process of analysis of learning needs and goals and the development of a delivery system to meet those needs. . Instructional design is a formal process that has its roots in behaviourism. "Educational" design is a term that is also sometimes used frequently and interchangeably, and takes into account some of the diverse and new theories in instructional design.

Chapter 5

The Place of Syllabus

A. An Introduction to Syllabus Design



49

The purpose of this paper is to examine the currents running through syllabus design and to highlight the issues relevant to teachers considering creating their own curriculum with specific reference to those based in Japan. It will hopefully also help instructors better evaluate their own programs and course books. It is therefore concerned with linguistic theory and theories of language learning and how they are applied to the classroom.

In the past, the focus of syllabuses has shifted from structure to situations, functions and notions to topics and tasks. In fact, as Nunan[11] suggests, with the development of the latter it is palpable that "the traditional distinction between syllabus design and methodology has become blurred". So, how should we initially define syllabus?

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[11] Nunan, D. (1988) *Syllabus Design*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Syllabus: A Definition

A syllabus is an expression of opinion on the nature of language and learning; it acts as a guide for both teacher and learner by providing some goals to be attained. Hutchinson and Waters[12] define syllabus as follows:

At its simplest level a syllabus can be described as a statement of what is to be learntÖIt reflects of language and linguistic performance. This is a rather traditional interpretation of syllabus focusing as it does on outcomes rather than process. However, a syllabus can also be seen as a "summary of the content to which learners will be exposed"[13]. It is seen as an approximation of what will be taught and that it cannot accurately predict what will be learnt. Next, we will discuss the various types of approaches available to course designers and the language assumptions they make.

Product-Oriented Syllabuses

Also known as the synthetic approach, these kinds of syllabuses emphasize the product of language learning and are prone to intervention from an authority.

The Structural Approach

Historically, the most prevalent of syllabus type is perhaps the grammatical syllabus in which the selection and grading of the content is based on the complexity and simplicity of grammatical items. The learner is expected to master each structural step and add it to her grammar collection. As

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[12] Hutchinson, T. & Waters, A. (1987) *English For Specific Purposes: A Learning Centred Approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

[13] Yalden, J. (1987) *Principles of Course Design for Language Teaching*. Cambridge : Cambridge University Press.

such the focus is on the outcomes or the product. One problem facing the syllabus designer pursuing a grammatical order to sequencing input is that the ties connecting the structural items maybe rather feeble. A more fundamental criticism is that the grammatical syllabus focuses on only one aspect of language, namely grammar, whereas in truth there exist many more aspects to language. Finally, recent corpus based research suggests there is a divergence between the grammar of the spoken and of the written language; raising implications for the grading of content in grammar based syllabuses.

The Situational Approach

These limitations led to an alternative approach where the point of departure became situational needs rather than grammatical units. Here, the principal organizing characteristic is a list of situations which reflects the way language and behavior are used everyday outside the classroom. Thus, by linking structural theory to situations the learner is able to induce the meaning from a relevant context. One advantage of the situational approach is that motivation will be heightened since it is "learner- rather than subject-centered"[14] . However, a situational syllabus will be limited for students whose needs were not encompassed by the situations in the syllabus. This dissatisfaction led Wilkins to describe notional and communicative categories which had a significant impact on syllabus design.

The Notional/Functional Approach

[14] Wilkins, D.A. (1976) *Notional Syllabuses*. Oxford : Oxford University Press

Wilkins' criticism of structural and situational approaches lies in the fact that they answer only the 'how' or 'when' and 'where' of language[15]. Instead, he enquires "what it is they communicate through language" (Op.Cit.:18). Thus, the starting point for a syllabus is the communicative purpose and conceptual meaning of language i.e. notions and functions, as opposed to grammatical items and situational elements which remain but are relegated to a subsidiary role.

In order to establish objectives, the needs of the learners will have to be analyzed by the various types of communication in which the learner has to confront. Consequently, needs analysis has an association with notional-functional syllabuses. Although needs analysis implies a focus on the learner, critics of this approach suggest that a new list has replaced the old one. Where once structural/situational items were used a new list consisting of notions and functions has become the main focus in a syllabus. White[16] claims that "language functions do not usually occur in isolation" and there are also difficulties of selecting and grading function and form. Clearly, the task of deciding whether a given function (i.e. persuading), is easier or more difficult than another (i.e. approving), makes the task harder to approach.

The above approaches belong to the product-oriented category of syllabuses. An alternative path to curriculum design would be to adopt process oriented principles, which assume that language can be learnt experientially as

[15] Brumfit, C.J. & Johnson, K. (eds) (1979) *The Communicative Approach To Language Teaching*. Oxford: OUP.

[16] White, R.V. (1988) *The ELT Curriculum : Design, Innovation And Management*. Oxford: Blackwell.

opposed to the step-by-step procedure of the synthetic approach.

Process-Oriented Syllabuses

Process-Oriented Syllabuses, or the analytical approach, developed as a result of a sense of failure in product-oriented courses to enhance communicative language skills. It is a process rather than a product. That is, focus is not on what the student will have accomplished on completion of the program, but on the specification of learning tasks and activities that s/he will undertake during the course.

Procedural/Task-Based Approaches

Prabhu's[17] 'Bangalore Project' is a classic example of a procedural syllabus. Here, the question concerning 'what' becomes subordinate to the question concerning 'how'. The focus shifts from the linguistic element to the pedagogical, with an emphasis on learning or learner. Within such a framework the selection, ordering and grading of content is no longer wholly significant for the syllabus designer.

Arranging the program around tasks such as information- and opinion-gap activities, it was hoped that the learner would perceive the language subconsciously whilst consciously concentrating on solving the meaning behind the tasks. There appears to be an indistinct boundary between this approach and that of language teaching methodology, and evaluating the merits of the former remain complicated.

A task-based approach assumes that speaking a language is a skill best perfected through practice and interaction, and uses tasks and activities to encourage

[17] Prabhu, N.S. (1987) *Second Language Pedagogy*. Oxford: OUP.

learners to use the language communicatively in order to achieve a purpose. Tasks must be relevant to the real world language needs of the student. That is, the underlying learning theory of task based and communicative language teaching seems to suggest that activities in which language is employed to complete meaningful tasks, enhances learning.

Learner-Led Syllabuses

Here the emphasis lays with the learner, who it is hoped will be involved in the implementation of the syllabus design as far as that is practically possible. By being fully aware of the course they are studying it is believed that their interest and motivation will increase, coupled with the positive effect of nurturing the skills required to learn.

However, as suggested earlier, a predetermined syllabus provides support and guidance for the teacher and should not be so easily dismissed. Critics have suggested that a learner-led syllabus seems radical and utopian in that it will be difficult to track as the direction of the syllabus will be largely the responsibility of the learners. Moreover, without the mainstay of a course book, a lack of aims may come about. This leads to the final syllabus design to be examined.

The Proportional Approach

The proportional syllabus basically attempts to develop an "overall competence". It consists of a number of elements with theme playing a linking role through the units. This theme is designated by the learners. It is expected initially that form will be of central value, but later, the focus will veer towards interactional components ; the

syllabus is designed to be dynamic, not static, with ample opportunity for feedback and flexibility (ibid:100).

The shift from form to interaction can occur at any time and is not limited to a particular stratum of learner ability. As Yalden (ibid:87) observes, it is important for a syllabus to indicate explicitly what will be taught, "not what will be learned".

This practical approach with its focus on flexibility and spiral method of language sequencing leading to the recycling of language, seems relevant for learners who lack exposure to the target language beyond the classroom. But how can an EFL teacher pinpoint the salient features of the approaches discussed above?

Syllabus Design and Evaluation

Initially, several questions must be posed. Do you want a product or process oriented syllabus? Will the course be teacher or learner led? What are the goals of the program and the needs of your students? This leads to an examination of the degree to which the various elements will be integrated, which is of great significance to White (1988:92) who comments:

Landasan Pengembangan SILABUS?

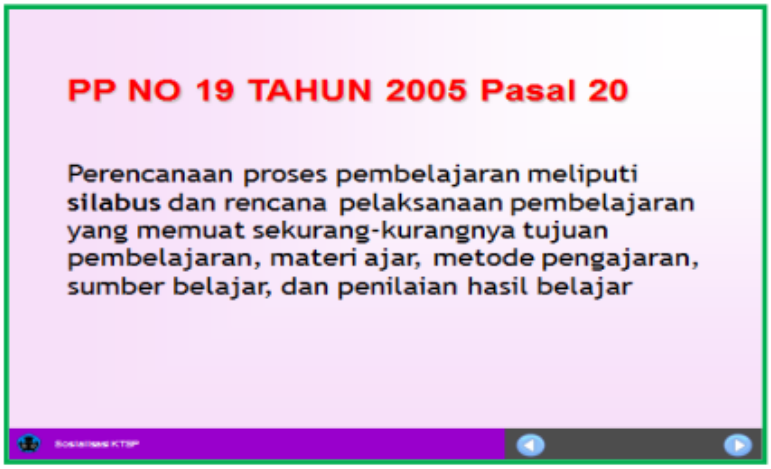
1. Peraturan Pemerintah Republik Indonesia Nomor 19 tahun 2005 tentang Standar Nasional Pendidikan pasal 17 ayat (2)
2. Peraturan Pemerintah Republik Indonesia Nomor 19 tahun 2005 tentang Standar Nasional Pendidikan pasal 20



PP NO 19 TAHUN 2005 Pasal 17 Ayat (2)

Sekolah dan komite sekolah, atau madrasah dan komite madrasah, mengembangkan kurikulum tingkat satuan pendidikan dan **silabusnya** berdasarkan kerangka dasar kurikulum dan standar kompetensi lulusan, di bawah supervisi dinas kabupaten/kota yang bertanggung jawab di bidang pendidikan untuk SD, SMP, SMA, dan SMK, dan departemen yang menangani urusan pemerintahan di bidang agama untuk MI. MTs, MA, dan MAK.





A complete syllabus specification will include all five aspects : structure, function, situation, topic, skills. The difference between syllabuses will lie in the priority given to each of these aspects.

Eclecticism is a common feature of the majority of course books under the communicative banner currently on offer. Attempting to combine the various aspects of language has also been addressed by Hutchinson and Waters who state:

Any teaching material must, in reality, operate several syllabuses at the same time. One of them will probably be used as the principal organizing feature, but the others are still there (op.cit.:89).

What should the language teacher based in Japan make of this review? What points are relevant to them?

Traditionally, the grammar-translation method (mid-nineteenth century to Second World War) has been the staple of the language class in Japanese secondary education in spite of efforts from programs such as JET. Students are expected to understand and memorize lists of vocabulary, phrasal verbs / idioms, grammar rules etc for the purpose of translating selected texts and preparation for university entrance tests. On graduating from either high school or

university, many students remain unable to communicate at even a basic level.

Widdows and Voller[18] found that Japanese learners desired oral-aural skills whilst rejecting a need for structural knowledge or technical writing.

This implies that a syllabus focusing on the communicative aspect of language would satisfy the needs and desires of young Japanese adult learners. Group psychology, years of passive learning and the grammatical syllabus under attack here, ensure that most 15 to 25 year olds in Japan remain at the false beginner /elementary level in communicative terms. Such learners lack confidence in their productive skills and require communicative activities to activate the language they have learned whilst building their self-assurance. The importance of adopting a communicative approach is compounded by the fact that the university entrance examinations are the "true driving force of EFL education in Japanese high schools". Despite requests by the Japanese Ministry of education for syllabus designers to regard the four skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking equally, materials writers continue to base their trade on helping students prepare for exams. In viewing language as a system of grammatical and vocabulary items, the "communicative ethos of the course of study" (ibid:9) is neglected.

In light of this background, and given the monolingual nature of Japanese society and the lack of exposure to the target language outside the classroom, a task based strategy with a blend of approaches and emphasis on communicative learning, may well be one of the most

[18] Widdows, S. & Voller, P. (1991) "PANSI : a survey of the ELT needs of Japanese University students". *Cross Currents* 18, (2), 127-141 .

suitable types of syllabus design on offer for language learners in Japan.

Clearly, there is a vast amount of material to disseminate when considering syllabus design. The numerous approaches touched on here all offer valuable insights into creating a language program. The synthetic approaches of structuralism, situational and functional-notional, all have objectives to be attained, a content to be processed and learnt. The foundations of the product syllabuses remain fundamentally similar, whereas the underlying assumptions about language and language learning from the analy[22] approaches differ greatly: process type syllabuses assert that learning a language is transient and cannot be itemized; pedagogical proced[39]e takes precedence over content. If our assumptions about the nature of linguistics and language learning is one of "language as communication"[19] then a syllabus based around activities and tasks which promote real and meaningful communication will seem advantageous. We have shown that the false beginner in Japan will have learned structural rules to a surprisingly complex degree, yet may find it difficult to use, or indeed, may never have had an opportunity to use the language learned. Consequently, the belief that learning is facilitated by activities that include real communication, may be the most suitable belief to adopt in the Japanese classroom.

Further points to consider when critically reviewing a syllabus are the objectives of the course as well as the needs of the learners. Ultimately, and perhaps ideally, a hybrid

[81]

[19] Richards, J.C. & Rodgers, T.S. (1986) *Approaches And Methods In Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

syllabus will result purely due to pragmatic reasons. As Hutchinson and Waters[20] suggest:

It is wise to take an eclectic approach, taking what is useful from each theory and trusting also in the evidence of your own experience as a teacher.

Thus, to what extent has an integration of the various approaches taken place? Does the syllabus specification include all aspects? If yes, how is priority established? These questions must also form part of the criteria when designing or assessing your own syllabus.

B. Approaches to Foreign Language Syllabus Design.

A language teaching syllabus involves the integration of subject matter (what to talk about) and linguistic matter (how to talk about); that is, the actual matter that makes up teaching. Choices of syllabi can range from the more or less purely linguistic, where the content of instruction is the grammatical and lexical forms of the language, to the purely semantic or informational, where the content of instruction is some skill or information and only incidentally the form of the language. To design a syllabus is to decide what gets taught and in what order. For this reason, the theory of language explicitly or implicitly underlying the language teaching method will play a major role in determining what syllabus is adopted. Theory of learning also plays an important part in determining the kind of syllabus used. For example, a syllabus based on the theory of learning espoused by cognitive code teaching would emphasize language forms and whatever explicit descriptive knowledge about those

[20] Hutchinson, T. & Waters, A. (1987) *English For Specific Purposes: A Learning Centred Approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

forms was presently available. A syllabus based on an acquisition theory of learning, however, would emphasize unanalyzed, though possibly carefully selected experiences of the new language in an appropriate variety of discourse types.

The choice of a syllabus is a major decision in language teaching, and it should be made as consciously and with as much information as possible.There has been much confusion over the years as to what different types of content are possible in language teaching syllabi and as to whether the differences are in syllabus or method. Several distinct types of language teaching syllabi exist, and these different types may be implemented in various teaching situations.

C. Types of Syllabus[21]

Although six different types of language teaching syllabi are treated here as though each occurred "purely," in practice, these types rarely occur independently of each other. Almost all actual language teaching syllabi are combinations of two or more of the types defined here. For a given course, one type of syllabus usually dominates, while other types of content may be combined with it. Furthermore, the six types of syllabi are not entirely distinct from each other. For example, the distinction between skill-based and task-based syllabi may be minimal. In such cases, the distinguishing factor is often the way in which the

[21] Dubin, F., & Olshtain, E. (1986). "Course design: Developing programs and materials for language learning." Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

instructional content is used in the actual teaching procedure. The characteristics, differences, strengths, and weaknesses of individual syllabi are defined as follows:

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

2. **A notional/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.**
   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 activity in a specific setting. The language occurring in the situation involves a number of functions, combined into a plausible segment of discourse. The primary purpose of a situational language teaching syllabus is to teach the language that occurs in the situations. Examples of situations include: seeing the dentist, complaining to the landlord, buying a book at the book store, meeting a new student, and so on.

4. **A skill-based syllabus.**
   The content of the language teaching is a collection of specific abilities that may play a part in using language. Skills are things that people must be able to do to be competent in a language, relatively independently of the situation or setting in which the language use can occur. While situational syllabi group functions together into specific settings of language use, skill-based syllabi group linguistic competencies (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and discourse) together into generalized types of behavior, such as listening to spoken language for the main idea, writing well-formed paragraphs, giving effective oral presentations, and so on. The primary purpose of skill-based instruction is to learn the specific language skill. A possible secondary purpose is to develop more general competence in the language, learning only incidentally any information that may be available while applying the language skills.

5. **A task-based syllabus.**
   The content of the teaching is a series of complex and purposeful tasks that the students want or need to perform with the language they are learning. The tasks are defined as activities with a purpose other than language learning, but, as in a content-based syllabus, the performance of the tasks is approached in a way that is intended to develop second language ability. Language learning is subordinate to task performance, and language teaching occurs only as the need arises during the performance of a given task. Tasks integrate language (and other) skills in specific settings of language use. Task-based teaching differs from

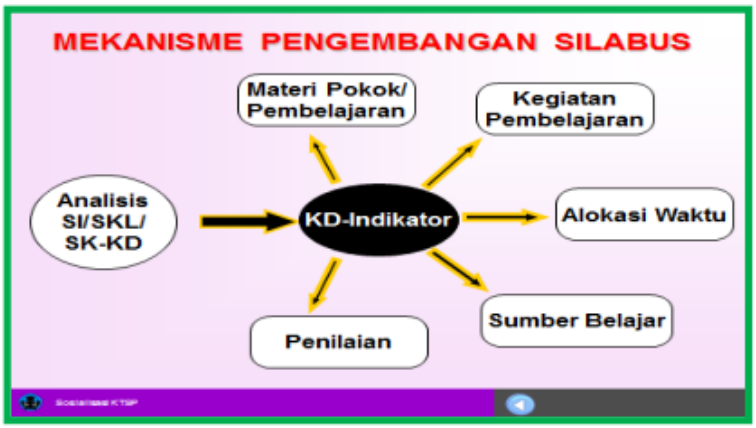
situation-based teaching in that while situational teaching has the goal of teaching the specific language content that occurs in the situation (a predefined product), task-based teaching has the goal of teaching students to draw on resources to complete some piece of work (a process). The students draw on a variety of language forms, functions, and skills, often in an individual and unpredictable way, in completing the tasks. Tasks that can be used for language learning are, generally, tasks that the learners actually have to perform in any case. Examples include: applying for a job, talking with a social worker, getting housing information over the telephone, and so on.

6. A content-based-syllabus.

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

In general, the six types of syllabi or instructional content are presented beginning with the one based most on structure, and ending with the one based most

on language use. Language is a relationship between form and meaning, and most instruction emphasizes one or the other side of this relationship.



CONTOH FORMAT SILABUS

Nama Sekolah:

Mata Pelajaran:

Kelas/Semester:

Standar Kompetensi:

Alokasi waktu:

No	Kompe-tensi Dasar	Materi Pokok/Pembelaja-ran	Kegiatan Pembelaja-ran	Indikator	Penilaian	Alokasi Waktu	Sumber Belajar



Sosialisasi KTSP



Chapter 6
Lesson Planning



A. Strategies for Effective Lesson Planning

A lesson plan is a teacher's detailed description of the course of instruction, or 'learning trajectory' for a lesson. A daily lesson plan is developed by a teacher to guide class learning. Details will vary depending on the preference of the teacher, subject being covered, and the needs of the students. There may be requirements mandated by the school system regarding the plan.[1] A lesson plan is the teacher's guide for running a particular lesson, and it includes the goal (what the students are supposed to learn), how the goal will be reached (the method, procedure) and a way of measuring how well the goal was reached (test, worksheet, homework etc.)

A lesson plan is the instructor‘s road map of what students need to learn and how it will be done effectively during the class time. Before you plan your lesson, you will first need to identify the learning objectives for the class meeting. Then, you can design appropriate learning activities and develop strategies to

obtain feedback on student learning. A successful lesson plan addresses and integrates these three key components:

1. Objectives for student learning
2. Teaching/learning activities
3. Strategies to check student understanding

56

Specifying concrete objectives for student learning will help you determine the kinds of teaching and learning activities you will use in class, while those activities will define how you will check whether the learning objectives have been accomplished

B. Steps for Preparing a Lesson Plan

Below are six steps to guide you when you create your first lesson plans. Each step is accompanied by a set of questions meant to prompt reflection and aid you in designing your teaching and learning activities.

1. Outline learning objectives

   The first step is to determine what you want students to learn and be able to do at the end of class. T86help you specify your objectives for student learning, answer the following questions:

   a. What is the topic of the lesson?
   b. What do I want students to learn?
   c. What do I want them to understand and be able to do at the end of class?
   d. What do I want them to take away from this particular lesson?

   Once you outline the learning objectives for the class meeting, rank them in terms of their importance. This step will prepare you for managing class time and

accomplishing the more important learning objectives in case you are pressed for time. Consider the following questions:

a. What are the most important concepts, ideas, or skills I want students to be able to grasp and apply?
b. Why are they important?
c. If I ran out of time, which ones could not be omitted?
d. And conversely, which ones could I skip if pressed for time?

2. Develop the introduction

Now that you have your learning objectives in order of their importance, design the specific activities you will use to get students to understand and apply what they have learned. Because you will have a diverse body of students with different academic and personal experiences, they may already be familiar with the topic. That is why you might start with a question or activity to gauge students' knowledge of the subject or possibly, their preconceived notions about it. For example, you can take a simple poll: –How many of you have heard of X? Raise your hand if you have.I You can also gather background information from your students prior to class by sending students an electronic survey or asking them to write comments on index cards. This additional information can help shape your introduction, learning activities, etc. When you have an idea of the students' familiarity with the topic, you will also have a sense of what to focus on.

Develop a creative introduction to the topic to stimulate interest and encourage thinking. You can use a variety of approaches to engage students (e.g., personal anecdote, historical event, thought-provoking dilemma, real-world example, short video clip, practical application, probing question, etc.). Consider the following questions when planning your introduction:

a. How will I check whether students know anything about the topic or have any preconceived notions about it?
b. What are some commonly held ideas (or possibly misconceptions) about this topic that students might be familiar with or might espouse?
c. What will I do to introduce the topic?

3. Plan the specific learning activities (the main body of the lesson)

Prepare several different ways of explaining the material (real-life examples, analogies, visuals, etc.) to catch the attention of more students and appeal to different learning styles. As you plan your examples and activities, estimate how much time you will spend on each. Build in time for extended explanation or discussion, but also be prepared to move on quickly to different applications or problems, and to identify strategies that check for understanding. These questions would help you design the learning activities you will use:

a. What will I do to explain the topic?
b. What will I do to illustrate the topic in a different way?
c. How can I engage students in the topic?

d. What are some relevant real-life examples, analogies, or situations that can help students understand the topic?
e. What will students need to do to help them understand the topic better

4. Plan to check for understanding

Now that you have explained the topic and illustrated it with different examples, you need to check for student understanding – how will you know that students are learning? Think about specific questions you can ask students in order to check for understanding, write them down, and then paraphrase them so that you are prepared to ask the questions in different ways. Try to predict the answers your questions will generate. Decide on whether you want students to respond orally or in writing. You can also ask yourself these questions:

a. What questions will I ask students to check for understanding?
b. What will I have students do to demonstrate that they are following?
c. Going back to my list of learning objectives, what activity can I have students do to check whether each of those has been accomplished?

An important strategy that will also help you with time management is to anticipate students' questions. When planning your lesson, decide what kinds of questions will be productive for discussion and what questions might sidetrack the class. Think about and decide on the balance between covering content (accomplishing your learning objectives) and ensuring that students understand.

5. Develop a conclusion and a preview
   Go over the material covered in class by summarizing the main points of the lesson. You can do this in a number of ways: you can state the main points yourself (—Today we talked about…‖), you can ask a student to help you summarize them, or you can even ask all students to write down on a piece of paper what they think were the main points of the lesson. You can review the students‘ answers to gauge their understanding of the topic and then explain anything unclear the following class. Conclude the lesson not only by summarizing the main points, but also by previewing the next lesson. How does the topic relate to the one that‘s coming? This preview will spur students‘ interest and help them connect the different ideas within a larger context.
6. Create a realistic timeline
   GSIs know how easy it is to run out of time and not cover all of the many points they had planned to cover. A list of ten learning objectives is not realistic, so narrow down your list to the two or three key concepts, ideas, or skills you want students to learn. Instructors also agree that they often need to adjust their lesson plan during class depending on what the students need. Your list of prioritized learning objectives will help you make decisions on the spot and adjust your lesson plan as needed. Having additional examples or alternative activities will also allow you to be flexible. A realistic timeline will reflect your flexibility and readiness to adapt to the specific classroom environment. Here are some strategies for creating a realistic timeline:

a. Estimate how much time each of the activities will take, then plan some extra time for each
b. When you prepare your lesson plan, next to each activity indicate how much time you expect it will take
c. Plan a few minutes at the end of class to answer any remaining questions and to sum up key points
d. Plan an extra activity or discussion question in case you have time left
e. Be flexible – be ready to adjust your lesson plan to students' needs and focus on what seems to be more productive rather than sticking to your original plan

7. Presenting the Lesson Plan
Letting your students know what they will be learning and doing in class will help keep them more engaged and on track. You can share your lesson plan by writing a brief agenda on the board or telling students explicitly what they will be learning and doing in class. You can outline on the board or on a handout the learning objectives for the class. Providing a meaningful organization of the class time can help students not only remember better, but also follow your presentation and understand the rationale behind in-class activities. Having a clearly visible agenda (e.g., on the board) will also help you and students stay on track.
8. Reflecting on Your Lesson Plan
A lesson plan may not work as well as you had expected due to a number of extraneous circumstances. You should not get discouraged – it happens to even the most experienced teachers! Take a

few minutes after each class to reflect on what worked well and why, and what you could have done differently. Identifying successful and less successful organization of class time and activities would make it easier to adjust to the contingencies of the classroom. For additional feedback on planning and managing class time, you can use the following resources: student feedback, peer observation, or viewing a videotape of your teaching.

To be effective, the lesson plan does not have to be an exhaustive document that describes each and every possible classroom scenario. Nor does it have to anticipate each and every student's response or question. Instead, it should provide you with a general outline of your teaching goals, learning objectives, and means to accomplish them. It is a reminder of what you want to do and how you want to do it. A productive lesson is not one in which everything goes exactly as planned, but one in which both students and instructor learn from each other.

C. Six Common Mistakes in Writing Lesson Plans (and what to do about them)

There are many maxims in education, great words of wisdom, and sincere advice from countless sources. But, without question, it is true that the very best teachers, the most effective teachers, are good planners and thinkers. The success of professional teachers doesn't "just happen." The road to success for teachers requires commitment and practice, especially of those skills involved in planning lessons and learning activities, and in managing classroom behavior. Planning lessons is a fundamental skill all teachers must

develop and hone, although implementation of this skill in actual teaching can, and usually does, take some time. Being able to develop an effective lesson plan format. In teaching students how to develop lesson plans, the following are mistakes I have observed that students make most often:

1. The objective of the lesson does not specify what the student will actually do that can be observed. Remember, an objective is a description of what a student does that forms the basis for making an inference about learning. Poorly written objectives lead to faulty inferences.
2. The lesson assessment is disconnected from the behavior indicated in the objective. An assessment in a lesson plan is simply a description of how the teacher will determine whether the objective has been accomplished. It must be based on the same behavior that is incorporated in the objective. Anything else is flawed.
3. The prerequisites are not specified or are inconsistent with what is actually required to succeed with the lesson. Prerequisites mean just that -- a statement of what a student needs to know or be able to do to succeed and accomplish the lesson objective. It is not easy to determine what is required, but it is necessary. Some research indicates that as much as 70% of learning is dependent on students having the appropriate prerequisites.
4. The materials specified in the lesson are extraneous to the actual described learning activities. This means keep the list of materials in line with what you actually plan to do. Overkilling with materials is not a virtue!

5. The instruction in which the teacher will engage is not efficient for the level of intended student learning. Efficiency is a measure that means getting more done with the same amount of effort, or the same amount with less effort. With so much to be learned, it should be obvious that instructional efficiency is paramount.
6. The student activities described in the lesson plan do not contribute in a direct and effective way to the lesson objective. Don't have your students engaged in activities just to keep them busy. Whatever you have your students do should contribute in a direct way to their accomplishing the lesson objective.

A lesson plan that contains one or more of these mistakes needs rethinking and revision. Below is a rationale and guide to help you develop effective lesson plans and avoid the six common mistakes.

How to avoid the mistakes?

The purpose of a lesson plan is really quite simple; it is to communicate. But, you might ask, communicate to whom? The answer to this question, on a practical basis, is YOU! The lesson plans you develop are to guide you in organizing your material and yourself for the purpose of helping your students achieve intended learning outcomes. Whether a lesson plan fits a particular format is not as relevant as whether or not it actually describes what you want, and what you have determined is the best means to an end. If you write a lesson plan that can be interpreted or implemented in many different ways, it is probably not a very good plan. This leads one to conclude that a key principle in creating a lesson plan is specificity. It is sort of

like saying, "almost any series of connecting roads will take you from Key West Florida to Anchorage Alaska, eventually." There is however, one and only one set of connecting roads that represents the shortest and best route. Best means that, for example, getting to Anchorage by using an unreliable car is a different problem than getting there using a brand new car. What process one uses to get to a destination depends on available resources and time. So, if you agree that the purpose of a lesson plan is to communicate, then, in order to accomplish that purpose, the plan must contain a set of elements that are descriptive of the process. Let's look at what those elements should be

D. The Lesson Plan

1. Preliminary Information

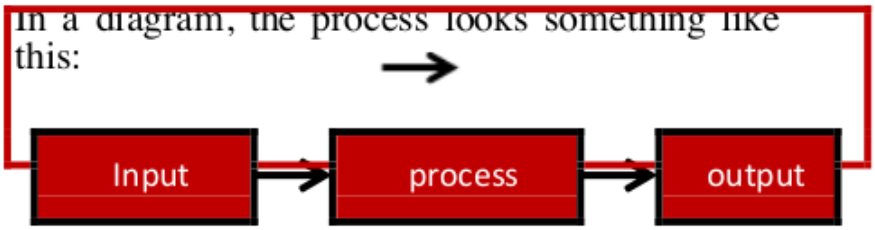
   The development of a lesson plan begins somewhere, and a good place to start is with a list or description of general information about the plan. This information sets the boundaries or limits of the plan. Here is a good list of these information items: (a) the grade level of the students for whom the plan is intended; (b) the specific subject matter (mathematics, reading, language arts, science, social studies, etc.); (c) if appropriate, the name of the unit of which the lesson is a part; and (d) the name of the teacher.

2. The Parts

   Each part of a lesson plan should fulfill some purpose in communicating the specific content, the objective, the learning prerequisites, what will happen, the sequence of student and teacher activities, the materials required, and the actual

assessment procedures. Taken together, these parts constitute an end (the objective), the means (what will happen and the student and teacher activities), and an input (information about students and necessary resources). At the conclusion of a lesson, the assessment tells the teacher how well students actually attained the objective.

In a diagram, the process looks something like this:



Let's look at each part separately.

Input

This part refers to the physical materials, other resources, and information that will be required by the process. What are these inputs? First of all, if you have thought about what the lesson is supposed to accomplish, the inputs are much easier to describe. In general categories, inputs consist of:

1. Information about the students for whom the lesson is intended. This information includes, but is not limited to the age and grade level of the students, and what they already know about what you want them to learn.
2. Information about the amount of time you estimate it will take to implement the lesson.

3. Descriptions of the materials that will be required by the lesson, and at some point, the actual possession of the materials.
4. Information about how you will acquire the physical materials required.
5. Information about how to obtain any special permissions and schedules required. For example if your lesson plan will require a field trip, you must know how to organize it. If your lesson will require a guest speaker (fire chief, lawyer, police officer, etc.) you must know how to make arrangements for having that person be at the right place at the right time.

Process

This is the actual plan. If you have done the preliminary work (thinking, describing the inputs), creating the plan is relatively easy. There are a number of questions you must answer in the creating the plan:

1. What are the inputs? This means you have the information (content description, student characteristics, list of materials, prerequisites, time estimates, etc.) necessary to begin the plan.
2. What is the output? This means a description of what the students are supposed to learn.
3. What do I do? This means a description of the instructional activities you will use.
4. What do the students do? This means a description of what the students will do during the lesson.
5. How will the learning be measured? This means a description of the assessment procedure at the end of the lesson.

As an example, here is a template that I have used successfully to teach students to write lesson plans:

Lesson Plan Format:

Teacher_____
Subject_____

Grade Level_____
Date_____

1. Content :
   This is a statement that relates to the subject-matter content. The content may be a concept or a skill. Phrase this as follows: I want my students to: (be able to [name the skill]) OR (I want my students to understand [a description of the concept]). Often times, this content is predetermined or strongly suggested by the specific curriculum you are implementing through your teaching.
3. Prerequisites: Indicate what the student must already know or be able to do in order to be successful with this lesson. (You would want to list one or two specific behaviors necessary to begin this lesson). Some research indicates that up to 70% of what a student learns is dependent on his or her possessing the appropriate prerequisites.
4. Instructional Objective : Indicate what is to be learned - this must be a complete objective. Write this objective in terms of what an individual student will do, not what a group will do. Limit your objective to one behavioral verb. The verb you choose must come from the list of defined behavioral verbs on my web

site. Make sure your objective relates to the content statement above.

5. Instructional Procedures: Description of what you will do in teaching the lesson, and, as appropriate, includes a description of how you will introduce the lesson to the students, what actual instructional techniques you will use, and how you will bring closure to the lesson. Include what specific things students will actually do during the lesson. In most cases, you will provide some sort of summary for the students.
6. Materials and Equipment : List all materials and equipment to be used by both the teacher and learner and how they will be used.
7. Assessment/Evaluation : Describe how you will determine the extent to which students have attained the instructional objective. Be sure this part is directly connected to the behavior called for in the instructional objective.
8. Follow-up Activities : Indicate how other activities/materials will be used to reinforce and extend this lesson. Include homework, assignments, and projects.
9. Self-Assessment (to be completed after the lesson is presented): Address the major components of the lesson plan, focusing on both the strengths, and areas of needed improvement. Determine here how you plan to collect information that will be useful for planning future lessons. A good idea is to analyze the difference between what you wanted (the objective) and what was attained (the results of the assessment).

Of course, there is an immense difference between being able to plan and actually being able to carry out the plan. However, if you have thought carefully about where

you are going before you begin writing your plan, the chances of your success, as well as the success of your students, are much greater.

E. Pengertian Dan Komponen RPP Kurikulum 2013

Menurut Kemdikbud RPP adalah rencana pembelajaran yang dikembangkan secara rinci dari suatu materi pokok atau tema tertentu yang mengacu pada silabus. Rencana kegiatan pembelajaran tatap muka untuk satu pertemuan atau lebih dikembangkan secara rinci dari suatu materi pokok atau tema tertentu yang mengacu pada silabus untuk mengarahkan kegiatan pembelajaran siswa dalam upaya mencapai Kompetensi Dasar (KD).

Setiap guru pada satuan pendidikan berkewajiban menyusun RPP secara lengkap dan sistematis agar pembelajaran berlangsung secara interaktif, inspiratif, menyenangkan, menantang, memotivasi peserta didik untuk berpartisipasi aktif, serta memberikan ruang yang cukup bagi prakarsa, kreativitas, dan kemandirian sesuai dengan bakat, minat, dan perkembangan fisik serta psikologis peserta didik. Seorang guru harus memperhatikan langkah-langkah penyusunan RPP. Dalam RPP Kurikulum 2013 dibagi menjadi tiga langkah besar, kegiatan pendahuluan, kegiatan inti dan kegiatan penutup.

Sebelum menyusun RPP, ada beberapa hal yang harus diketahui :

1. RPP dijabarkan dari silabus untuk mengarahkan kegiatan belajar peserta didik dalam upaya mencapai kompetensi dasar.

2. Setiap guru pada satuan pendidikan berkewajiban menyusun RPP secara lengkap dan sistematis.
3. RPP disusun untuk setiap KD yang dapat dilaksanakan dalam satu kali pertemuan atau lebih.
4. Guru merancang penggalan RPP untuk setiap pertemuan yang disesuaikan dengan penjadwalan di satuan pendidikan.

Komponen RPP Kurikulum 2013 :

1. **Identitas mata pelajaran**
   Satuan pendidikan, Kelas, Semester, Program studi, Mata pelajaran, atau tema pelajaran, Jumlah pertemuan
2. **Standar kompetensi**
   SK merupakan kualifikasi kemampuan minimal peserta didik yang menggambarkan penguasaan pengetahuan, sikap, dan keterampilan yang diharapkan dicapai pada setiap kelas dan/atau semester pada suatu mata pelajaran.
3. **Kompetensi dasar**
   Adalah sejumlah kemampuan yang harus dikuasai peserta didik dalam mata pelajaran tertentu sebagai rujukan penyusunan indikator kompetensi dalam suatu pelajaran.
4. **Indikator pencapaian kompetensi**
   Adalah perilaku yang dapat diukur dan/atau diobservasi untuk menunjukkan ketercapaian kompetensi dasar tertentu yang menjadi acuan penilaian mata pelajaran. Indikator pencapaian kompetensi dirumuskan dengan menggunakan kata kerja operasional yang dapat diamati dan diukur, yang mencakup pengetahuan, sikap, dan keterampilan.
5. **Tujuan pembelajaran**

Tujuan pembelajaran menggambarkan proses dan hasil belajar yang diharapkan dicapai oleh peserta didik sesuai dengan kompetensi dasar.

6. **Materi ajar**
   Materi ajar memuat fakta, konsep, prinsip, dan prosedur yang relevan, dan ditulis dalam bentuk butir-butir sesuai dengan rumusan indikator pencapaian kompetensi.
7. **Alokasi waktu**
   Alokasi waktu ditentukan sesuai dengan keperluan untuk pencapaian KD dan beban belajar.
8. **Metode pembelajaran**
   Metode pembelajaran digunakan oleh guru untuk mewujudkan suasana belajar dan proses pembelajaran agar peserta didik mencapai kompetensi dasar atau seperangkat indikator yang telah ditetapkan. Pemilihan metode pembelajaran disesuaikan dengan situasi dan kondisi peserta didik, serta karakteristik dari setiap indikator dan kompetensi yang hendak dicapai pada setiap mata pelajaran.
9. **Kegiatan pembelajaran**
   Untuk mencapai suatu kompetensi dasar harus dicantumkan langkah-langkah kegiatan setiap pertemuan. Pada dasarnya, langkah-langkah kegiatan memuat unsur kegiatan Pendahuluan/pembuka, Kegiatan inti terdiri atas, eksplorasi, elaborasi, dan konfirmasi, Kegiatan penutup.

10. **Penilaian hasil belajar**
    Prosedur dan instrumen penilaian proses dan hasil belajar disesuaikan dengan indikator pencapaian kompetensi dan mengacu kepada Standar Penilaian.

11. **Sumber belajar**

Penentuan sumber belajar didasarkan pada standar kompetensi dan kompetensi dasar, serta materi ajar, kegiatan pembelajaran, dan indikator pencapaian kompetensi.

F. 11 Komponen RPP Lengkap SD/SMP/SMA/SMK



Dalam membuat dan mempersiapkan RPP untuk sekolah dasar dan menengah kita haruslah mengacu pada peraturan yang ada dan telah di legitimasi oleh pihak yang berwewenang dalam hal ini pemerintah. Berdasar ***PERMENDIKNAS NOMOR 41 TAHUN 2007 Tentang STANDAR PROSES UNTUK SATUAN PENDIDIKAN DASAR DAN MENENGAH***, RPP yang di buat oleh guru harus memenuhi 11 komponen RPP dan Prinsip-prinsip penyusunannya. RPP dijabarkan dari silabus untuk mengarahkan kegiatan belajar peserta didik dalam upaya mencapai KD. Setiap guru pada satuan pendidikan berkewajiban menyusun RPP secara lengkap dan sistematis agar pembelajaran berlangsung

secara interaktif, inspiratif, menyenangkan, menantang, memotivasi peserta didik untuk berpartisipasi aktif, serta memberikan ruang yang cukup bagi prakarsa, kreativitas, dan kemandirian sesuai dengan bakat, minat, dan perkembangan fisik serta psikologis peserta didik.

RPP disusun untuk setiap KD yang dapat dilaksanakan dalam satu kali pertemuan atau lebih. Guru merancang penggalan RPP untuk setiap pertemuan yang disesuaikan dengan penjadwalan di satuan pendidikan.

Komponen RPP adalah :

1. Identitas mata pelajaran ; Identitas mata pelajaran, meliputi: satuan pendidikan, kelas, semester, program/program keahlian, mata pelajaran atau tema pelajaran, jumlah pertemuan.
2. Standar kompetensi ; Standar kompetensi merupakan kualifikasi kemampuan minimal peserta didik yang menggambarkan penguasaan pengetahuan, sikap, dan keterampilan yang diharapkan dicapai pada setiap kelas dan/atau semester pada suatu mata pelajaran.
3. Kompetensi dasar ; Kompetensi dasar adalah sejumlah kemampuan yang harus dikuasai pesertadidik dalam mata pelajaran tertentu sebagai rujukan penyusunan indikator kompetensi dalam suatu pelajaran.
4. Indikator pencapaian kompetensi ; Indikator kompetensi adalah perilaku yang dapat diukur dan/atau diobservasi untuk menunjukkan ketercapaian kompetensi dasar tertentu yang menjadi acuan penilaian mata pelajaran. Indikator pencapaian kompetensi dirumuskan dengan

menggunakan kata kerja operasional yang dapat diamati dan diukur, yang mencakup pengetahuan, sikap, dan keterampilan.

5. Tujuan pembelajaran ; Tujuan pembelajaran menggambarkan proses dan hasil belajar yang diharapkandicapai oleh peserta didik sesuai dengan kompetensi dasar.
6. Materi ajar ; Materi ajar memuat fakta, konsep, prinsip, dan prosedur yang relevan, dan ditulis dalam bentuk butir-butir sesuai dengan rumusan indikator pencapaian kompetensi.
7. Alokasi waktu ; Alokasi waktu ditentukan sesuai dengan keperluan untuk pencapaian KD dan beban belajar.
8. Metode pembelajaran ; Metode pembelajaran digunakan oleh guru untuk mewujudkan suasana belajar dan proses pembelajaran agar peserta didik mencapai kompetensi dasar atau seperangkat indikator yang telah ditetapkan. Pemilihan metode pembelajaran disesuaikan dengan situasi dan kondisi peserta didik, serta karakteristik dari setiap indikator dan kompetensi yang hendak dicapai pada setiap mata pelajaran. Pendekatan pembelajaran tematik digunakan untuk peserta didik kelas 1 sampai kelas 3 SD/MI.
9. Kegiatan pembelajaran
    a. Pendahuluan ; Pendahuluan merupakan kegiatan awal dalam suatu pertemuan pembelajaran yang ditujukan untuk membangkitkan motivasi dan memfokuskan perhatian peserta didik untuk berpartisipasi aktif dalam proses pembelajaran.

b. Inti ; Kegiatan inti merupakan proses pembelajaran untuk mencapai KD. Kegiatan pembelajaran dilakukan secara interaktif, inspiratif, menyenangkan, menantang, memotivasi peserta didik untuk berpartisipasi aktif, serta memberikan ruang yang cukup bagi prakarsa, kreativitas, dan kemandirian sesuai dengan bakat, minat, dan perkembangan fisik serta psikologis peserta didik. Kegiatan ini dilakukan secara sistematis dan sistemik melalui proses eksplorasi, elaborasi, dan konfirmasi.

c. Penutup ; Penutup merupakan kegiatan yang dilakukan untuk mengakhiri aktivitas pembelajaran yang dapat dilakukan dalam bentuk rangkuman atau kesimpulan, penilaian dan refleksi, umpan balik, dan tindak lanjut.

10. Penilaian hasil belajar ; Prosedur dan instrumen penilaian proses dan hasil belajar disesuaikan dengan indikator pencapaian kompetensi dan mengacu kepada Standar Penilaian.
11. Sumber belajar ; Penentuan sumber belajar didasarkan pada standar kompetensi dan kompetensi dasar, serta materi ajar, kegiatan pembelajaran, dan indikator pencapaian kom petensi.

G. Prinsip-prinsip Penyusunan RPP

1. Memperhatikan perbedaan individu peserta didik; RPP disusun dengan memperhatikan perbedaan jenis kelamin, kemampuan awal, tingkat intelektual, minat, motivasi belajar, bakat, potensi, kemampuan sosial, emosi, gaya belajar, kebutuhan

khusus, kecepatan belajar, latar belakang budaya, norma, nilai, dan/atau lingkungan peserta didik.

2. Mendorong partisipasi aktif peserta didik; Proses pembelajaran dirancang dengan berpusat pada peserta didik untuk mendorong motivasi, minat, kreativitas, inisiatif, inspirasi, kemandirian, dan semangat belajar.
3. Mengembangkan budaya membaca dan menulis; Proses pembelajaran dirancang untuk mengembangkan kegemaran membaca, pemahaman beragam bacaan, dan berekspresi dalam berbagai bentuk tulisan.
4. Memberikan umpan balik dan tindak lanjut; RPP memuat rancangan program pemberian umpan balik positif, penguatan, pengayaan, dan remedial.
5. Keterkaitan dan keterpaduan; RPP disusun dengan memperhatikan keterkaitan dan keterpaduan antara SK, KD, materi pembelajaran, kegiatan pembelajaran, indikator pencapaian kompetensi, penilaian, dan sumber belajar dalam satu keutuhan pengalaman belajar. RPP disusun dengan mengakomodasikan pembelajaran tematik, keterpaduan lintas mata pelajaran, lintas aspek belajar, dan keragaman budaya.
6. Menerapkan teknologi informasi dan komunikasi; RPP disusun dengan mempertimbangkan penerapan teknologi informasi dan komunikasi secara terintegrasi, sistematis, dan efektif sesuai dengan situasi dan kondisi.

Part Two
Implementing The Knowledge to Classroom Activities

85 Chapter 1
Seating Arrangement

Seating arrangements are very important to the classroom for interaction, atmosphere, and behavior. It is easy to take seating for granted, or only see the partial benefits it provides, but proper seating can be a useful tool to accomplish class objectives. There are three styles that are commonly used in the classroom: traditional rows, U-shaped, and cluster (groups/pairs). Each has their own pros and cons, and each should be weighed carefully to meet the objectives of the lesson and the style of the educator.

Keep in mind, there are other factors involved the educator may not have control over. For example, if the classroom is small, then the options for seating may be limited. Or the ―desks‖ available in the classroom may not be the traditional desk, but a large table to accommodate multiple students.

1. Traditional Rows

Traditional rows are very well known because almost every teacher grew up sitting in this style of seating. Similar to a military type of approach where students were lined up rank and file, it still continues today in

countless schools across the world.



a. Interaction

This style is to direct focus on the teacher and isolate students so they can focus on what is being taught. The focus is not on having students interact, but if interaction does occur and it's not approved by the educator, it can easily be noticed and thwarted. However, when student to student interaction is warranted, the choices are to have one student turn around to another in the same line- which is not comfortable for the student turning around; or have the students turn their desk facing the row next to them.

The interaction with traditional rows is usually between the educator and student in the form of the student listening and raising his hand to answer the educator's question.

b. Atmosphere

The atmosphere this creates is a military controlled environment. Students consciously or subconsciously understand that interaction is not encouraged as they can only view the students on their sides and the back of the student in front. Students are isolated in an undefined area which makes the atmosphere in the classroom controlled in the sense that everyone's attention is directed to

the front. It is quite restrictive and the students have little opportunity to participate or take control of their learning.

c. Behavior

This type of seating arrangement does nothing to encourage proper behavior. Students easily become disengaged and most will find ways to entertain themselves. In this style, students in the mid to back rows can easily blend into the background by hiding behind the person in front. This allows the student to doodle, write notes, or even attempt conversations when they think it is safe.

A way to keep students with behavioral problems in line is to place them in front, but if there are a large number of students with behavioral problems, then putting them all together in a general area can quickly cause problems. If there are a couple students who cause most of the trouble and a few who cause occasional trouble, then it might be best to place the worst offenders in front of the class where the educator‘s presence can curtail some of the problems. The other students who sometimes cause problems can be spread across the class and buffered by students who don‘t cause problems.

d. Traditional Rows Pros

- It encourages focus on the educator and content
- Good for teacher centered classes
- Easy to implement with large classes
- Students with behavioral problems can be placed in front to control behavior

e. Traditional Rows Cons

- Creates an atmosphere where the educator is the most important feature and students are secondary participants
- Students can easily become disengaged during the lesson
- Discourages interpersonal communication
- Not easy to observe students in the mid to back rows
- Not productive for classes built around conversation and interaction
- Not easy for the educator to move amongst the students

2. U-Shape



The U-Shape method of seating came into being and necessary when instruction moved from teacher centered to student centered classrooms. Although the date is not absolutely known, it has its roots in cooperative learning and is recognized as a seating upgrade to traditional rows in classes seeking to involve students more in the learning process.

Space and class size are major concerns for this style of seating. If the class size is over twenty, then the room needs to be fairly large to accommodate the U-shape. Also, more students create a larger U-shape that starts defeating the purpose as students move farther away from the board and educator. For larger classes, instead of one big _U,‘ educators can create multiple smaller –U‘s‘ of five or six students.

Again, U-shape depends on the type of class, classroom size, and number of students. It may take some old fashion ingenuity to make it work.

a. Interaction

   Interaction is greatly facilitated in this seating arrangement. All students are now in direct eye contact of the educator and fellow students, thus allowing for a more natural construct in which to communicate as an entire unit. Students are naturally engage as they feel part of a larger group instead of just a single speck within a large frame. Also, the educator can occupy the center of the group to do experiments or demonstrations so students can easily see and be engaged by the lesson. Another benefit to this arrangement, the teacher can use a talking instrument, such as a stick, and pass it around the group and have the student holding the item talk. This gives everyone an opportunity to speak and really encourages the others to listen as they are looking eye to eye with the speaker. Psychologically, it is easier for a listener to tune out if they can‘t see the person that is speaking; this arrangement encourages listening as the listener may not want to be perceived as rude.

b. Atmosphere

Whereas the tradition row was isolating, this arrangement is more welcoming to become part of a greater whole. Connecting with the educator and other students is greatly increased, which in turn, can greatly facilitate interaction and discussion amongst the students. In a way, it promotes togetherness and really helps students engage in the roles of speaker and listener. The student is able to move into the role of participant and take control of his learning and participation.

This arrangement can also provide a positive environment and reassurance for expressing ideas. It is natural to shake one's head in agreement when hearing something that one shares the same view; therefore, when a student opens up to express himself, this natural agreement can become encouragement for the student to share more of his thoughts. In this way, the set up becomes an enabler to students who may otherwise stay quiet.

c. Behavior

For the educator who has to deal with behavioral problems, this can be a great arrangement to control students. Now, students don't only have to be concerned with the educator seeing them, but now the whole class can see them. Having to be a responsible member of the group can be enough to curtail most problems students usually cause. Also, students are in sense pressured to be engaged for the same reason. On the other hand, this normally works well with older students who have a sense of responsibility. Putting a class of five year olds in the U-shaped arrangement and expecting it to help with

behavioral problems is destined to fail as it will cause more problems. Students at that age don‘t have a sense of responsibility or understand peer pressure to conform to the group.

d. Strategy
One strategy the educator can utilize to increase student participation and discussion is sitting down. If the educator stands up, then the educator can be seen as dominant and the focus of the students will be to listen. By sitting down, the educator and students reside at an equal level which can be seen by the students as having an equivalent role in providing information . This is purely a psychological construct that can make a huge difference in participation and discussion.

e. U-Shaped Seating Pros
- Encourages discussion and interaction
- Easy to observe students and provide one on one help if needed
- Creates a connection with the educator and other students
- Creates a small community in which to learn
- Assists in engaging students to learn
- Can be an enabler to students to participate
- Helps control some students with behavioral problems

f. U-Shaped Seating Cons
- Shy students may feel anxiety being part of one large group
- Some students don‘t want to talk with many eyes upon them from all directions

- Cannot be used with all ages to control behavior
- If the class is not a talkative group, the silence of many can discourage the speaking of a few. No seating arrangement can force a class to talk that doesn‘t want to talk.
- Classroom size and number of students can thwart the usefulness of this arrangement

3. Cluster Seating

Cluster seating is when the educator places the students either in groups or pairs. Along with U-shaped seating, this became a preferred arrangement of students that promoted cooperative learning. This concept is very simple as the students usually work as a group to do some work or assignment with the belief that the contribution of many allows a more complete product, since each can contribute something the others don‘t know.



This seating arrangement can be implemented in small and large classes. A classroom set up in traditional rows can quickly be changed to cluster seating. The versatility of this arrangement is magnified as educators can have students work in pairs, and in the matter of seconds, have students form larger groups.

In addition to this, each group can be assigned a higher level student who can help instruct lower level students during activities or projects. Since the educator can‘t be with every group, an assistant teacher in each group can be more beneficial for the class as a whole. Therefore, the educator just has to oversee the groups. Of course, this is not explained to the class, but kept secret as not to have students feel inferior to other students.

a. Interaction

Interaction with cluster seating is a little different than with U-shaped seating. In U-shaped seating the students participate as part of a large community, with cluster seating, students listen to instruction as in traditional row seating, but operate within a small community. This can be beneficial to shy students or students who wish not to talk in a larger group. Also, the smaller group allows students an opportunity to formulate beliefs, receive feedback in a relatively safe confine of a few, and practice voicing their thoughts before opening up to the whole class. In this way, interaction can first be within a smaller safe area before moving to the larger arena.

In small groups, the interaction can be more authentic as it is far more personal with a few students than expressing an idea in front of many and having the constraints of group dynamics. This safety encourages more interaction from shy students who may never be active in a larger group setting.

Another great feature of cluster seating a class is the teacher mobility amongst the students to observe or assess work. The maneuverability is great for larger classes.

b. Atmosphere

The atmosphere in a cluster class is like that of countries inside a continent. Students feel a part of a larger group, but are mainly responsible to the main group they occupy. The atmosphere in the classroom provides safety for students via the groups they are within. This allows students to be free to make more mistakes, venture to unknown concepts, and even receive help from others more knowledgeable without the feeling of shame. It‘s an atmosphere that can create opportunities for safe learning.

c. Behavior

Behavior can be an issue with cluster seating. Whereas, U-shaped seating allows the eyes of many to control the behavior of one, the isolated small group of a larger class doesn‘t afford the same benefits. Students with behavioral problems may feel immune from the small group expectations and believe they can hide their actions from the larger group easily. So the social pressure is not there. On the other hand, responsible students may take control and force the student with behavioral issues to conform.

A strategy for controlling students with behavioral problems is to sit them in the center of the room. Depending on the size of the class room and the number of groups, it is best to place those students near the middle where the educator‘s

attention is mostly focused. Do not place the students on the left or right in the front, as this is the most overlooked place by teachers. Have the students feel they are in the visual field of the educator at all times.

For younger students, boys are normally more active and cause more problems than girls. Having the students sit beside the opposite gender will usually control most problems, but it's never a sure fire way to control students. If there are two educators in the class, one can be at the board while the other is walking amongst the students. The educator's presence is enough to stop most behavioral issues.

Another strategy, regardless of age, is to assign a group leader and make them responsible for the group. Most of the time, assigning power to one student forces the student with behavioral problems to recognize them as an authority and listen.

d. Cluster Seating Pros

- The small group creates a safe area for students to interact
- Allows for feedback from other students before expressing ideas to the larger group
- Creates a more personal experience for interaction
- Shared knowledge on group work increases individual knowledge
- Student behavior can be monitored much easier
- Can have assistant teachers in the form of students to boost group performance

- Can easily access or monitor student work

e. Cluster Seating Cons
   - Some students may only copy work and are not engaged in learning
   - Students rely on the strongest student to interact with the class
   - Placing students in groups doesn‘t mean they will work as a group
   - Educator may not be able to fully assess each student‘s ability
   - Students can easily avert attention away from listening to the instructor or other students

Which seating arrangement an educator should use is largely based on many factors. Some are not in the educators control such as classroom size, classroom furniture or number of students. However, aspects that are within the educator‘s control are objectives and the type of class the educators wants to create.

Traditional Row Seating: This seating arrangement is best for educators who want the more traditional teacher centered approach. Where the students are not asked to participate, but to listen and learn. It‘s also a good method for the educator who adopts the mantra they only care about the students who want to learn, and those who don‘t, sit in the back and be quiet. It‘s also the best way to administer tests to curtail cheating.

U-Shaped Seating: This is best used for educators who want to create a large community in the classroom and have interaction and discussions on a large scale. Another benefit is it really encourages students to listen as they are present to everyone in the group. Also, the educator who wants to

connect with students should consider this seating. This is better with older students who have a sense of social obligation.

Cluster Seating: Cluster seating is for the educators who want to create small safe areas within the larger structure of a classroom to encourage all to speak. It benefits cooperative learning on the group level and the class level. Many activities from exercises, presentations, discussions, games, etc… can be conducted in class with ease. Another function is the educator can secretly arrange groups to have higher level students help instruct lower level students.

Choose seating arrangements wisely, as it can help the class reach its objectives and take the students to new levels. Seating can help the management of students and activities, freeing the teacher for assessment and providing more responsibility for self learning. Also, there is no rule against using all three in one class. The educator can easily change in and out of seating arrangements as needed. The real power is knowing which seating arrangements will facilitate student learning and when to use it.

Classroom Layouts:

Seating Arrangements for Effective Learning

Every teacher likes to arrange their classroom layout for the largest student benefit. Students need to focus and see what is going on in the classroom at any given time. Their seating arrangement can help or hinder a students learning. Although no perfect arrangement exists for all situations, a classrooms layout may need to change based on what a student needs are and how the class material is being presented.

It is important for an instructor to establish a classroom structure from the very first session and adapt accordingly to facilitate lectures, promote discussions, encourage group activities, or solve any behavioral problems. Keeping a classroom motivated and in order is more than trying different teaching styles and methods. By simply rearranging how the desks in the room are setup, you can not only get better control of your class but create an open and friendly classroom environment.

There are generally three overall classroom desk arrangement layouts with slight variations to each to accommodate different size rooms, number of students in the class and also assist in the classes function:

1. Traditional Classroom (Large or Small)
2. U-Shaped Layout
3. Circle or Half Circle Arrangements

Each layout has a different purpose and may require an adjustment to teaching method and classroom control. It will be up to the instructor to decide which layout works best for them and their students.

1. Traditional Classroom

   In a tradional class all the desks are facing the chalkboard and teachers desk. This classroom layout is very effective if your lesson often uses projectors, slides and a chalkboard. The layout is suitable for teacher centered classes such as lectures, it encourages focus on the educator and content and is easy to implement with large classes.

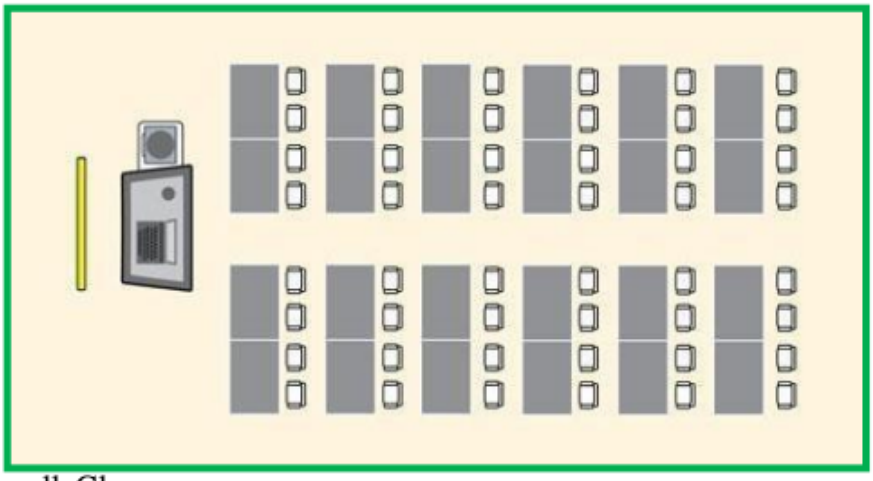
   The problem with this layout is that the teacher is very far away from students sitting in the back rows. Students sitting in the last rows are more likely to be

distracted, lose focus and converse with others. Students can easily become disengaged during the lesson. This layout is not useful for classes designed for conversation and interaction and not easy for the instructor to observe students in the mid and back rows.

a. Large Classroom

Advantages: Rows of tables with chairs face the front of a room and each person has a space for writing or using a computer. This set-up lends itself to Q&A session with the facilitator rather than interactive discussion between participants. Disadvantages: Hard for instructor to move into the audience, separating him/her from the students. Student participation seems to drop off towards the back of the room unless sound reinforcement is used. Action Zone: At the front of the room. Students are focused on the instructor. Group Involvement: Medium. Allows one way interaction back and forth between instructor and audience or between the trainer and an individual in the group. Seating: Similar to a school arrangement with participants seated behind a row of desks or tables. Tables: Arranged in rows, either butted together side by side or standing alone.

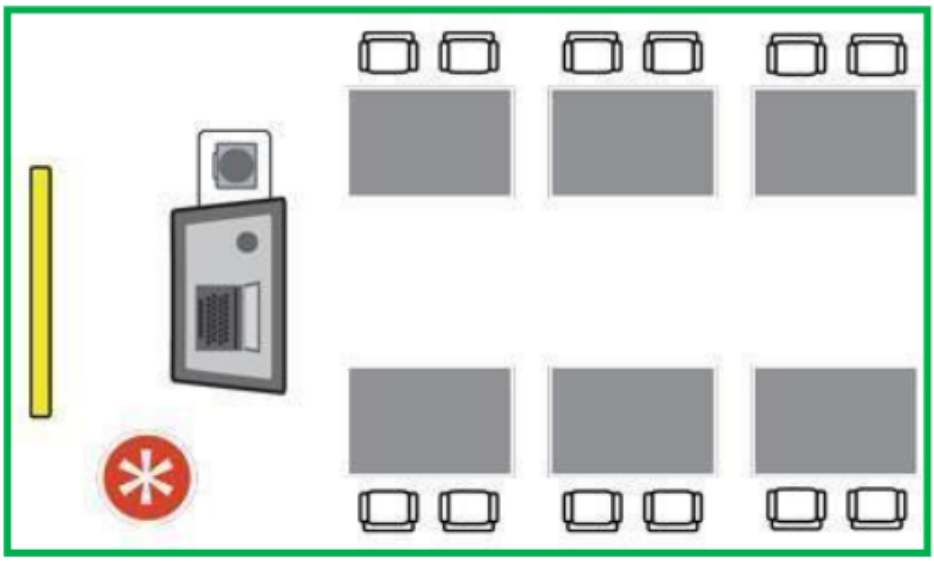




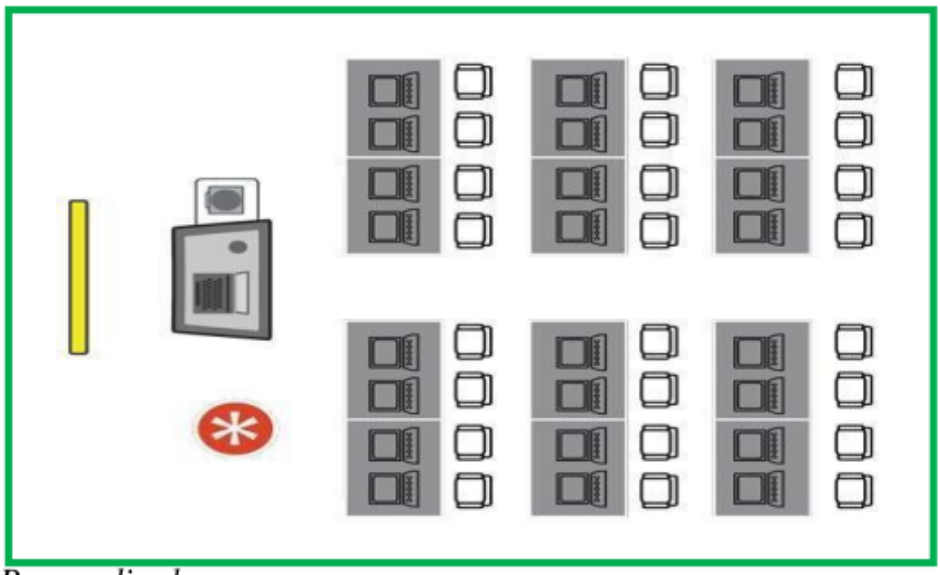
b. Small Classroom
Advantages: Every participant has a good view of the front of the room. This allows the instructor a great deal of control over the students. Provides surface for note taking or reference materials. Disadvantages: Hard for instructor to move into the audience, separating him/her from the students. Student participation seems to drop off towards the back of the room unless sound reinforcement is used.

Variations of Small Classroom

Perpendicular: Tables are arranged in long rows perpendicular to the trainer's table. The edge of the first table should be 6 feet away from the trainer's table and a large corridor should be left in the middle to allow for group participation. Having the desks split into two groups facing each other is a very effective arrangement for class discussions and debates. The teacher can also walk in between the two groups allowing to see every student and include them in conversations. Computer Based Training: The classroom set up is commonly used for computers. This can create problems with wires due to the tables being separated. Ideally, power should be supplied near every table. Wire management is a necessity with this set up to safely conceal wires around the work areas.



Computer Based Training



Perpendicular

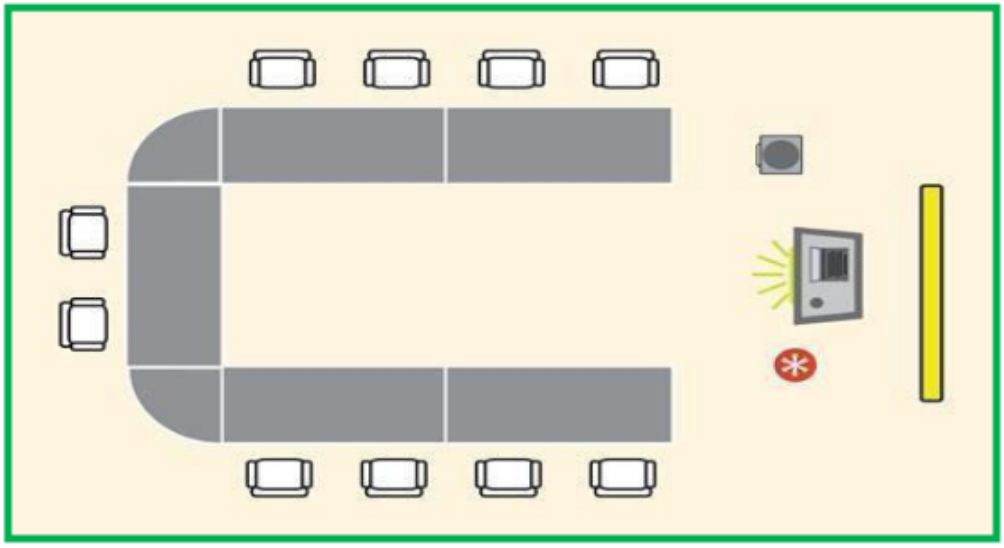
2. U-Shaped Layout

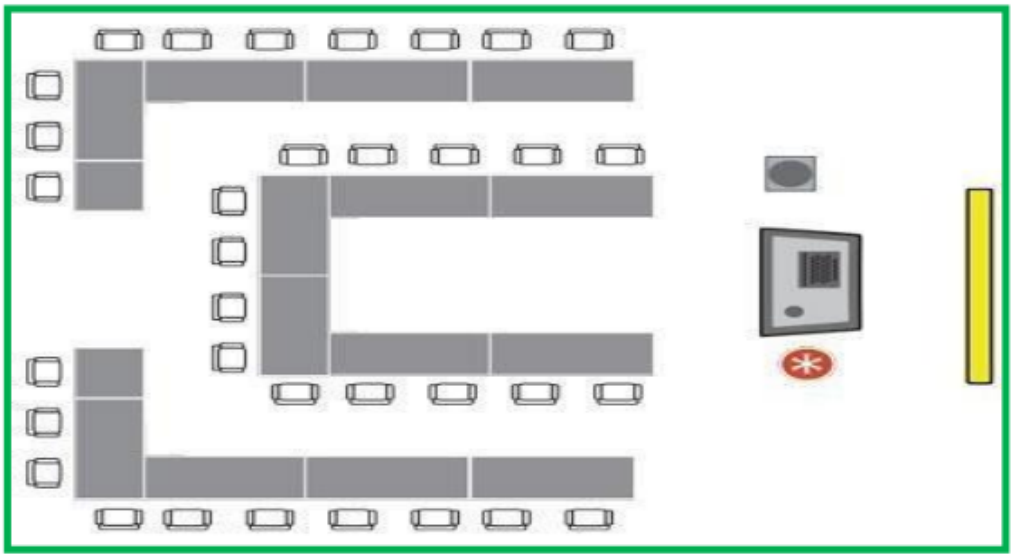
For smaller classes that want more interaction between the student and educator, a U-Shaped layout is a better option. A U-Shaped desk arrangement encourages discussion and makes it easy for the teacher to observe students and provide one on one help. Classroom size and number of students can make it difficult to use, for you may not be able to fit a U-Shape pattern in a small room with a large number of students. The layout spreads children out considerably so that it can be hard to address them all and makes group work harder because the desks can‘t easily be moved around. Advantages: Easy to see and hear everyone in the group. Front of room commands the group‘s attention. Unity is created by ganging all the tables together. Openness gives trainees a sense of freedom and encourages participation. Best set up to

view audio visual presentations. Works well with role-playing and other physical activities. Disadvantages: Requires more space than any other configuration. Due to space and learning requirements, the maximum amount of participants should not exceed 24. Action Zone: Center and at the open end of the –U‖. Group Involvement: High. Creates a sense of equality within the group. Tables: Rectangular tables set in a –U‘ configuration. Pie shapes are commonly used at the corners to complete the shape and eliminate the hard edges. Trainer‘s table is at the opening of the –U‖. Accommodates AV: Yes. This configuration is one of the best for visual displays and multimedia presentations. Equipment set at open end of –U‖.



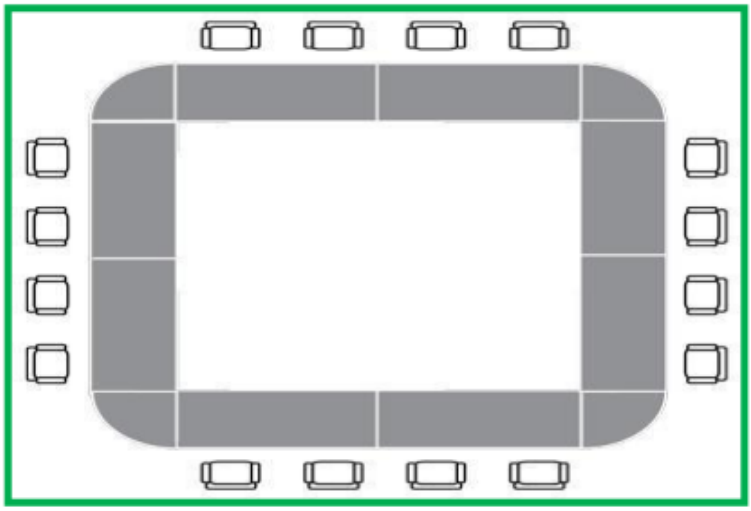
Variations of U-Shaped





Double –U‖: Allows trainer to seat more people than single –U‘ set up. Limits discussions between the group. Best used when the outside group is observing the discussions or activities of the inside group. –U‖ Computer Training: Allows wires to run under the tables easily. This set up also

allows the instructor to monitor student's work easily while speaking to the class.



3. Circle or Half Circle Arrangements

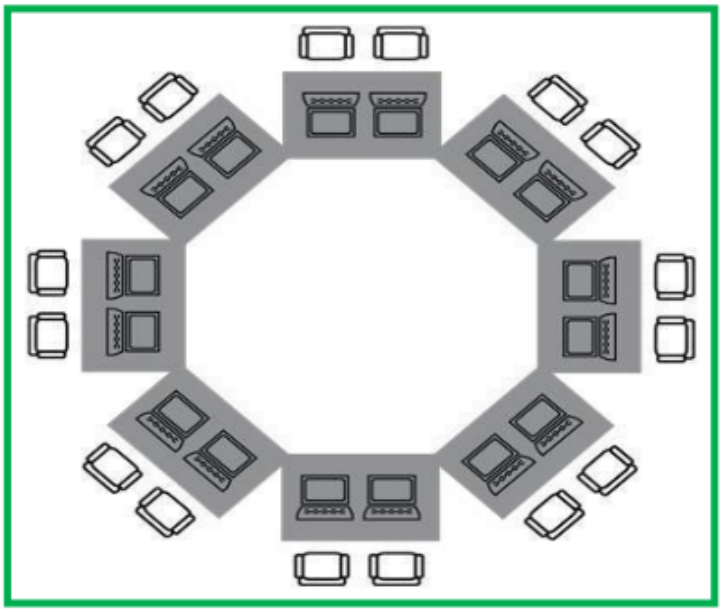
Desks or chairs arranged in a circle or half circle promote community and encourage all students to participate. Everyone sits in the front row. It also allows the instructor to see everyone from an equal distance and communicate easier with students.

Advantages: Involves everyone in the group. There is no table in the middle, therefore people are unobstructed and can speak directly to each other. Creates equality among the group, with no designated ―leader‖ position. Disadvantages: Some people feel uncomfortable or exposed in this type of arrangement. Can only handle small groups of people. Not conducive to visual aids or AV presentations. Action Zone: Center of the circle. Group Involvement: High. Aims to involve all participants in group interaction. Seating: Chairs arranged in complete circle. Tables: None in this configuration. Maximum # of people:

No more than 20 participants. Accommodates AV: No. Not conducive for AV presentations, used primarily for group discussions. Cannot place a visual aid in an area that can be viewed by everyone.

Variations with Circle of Chairs

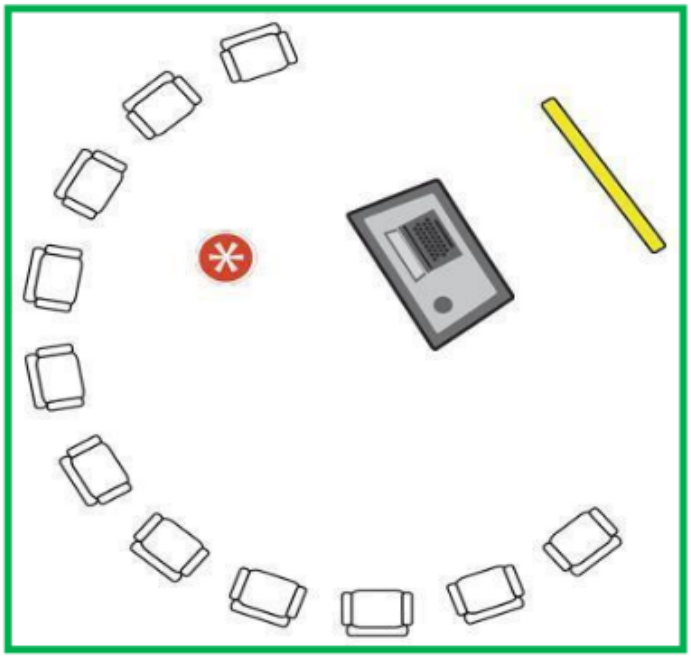




Circle and Table: Combines informal, open characteristics of a circle, yet gives trainees a table for books and note taking. The table may also remove the sense of vulnerability.

Broken Circle: Possesses all of the advantages of the circle but allows visual aids to be used effectively. Also identifies a leader position to pressure involvement of participants if needed.

Designing a seating arrangement is an essential part of any teachers toolkit and managing behavior is necessary for effective learning to take place. A classrooms arrangement finally comes down to what will the student learn, how will the student learn it and that should then guide in the organization of the room.



Chapter 2
Teaching media

A. Types of instructional media

1. TEXT MEDIA

Text media is consists of alphanumeric letter and characters either printed onpapers, books, or projected from a computer screen. It is the most commonly used media in most classrooms today.

Types of text media:

- PrintedBooks,
- brochures,
- newspapers,

manuals:

- Displayed Bulletin boards,
- Flipcharts

Projected :

- Texts projected by LCD or overhead projectors
- Digital E-books, E-zines, E-journals

2. AUDIO MEDIA

Audio media refers to the various means that can make human voiceand other sounds into more powerful forms of information,communication, and education. Its type ranges from the traditional vinylrecords and cassette tapes to digital ones like

compact discs andportable media players. The use of audio media can stimulate students learning and may serveas motivation for them. From the content areas like Math and Scienceto the musically-inclined subjects like MAPEH, audio media has a greatapplication.

3. **VISUAL MEDIA**

Most of us are visual people. We learn and remember things through pictures or images. Visual media has agreat contribution to our learning. Our mind processesmessages as images rather than as audio or texts.A person should be visually literate in order to criticallyevaluate, examine, and efficiently use various visualrepresentations around him. A visually literate personfinds and accesses needed images efficiently. He canalso evaluate the appropriateness and reliability of theimage before using it. Furthermore, he can also make andcreate his own visual design.

4. **MOTION MEDIA**

As the name connotes, it is MEDIA IN MOTION.It combines motion, color, and sound in ways that can showideas better than any other medium. Videos are example of this kind of media.

Advantages of using motion media in the classroom are as folllows:

1. Motion is the best media in portraying concepts that includemotion. (E.g. The division of cells)

2. Steps and procedures can be shown more effectively.
3. It provides risk-free observation. Phenomena that might be dangerous when view directly, like volcaniceruption, can be shown in videos without causing anyhazardous effect.
4. It can also bring affective impact to students.

5. PEOPLE MEDIA

This media has two types: People as media and People inmedia. The former is the use of people as a medium by utilizing thepeople themselves to transfer information while the latter pertains tothe people working in mass media. Examples of people as mediaare teachers, students, administration, resource speakers, etc. People in media include the editorial board, tv and radio people, etc.

6. MANIPULATIVE MEDIA

Physical objects that are used as teaching tools toengage students in the hands-on learning of different subjects. (such as markers, toothpicks, or coins) provide visiblemodels that help students solve problems and developconcepts. Enables students to explore concepts at the first, or concrete,level of understanding. Using concrete manipulatives is the first step to using mentalimages and models. Students can easily remember the lesson through images bythe use if manipulatives.

Math Children must have the opportunity to gain theknowledge and attitudes needed to

become lifelonglearners of mathematics. To achieve this goal, educatorsare concerned that more time be spent on understanding math concepts with the help of manipulatives and less on how to do paper-and-pencil computations. The implementation of this trend is beginning in theearly elementary grades.

English/FilipinoAuditory discrimination and phonics manipulatives incorporate text with vibrant graphicsand are useful for teaching English vocabulary. Decoding manipulatives offer abundant practice applying rules as students learn Englishwords and structure. Scrambled sentences teach English syntax as they foster reading comprehension andfluency. Students who have difficulty learning due to language barriers, auditory deficiencies, or behavioral issues have a much easier time stay engaged and on task when manipulativemodels are introduced.

Science:

To demonstrate Newton's First Law of Motion, students calculate average speed basedon their observations of a rolling marble. Answers will vary depending on the distance andspeed at which the marbles roll. Using a ball and bat, students can observe Newton's Second Law of Motion by increasingthe force of their swings to make the ball travel faster and farther. The concept of inertia becomes visible when students stack four or five dominoes anduse a ruler to knock the bottom domino out repeatedly until there is only one left. A creative science teacher can

demonstrate any number of scientific theories by havingstudents bring in such things as soap, miniature toy cars, balance scales, toothpicks, modelingclay, rope, and coins.

Social Studies/MAPEH:
Geography – use of globe to find the absolute and relative location of a certain place Music – use of musical instruments

7. **MULTIMEDIA**
Multimedia is a combination of many forms of media. It may be audio and text. motion, audio and text,manipulatives and audio, and more.The use of multimedia is very interesting and engaging. It also provides multi-sensorial approach toteaching. Students with different modes of learning benefit in using multimedia in the classrooms.

B. Kinds of Instructional Media

Learning and teaching a foreign language needs a lot of patience, energy, time, creativity and competence. The success of the teaching and learning of foreign language skills including English is determined by a number of factors both linguistic and non linguistic such as the students, the teacher, the methods, material and media or aids used. English teaching media are very important to help students acquire new concepts of, the skills and language competences. They are many kinds of media which can be used by the teachers in the teaching learning process, but the teacher should be selective when choosing. This paper discusses about Kinds of

Instructional Media For Teaching English. This case followed their picture, definition and how to use in English teaching.

1. CHARTS

A chart is a combination of pictorial, graphic, numerical or vertical material which presents a clear visual summary. Edgar Dale defines charts as, –a visual symbol summarizing or comparing or contrasting or performing other helpful services in explaining subject-matter‖. The main function of the chart is always to show relationships such as comparisons, relative amounts, developments, processes, classification and organization.

Uses of charts:

1. Motivates the students
2. Shows continuity in the process
3. Shows relationships by means of facts, figures and statistics
4. Presents matter symbolically
5. Presents abstract ideas in visual form
6. Summarizes information
7. Shows the development of structures
8. Creates problems and stimulates thinking
9. Encourages utilization of other media of communication

2. POSTERS

S.L.Ahulwalia‘s view: –A poster is a pictorial device designed to attract attention and communicate a story, a fact, an idea, or an image rapidly and clearly.‖ Good‘s Dictionary of Education: A poster is a

–placard, usually pictorial or decorative, utilizing an emotional appeal to convey a message aimed at reinforcing an attitude or urging a course of action‖.

The poster can be defined as a graphic representation of some strong emotional appeal that is carried through a combination of graphic aids like pictures, cartoons lettering and other visual arts on a placard. It aims for conveying the specific message, teaching a particular thing, giving a general idea etc. Posters exert a great influence on the observer.

How to use posters. Posters are very useful in students‘ project work. Divide the class into groups and each group can decide what message their post is going to have. The completed posters, together with the students‘ other project work, such as reports and maps, can then be displayed around the school.

3. FLASHCARD

Flashcards are small cards with a picture or symbol on them used both in teaching and in development work. In the classroom, flashcards are commonly used to teach reading. A picture, for example, of an elephant may be drawn or stuck on a card and the word ‗elephant‘ written underneath it or on a different card. The students are encouraged to associate the pictures and the words through various ‗look and say‘ activities and games, for example, Kim‘s game, Pairs, and so on. In teaching and development work, flashcards may have pictures symbols drawn or painted on them. They are particularly useful for stimulating discussion in small groups, as well as for sharing information and reminding people of a recommended

process with posters, research the local situation and pre-test them.

How to use flashcards

To use flashcards in a classroom situation, such as learning to read show the picture and the word together. Ask students to look at the picture and say the word. Then they look at the word and say it again. After presenting a number of words with pictures that the students already know, ask for volunteers to come out and match pictures and words. When the students have learnt to read the words, you can divide them into teams and play reading games using the flashcards.

4. GRAPHS

Graph is defined as a visual representation of numerical data. Graph is fundamentally a tool for expressing number relationships, which is much easier to visualize than can be done if the statement were made only in words and figures. It offers a judicious technique for analyzing, comparing and prophesying of facts which are vital to an intelligent study of a problem.

Uses of Graphs

a. Awareness:
   The teacher should be well aware of the method of drawing of graph in a neat and accurate manner.
b. Neatness:
   The graph should be neat, clean and artistic. It should be of good quality.
c. Accuracy:

The scales and the measurement of the graph should be accurate and intelligible to the students.

d. Drawing and paper: The graph should be properly drawn. The graph paper should be good. The pencil that is used should also be good.
e. Hints: The hints should be properly explained. The marks on the graph should be such that the students may know them by themselves.
f. Blackboard: The teacher may draw a graph on the black board.

5. MAP

A map is a flat drawing or representation of an area, such as a village, which shows the location of natural and man-made features and resources. A map is drawn or made to be smaller than real life, and is not always to scale. In development work, a village or community map made by learners or participants in a project can serve a number of purposes. Communities can think about what resources they lack and plan the most suitable place to build new resources, such as a well or a school. Mapping can help outsiders to become more familiar with an area and with the people who live there. The process of making a map can encourage cooperation between people, by jointly assessing their situation and needs. By using and valuing their own knowledge and perceptions, people may feel encouraged to take action to solve their problems. Maps drawn by different groups of people in a community, for example by groups of young and old people, or by people of different ethnic and cultural backgrounds, will reflect differences in their perceptions, priorities and needs. This may have

important consequences for the success of a project. If one group includes features that another group excludes, this may reveal inequalities in access to and ownership of resources such as firewood, water, land or institutions, such as schools and shops.

Maps made by students or communities may take several days or weeks to build up, as they gain confidence through the process. Leave any map with the group you have made it with. If you want to keep a copy, make your own or take photographs. Making a map in a classroom can help to teach students about the concept of maps and how to interpret them. It can help the student to reflect on their own surroundings. For example, they might make a map of the health and safety hazards in the school compound, village or town, showing features such as busy roads, blind corners, unprotected water sources, rubbish tips and stagnant ponds where mosquitoes breed. This might be part of a project to protect the environment or to campaign for road safety measures.

6. SLIDES

Among the various types of materials available still projection, slides and film strips are the foremost visual aids. They are of great value in teaching. Slide Projector or Diascope popularly known as Magic Lantern, is an optical aid to the process of teaching. It is used for projecting pictures from a transparent slide on a wall or screen. As it is used to project slides, i.e., why it is called a slide projector. It helps in showing the magnified image of the slide. When the figure or illustration is very small and it is required that the whole class should see it clearly, a transparent slid of

this small figure is prepared. The slide is placed inverted into the slide carrier part of the magic lantern (slide projector). The slide projector projects its erect image on the well or screen by enlarging its dimension and making the vision more sharp and clear. If he slide or film strip is colored then it would be more attractive. The slide projector is useful for small as well as large groups.

7. FILM STRIPS

It is an improvement upon slide projector (magic lantern). The device may be used as a slide projector or as a film strip projector. Instead of using different slide for different topics or more slides for one topic, one strip or piece of still film is prepared. Slides produced on films are called film strips. A film strip consists of a strip of cellulose acetate film 16mm or 35mm wide and length 2 to 5 feet. It usually consists of 40 to 100 separate pictures related to a particular subject, topic or theme. These pictures may be connected with series of drawings, photographs, diagrams or combination of these. Such strip or a piece of still film serves the same purpose as served by a number of slides. There is not much difference between a slide projector and a film strip projector. In a slide projector we use separate slide while in a film strip, a strip of film (having ling strip of many slides) is exhibited. The film strip projector is a recent development and it is growing to be a more popular means of pictorial representation.

8. OVERHEAD PROJECTOR (O.H.P.)

The Overhead projector has opened a new dimension in communication. It represents a lot of

improvement over magic lantern, slide and film projectors. The name _Overhead projector‘ comes from the fact that the projected image is behind and over the head of the speaker/teacher. In overhead projection, a transparent visual is placed on a horizontal stage on top of light source. The light passes through this transparency and then is reflected at 90° angle on the screen at eh back of the speaker.

How to use OHP

Step 1 Remember to plug in the OHP. Step 2 Pull the head mirror up completely. It is likely to break down if you move the head mirror up strongly. Step 3 Turn on OHP. It is ready for use OHP.

After Use: Turn off power, and move the head mirror down. If out of focus, please adjust as follows. Turn the part of gray on head mirror to the right and left until focus is correct.

9. WHITE BOARD

A whiteboard has a smooth shiny white surface, which can be written: on with special pens and wiped clean with a dry cloth.

How to use a white board

You will need

- special thick whiteboard pens which have washable ink
- a sponge or cloth to clean the board Providing you have the special pens you can use many different surfaces, for example, plastic sheeting, sticky-back plastic and so on. Do not allow young children to play with the plastic bags - they could put them over

their heads and suffocate. Whiteboards can be used in the same way as chalkboards for writing or drawing. In the beginning it may be difficultto keep the writing horizontal, and the same size and style, so you will need to practise.

Before writing on the whiteboard in your lesson or session, draw the summary in the lesson plan. It needs to be clear and well-arranged. Bar charts, line graphs, pie charts and diagrams can be drawn on the whiteboard before a maths or geography lesson.

10. FLIPCHART

A flipchart is a series of sheets of paper, fastened together at the top. When a sheet has been used, it can be _flipped' over the top so that the next sheet can be used.

How to use a flipchart

A flipchart can be used in two ways:

- with blank sheets of paper or newsprint, which the teacher or trainer writes on during the session
- as a pre-prepared resource with pictures and or notes.

To avoid having to write while speaking, you can prepare texts and drawings before the lesson or session. Each sheet of a flipchart should illustrate one point or message in a lecture, talk or training session. You should turn to the next sheet when moving on to the next point. This helps students and learners to understand and remember information. It also acts as an aid to you, reminding you of the structure of your

lesson or presentation Development workers find picture flipcharts particularly useful for illustrating important points.

Explanatory or additional notes can be written on the back of the previous page to remind you of what you need to say or to provide information in case you are asked detailed questions. This is particularly helpful if a flipchart is to be massproduced and used by teachers and trainers who have not been involved in its design If you are working with several small groups, you can give each group a blank sheet and a pen. After their discussions, the group can write their conclusions on the sheet. The conclusions of all the groups can then be displayed for everyone to see. Suggestions and ideas from students or trainees can be written blank sheets of a flipchart to enable them to see their ideas, for example in a planning workshop for teachers. The sheets can be taken away and used for future reference to draw up detailed plans or as notes for a written report.

11. WORK SHEET

A worksheet lists questions or activities for students or trainees to work through. Pre-prepared worksheets can be used successfully with groups with differing abilities or language skills because each person can work at their own pace.

How to use worksheets

Worksheets can be used for homework or a revision programme, or they can include further details to be studied for the next lesson. They can be photocopied, or copies can be made using a jelly copier or banda

machine. In development work, worksheets can reinforce or remind trainees about a particular message or technique. Worksheets provide flexibility in the classroom as well as in the workshop, because they can be used individually, in pairs, or in small groups to facilitate teamwork skills.

12. NEWSLETTER

A newsletter is an informal printed report, which is distributed to members of a particular group in order to share information. A newsletter can be useful to promote good public relations, offering evidence that the school, college or other organization is working hard to achieve its targets. To keep a record of newsletters you have made, punch holes in them and store them in a special file. Printing costs can be funded through selling advertising space or asking local businesses to sponsor a page. Careful budget control is necessary. Like pamphlets, newsletters are easier to produce if you know how to use and have access to a computer and a desktop publishing (DTP) programme.

13. CARTOON

A cartoon is a simple picture of an amusing situation; sometimes it is a satirical comment on a serious or topical issue. A strip cartoon is a sequence of framed drawings, which tell a story. Both types are to be found in newspapers, magazines and leaflets. In development situations a cartoon is a method of conveying a specific message.

How to Use Cartoons

Cartoon pictures can enable people to discuss sensitive issues and so are useful for teaching and training. Listening skills in the language class can be extended and developed using cartoon strips. You can read out a description of something, which needs to be drawn in sequence, each part in a separate frame. Ask the students to listen carefully, while you read the piece two or three times. Then ask them to draw what they have heard. You could provide a template with a number of ready drawn frames for them to fill in. You could do this with two separate groups and ask the students to discuss what they see in the picture. You can then evaluate how well they have understood the piece you read. Cartoon strips can be used to teach sequencing and ordering to students. Find, or draw, a cartoon strip with between three and eight separate frames. Cut out each frame and rearrange them so that they are in the wrong order. Stick them down in the new order and make one copy for each group. Ask them to cut each frame out and put them in the correct order. Before you do this, show the students an example on the chalkboard of pictures in the wrong order and ask them to put them in the correct sequence.

The above exercise can also be used in a workshop or training session, using a topic related to the subject of the workshop or session. As it encourages discussion and team decision-making, it can be introduced as an ice-breaker. The less obvious the order, the more interactive the process will be as each group may suggest different answers. This creates an opportunity for each group to explain their answers and defend their position.

C. Instructional Material and Media and Its Function

Instructional material refers to anything which is used by teachers or learners to facilitate the learning of a language. Materials could obviously be cassettes, videos, CD-Roms, dictionaries, grammar books, readers, workbooks or photocopied exercises. They could also be newspapers, food packages, photographs, live talks by invited native speakers, instructions given by a teacher, tasks written on cards or discussions between learners. In other words, they can be anything which is deliberately used to increase the learners' knowledge and/or experience. Keeping this pragmatic concept of materials in mind can help materials developers to utilise as many sources of input as possible and, even more importantly, can help teachers to realise that they are also material developers and that they are ultimately responsible for the materials that their learners use. Instructional material control the learning and teaching, because those materials determine the components and method of learning; they control the content, the method, and procedures of learning. In many cases, instructional materials are the center of instruction and one of the most important influences on what goes on in the classroom. A medium (plural media) is a channel of communication, derived from the Latin word meaning ―between‖. The term refers to anything that carries information between a source and a receiver. Definition of media focus on use of technologies plus concepts and contexts. Medias are the means for transmitting or delivering messages and in teaching-

learning perspective delivering content to the learners, to achieve effective instruction. Instructional media for learning-teaching process provide with the tools to engage learners powerfully in the learning process. It greatly enhance the effectiveness of communication. Media can be used effectively in formal situation where students are working independently or teacher is working with other group of students. A teacher can make more effective use of media if he/she understand underlying concepts about teaching-learning process. Behaviorists stress external control over a learner's behavior, so specify behavioral (performance) objectives; instructional design and media are highly structured. While cognitivists stress internal or learner control over mental process, so specify cognitive objectives, allow learners to employ their own cognitive strategies. Instructional design and media is less structured. Teaching and learning are considered complex processes, influenced by different multiple factors, including use of media or instructional aids, which results active involvement of learners and makes teaching more interactive. Instructional activities must be arranged so that students have appropriate opportunities to engage in meaningful learning (as opposed to rote learning). Academic engagement will be evident when students are on task, focused on important issues and consciously striving to learn. Students need to be seriously engaged in learning in order to achieve deep understanding. Academic engagement is closely linked to students commitment and motivation and to the nature of interactions within classroom social systems.

Materials development

Materials development refers to anything which is done by writers, teachers or learners to provide sources of language input and to exploit those sources in ways which maximise the likelihood of intake: in other words the supplying of information about and/or experience of the language in ways designed to promote language learning. Materials developers might write textbooks, tell stories, bring advertisements into the classroom, express an opinion, provide samples of language use or read a poem aloud. Whatever they do to provide input they do so in principled ways related to what they know about how languages can be effectively learned.

The Function of Instructional Materials.

There are five functions what materials suppose to do. They should:

1. Act as a stimulus to learning (e.g. texts are interesting; there are opportunities for learners to use their existing knowledge and skills; both teacher and learners can cope with the content);
2. Help to organize the teaching learning process (e.g there should be a clear and coherent structure which helps the teacher to plan lessons and learners to feel a sense of progress and achievement, but the structure should not be so rigid that monotony results.
3. Embody a view of the nature of teaching and learning (i.e. reflects the beliefs of the writer)
4. Reflect the nature of the learning task – in this case, language learning (i.e. represent the complexity of language learning but also its manage ability)

5. Provide models of correct and appropriate language use.

If it is properly designed, skillfully produced and effectively used have great influence on teaching & learning because it produces impact of:

- Save time
- Increase interest
- Hold attention
- Clarify ideas
- Reinforce concepts
- Add tone
- Prove a point
- Aid memory

The impact use of media may increase by applying the following principles:

1. Select material with appropriate attributes
2. Introduce material to learner by relating it to prior learning and indicating its relationship to present objectives
3. Present material under the best possible environmental conditions.
4. Get feedback from viewers/learners.
5. Evaluate interial impact.

Media play a significant role in the education of students with exceptionalities children with disabilities in particular need special instructional treatment which is supplemented with adaptation and specially designed media for effective instruction of such students. The most common use of media in an instructional situation is for supplemental support of the instructor in the classroom to

enhance learning. Every application of media is somewhat unique, but in any case it must be guided by both general principles of learning and the context in which these principles are employed. For the instructional use of media programs are designed intentionally to make the teaching-learning environment more interesting and effective. In order to make the learning experiences of the learners more concrete and realistic, teachers has to use and prepare specific teaching materials. These instructional gadgets help teachers to clarify, establish and correlate concepts of learners. Teaching aids certainly amplify teacher effortful presentation more into influencing instructions. The use of variety of teaching aids has successfully transformed most classrooms from traditional setup, where teachers do most of the talking and students are passive listeners, into participatory learning centers facilitating productive learning.

Chapter 3

Strategy In Teaching English

A. Effective Core Teaching Strategies.

11

1. Classroom Management is the most critical teaching strategy. Learn to apply the some of the teaching strategies that fall with this broad topic and you'll find teaching success throughout your teaching career. Classroom Management is a broad theme that includes many subject areas including proper classroom behavior and discipline, establishing classroom rules, communicating effectively, and managing classroom time.
2. Know the students well. The teachers should have different expectations for each one of their students. It is imperative to create a genuine bond with them (by the way that works both ways).
3. Motivate and encourage the students to set some goals for themselves, then help them to reach their goals and move on to a new set of goals.
4. Create a Strong Teacher Student Relationship. Trust must be earned, show respect, be honest, display compassion, and always be positive. Let students know that they matter to the teachers and hopefully they will follow suit. All this will build self-esteem in the students!
5. Parent Teacher Communication is Crucial. Keep in mind to consistently be approachable, informed, diplomatic and always professional (even if parents are more like friends to you). Remember parents must be accountable to their child, themselves, and believe it or not ... to the teachers too.

6. Be Accountable ... the teachers are responsible to their students (foremost), their parents, their school, and of course, to themselves. This is an on-going process every day, week, and month of the school year. It is imperative that the teachers always keep that in mind.
7. To be truly successful in this great profession, the teachers must have a real passion for it. A passion to have fun with their students, pass on the knowledge them and watch them grow throughout the year(s). At times, teachers may feel inundated with theories, methodologies and many different teaching strategies that they have been exposed to. But please know that the can decide how they want to run your classroom, and how they want to apply their teaching strategies. fferent teachers might perform different strategies and take note of their teaching strategies and read about advice that experienced teachers have written. Then, decide which strategies are best and which fit the teaching style with your students.

Institutions of higher learning across the nation are responding to political, economic, social and technological pressures to be more responsive to students' needs and more concerned about how well students are prepared to assume future societal roles. Faculty are already feeling the pressure to lecture less, to make learning environments more interactive, to integrate technology into the learning experience, and to use collaborative learning strategies when appropriate.

Some of the more prominent strategies are outlined below. For more information about the use of these and other pedagogical approaches, contact the Program in Support of Teaching and Learning.

Lecture. For many years, the lecture method was the most widely used instructional strategy in college classrooms. Nearly 80% of all U.S. college classrooms in the late 1970s reported using some form of the lecture method to teach students (Cashin, 1990). Although the usefulness of other teaching strategies is being widely examined today, the lecture still remains an important way to communicate information.

Used in conjunction with active learning teaching strategies, the traditional lecture can be an effective way to achieve instructional goals. The advantages of the lecture approach are that it provides a way to communicate a large amount of information to many listeners, maximizes instructor control and is non-threatening to students. The disadvantages are that lecturing minimizes feedback from students, assumes an unrealistic level of student understanding and comprehension, and often disengages students from the learning process causing information to be quickly forgotten.

The following recommendations can help make the lecture approach more effective (Cashin, 1990):

1. Fit the lecture to the audience
2. Focus your topic - remember you cannot cover everything in one lecture
3. Prepare an outline that includes 5-9 major points you want to cover in one lecture
4. Organize your points for clarity
5. Select appropriate examples or illustrations
6. Present more than one side of an issue and be sensitive to other perspectives
7. Repeat points when necessary
8. Be aware of your audience - notice their feedback

9. Be enthusiastic - you don‘t have to be an entertainer but you should be excited by your topic.

Case Method. Providing an opportunity for students to apply what they learn in the classroom to real-life experiences has proven to be an effective way of both disseminating and integrating knowledge. The case method is an instructional strategy that engages students in active discussion about issues and problems inherent in practical application. It can highlight fundamental dilemmas or critical issues and provide a format for role playing ambiguous or controversial scenarios.

Course content cases can come from a variety of sources. Many faculty have transformed current events or problems reported through print or broadcast media into critical learning experiences that illuminate the complexity of finding solutions to critical social problems. The case study approach works well in cooperative learning or role playing environments to stimulate critical thinking and awareness of multiple perspectives.

Discussion. There are a variety of ways to stimulate discussion. For example, some faculty begin a lesson with a whole group discussion to refresh students‘ memories about the assigned reading(s). Other faculty find it helpful to have students list critical points or emerging issues, or generate a set of questions stemming from the assigned reading(s). These strategies can also be used to help focus large and small group discussions.

Obviously, a successful class discussion involves planning on the part of the instructor and preparation on the part of the students. Instructors should communicate this commitment to the students on the first day of class by clearly articulating course expectations. Just as the

instructor carefully plans the learning experience, the students must comprehend the assigned reading and show up for class on time, ready to learn.

Active Learning. Meyers and Jones (1993) define active learning as learning environments that allow –students to talk and listen, read, write, and reflect as they approach course content through problem-solving exercises, informal small groups, simulations, case studies, role playing, and other activities -- all of which require students to apply what they are learning‖ (p. xi). Many studies show that learning is enhanced when students become actively involved in the learning process. Instructional strategies that engage students in the learning process stimulate critical thinking and a greater awareness of other perspectives. Although there are times when lecturing is the most appropriate method for disseminating information, current thinking in college teaching and learning suggests that the use of a variety of instructional strategies can positively enhance student learning. Obviously, teaching strategies should be carefully matched to the teaching objectives of a particular lesson. For more information about teaching strategies, see the list of college teaching references in Appendix N.

Assessing or grading students' contributions in active learning environments is somewhat problematic. It is extremely important that the course syllabus explicitly outlines the evaluation criteria for each assignment whether individual or group. Students need and want to know what is expected of them. For more information about grading, see the Evaluating Student Work section contained in this Guide.

Cooperative Learning. Cooperative Learning is a systematic pedagogical strategy that encourages small groups of students to work together for the achievement of

a common goal. The term 'Collaborative Learning' is often used as a synonym for cooperative learning when, in fact, it is a separate strategy that encompasses a broader range of group interactions such as developing learning communities, stimulating student/faculty discussions, and encouraging electronic exchanges (Bruffee, 1993). Both approaches stress the importance of faculty and student involvement in the learning process.

When integrating cooperative or collaborative learning strategies into a course, careful planning and preparation are essential. Understanding how to form groups, ensure positive interdependence, maintain individual accountability, resolve group conflict, develop appropriate assignments and grading criteria, and manage active learning environments are critical to the achievement of a successful cooperative learning experience. Before you begin, you may want to consult several helpful resources which are contained in Appendix N. In addition, the Program in Support of Teaching and Learning can provide faculty with supplementary information and helpful techniques for using cooperative learning or collaborative learning in college classrooms.

Integrating Technology. Today, educators realize that computer literacy is an important part of a student's education. Integrating technology into a course curriculum when appropriate is proving to be valuable for enhancing and extending the learning experience for faculty and students. Many faculty have found electronic mail to be a useful way to promote student/student or faculty/student communication between class meetings. Others use listserves or on-line notes to extend topic discussions and explore critical issues with students and colleagues, or

discipline- specific software to increase student understanding of difficult concepts.

Currently, our students come to us with varying degrees of computer literacy. Faculty who use technology regularly often find it necessary to provide some basic skill level instruction during the first week of class. In the future, we expect that need to decline. For help in integrating technology into a course curriculum contact the Program in Support of Teaching and Learning or the Instructional Development Office (IDO) at 703-993-3141. In addition, watch for information throughout the year about workshops and faculty conversations on the integration of technology, teaching and learning.

Distance Learning. Distance learning is not a new concept. We have all experienced learning outside of a structured classroom setting through television, correspondence courses, etc. Distance learning or distance education as a teaching pedagogy, however, is an important topic of discussion on college campuses today. Distance learning is defined as 'any form of teaching and learning in which the teacher and learner are not in the same place at the same time'. Obviously, information technology has broadened our concept of the learning environment. It has made it possible for learning experiences to be extended beyond the confines of the traditional classroom. Distance learning technologies take many forms such as computer simulations, interactive collaboration/discussion, and the creation of virtual learning environments connecting regions or nations. Components of distance learning such as email, listserves, and interactive software have also been useful additions to the educational setting.

B. Different Teaching Styles and How They Affect Students

No two teachers will teach in the same way, just as no two students learn something in the same way. A teacher‘s teaching style is based on their educational philosophy, their classroom‘s demographic, what subject area (or areas) they teach, and the school‘s mission statement. If you are a new teacher, you might be wondering just what your teaching style is and how it could be affecting your students. It‘s important to know that there are two key approaches that the other teaching theories fall into – teacher-centered and student-centered. Check the list below, and find out which teaching style best suits you.

1. Teacher-Centered Approach

The main focus behind the teacher-centered approach is the idea that the teacher is the main authority figure. The students are simply there to learn through lectures and direct instruction, and the focus is mainly on passing tests and assessments. A teachers‘ role in this approach is to pass on the knowledge and information needed to their students. Even using this approach, you can still use technology to teach. There is only one subcategory under this approach, and that is direct instruction.

2. Direct Instruction

Direct instruction is used to define traditional teaching, which includes lectures and teacher-led demonstrations. The idea is that only the teacher can give students the knowledge and information they need to succeed. If this is your preferred style

of teaching, you might want to consider taking a course in PowerPoint to create lectures. There are three teaching models beneath this subcategory.

a. Formal Authority
   These kinds of teachers are the sole person of authority and leadership. They have more knowledge than the students and hold a higher status over their students. Classroom management is usually based on traditional methods involving teacher-designed rules and expectations.
b. Expert
   The teacher described in this model is basically the know-everything in the classroom. They are there to guide and direct their students. Students are nothing more than empty vessels designed to receive the knowledge being given by the teacher.
c. Personal Model
   In this method, the teacher leads by example. They show the student how to find information and how to understand it. The idea is that the students will learn by watching and copying what the teacher does exactly as the teacher does it.

3. Student-Centered Approach

In this approach, the teacher is still the authority figure, but the student plays an active role in what is learned. The idea is that the teacher will advise and guide the students down a learning path. Assessment involves informal and formal methods – tests, group projects, portfolios, and class

participation. The teacher continues to assess a student's learning even throughout the lesson. The students are learning the information the teacher is giving, and the teacher is learning how best to approach his students. There are two subcategories in this approach – inquiry-based learning and cooperative learning.

a. Inquiry-Based Learning

This teaching style focuses on letting the student explore and actively participate in learning. Rather than being a dictator, the teacher is more of a guide, giving the students advice and supporting their efforts. Students are expected to participate and play an active role in their own learning. There are three models under this subcategory.

b. Facilitator

A teacher using this model will work under an open classroom model. The idea will be to place a stronger emphasis on the teacher-student relationship by joining the student in the learning process. The students' progress will be loosely guided, and the teacher will work on encouraging the students to be more independent, more exploratory, and involve more hands-on learning. Using this model, teachers can include less formal teaching strategies like encouraging students to be entrepreneurs.

4. Personal Model

This type of model is similar to the personal model from the direct instruction subcategory. However, these kinds of personal models are

learning with the students so that they can learn to explore and experiment with new ideas. In this way, students can learn that making mistakes are part of the learning process as they watch their teacher make mistakes as well. They will, hopefully, also see that people can learn from their mistakes.

5. **Delegator**

A delegator has the most hands-off approach of all of the modeled teaching methods. The idea is to encourage autonomy in the student's learning process. The teacher explains what is expected, gives them the resources needed, and spends the rest of the time acting as a resource of sorts. They will answer questions and check on progress when needed. The students are actively involved in their own learning process with no real guidance from the teacher.

6. **Cooperative Learning**

The idea behind this kind of teaching style is community. Much of the work in the classroom is group projects, and the students are responsible for their own learning and development. The theory behind this style of teaching is that students learn best when interacting with their peers. If all of the students are going to have access to technology either at home or at the school, you should consider a class in Microsoft Project so they can use it for their projects and portfolios. There are two models under this subcategory.

a. Facilitator

This model is just like the facilitator model under inquiry-based learning. The only difference is that there is a higher focus on

group projects rather than individual work. The teacher still uses an open classroom, and the focus is still on increasing a students' independence, hands-on learning, and exploration. However, instead of the student undergoing this process alone or with the teacher, he will also have a group of his peers joining him in the learning process.

b. Delegator

Like the delegator model from the inquiry-based learning subcategory, this model acts as a resource to students with a hands-off approach to the students' learning. There is a higher focus on group projects compared to the inquiry-based learning delegator model, but overall, the same key ideas are behind both models.

Teachers' teaching style says something about you. It's based on your values toward education and the philosophy you hold about education. Knowing how your students learn can also play a key role in your teaching style. If you can discover your teaching style early on in your career, both you and your students will be better off for it. You will know exactly what your teaching preferences are and know just how to reach your students' learning preferences.

Chapter 4
Method in Teaching English



A method is seen as superordinate, comprising both _principles' and _techniques'. The principles involve five aspects of second or foreign language teaching: the teacher, the learner, the teaching process, the learning process and the target language culture. Taken together the principles represent the theoretical framework of the method. The techniques are the behavioral manifestation of the principles, in other words, the classroom activities and procedures derived from the application of the principles. A particular technique maybe compatible with more than one method, depending on the way in which the technique is used. Yet, it is also true that certain techniques are frequently associated with a particular method.

By reading this chapter, we will gain an understanding of the principles on which these methods are based and of the techniques associated with each method. These eight were chosen because they are all currently practiced today. In elaborating each method, there are points taken for each

which will allow us to see some salient differences between and among the methods presented. Pay attention to find these ten questions after you read each method.

1. What are the goals of teachers who use the method?
2. What is the role of the teacher? What are the roles of students?
3. What are some characteristics of the teaching learning process?
4. What is the nature of student-teacher interaction? What is the nature of student-student interaction?
5. How are the feelings of the students dealt with?
6. How is language viewed? How is culture viewed?
7. What areas of language are emphasized? What language skills are emphasized?
8. What the roles of students' native language?
9. How is the evaluation accomplished?
10. How does the teacher respond to student errors?

D. The Grammar Translation Method

No	examples of classroom activities	Principles
1	the class is reading a text	fundamental purpose: to be able to read its literature (Students' study of foreign culture is limited to its literature and fine arts)
2	students translate the passage from target language to their native language	translation is important as a character of successful language learners

3	question and answer in students' native language	ability to communicate in the target language is not the goal
4	write answers to reading comprehension questions	reading and writing are skills to be developed.
5	students are given grammar rules	form of target language is important
6	students apply the rules to examples, the teacher asks students to state grammar rule	grammar is taught deductively

E. The Direct Method

No	examples of classroom activities	Principles
1	read aloud the passage	reading should be taught from the beginning
2	Question and answers in the class by using the target language.	direct association between the target language and meaning. Think the target language as soon as possible.
3	students ask questions	the purpose of language learning: communication, opportunities for the students to use the target language
4	teacher works with the	pronunciation from the

	students' pronunciation	beginning
5	orrects the grammar by asking the students to make choice	students' self correction
6	teaching grammar starts with examples then the rules	teaching grammar inductively
7	teacher dictates	iting is important
8		the syllabus based on the situations or topics not on guistic structures
9	discuss the culture	involves learning how speaker of that language live

F. The Audio-lingual Method

No	examples of classroom activities	Principles
1	use substitution drills	
2	the teacher says _very good' when the students answer correctly	positive nforcement develops correct habits
3	the teacher uses spoken cues and pictures cu	students should learn to respond to both verbal and non verbal stimuli
4	the teacher introduces a new dialog	language forms occur most naturally within a context
5	the teacher only uses	students' native language as

	the target language in the classroom	little as possible
6		the teacher acts as the model
7	the students repeat each line of the dialog	language learning is a process of habit formation
8		direct correction of students‘ error
9	each student greets another	learning how to use the language
10	the teacher provides the students with cues, calls on individuals, smiles encouragement, holds up pictures one after another	teacher should be like an orchestra leader-conducting, guiding and controlling
11	new vocabularies are introduces through lines of the dialog	guage teaching objective: structural patterns
12	students are given no grammar rules	inductive teaching for mmar
13		speech is more basic than the written form,
14		Language cannot be separated from culture.

G. The Silent Way

No	examples of classroom activities	Principles

1	teacher points to five color which represent five English vowels	the teacher should start with something that the students already knows
2		students should learn to rely on each other and themselves
3	the teacher works with gesture, sometimes instruction in the students native language	the teacher works with the students and the students work on the language
4	the teacher sits down at the table and is silent	silence is a tool.
5		meaning is made clear by focusing students' perceptions, not through translation
6		students can learn from one another . the teacher's silence encourage group operation
7		meaningful practice without repetition
8		language is for self-expression
9		the syllabus is composed of linguistic structures
10	students will practice writing the sentences they create	the skills of speaking, reading and writing reinforce one another

Reviewing the principles

points	grammar translation method	direct method	audio-lingual method	silent way
goals of teacher	able to read literature	communicate by using the target language	use the target language communicatively	use the language for self expression
role of teacher	authority in the classroom	directs the class activities	orchestra leader, directing and controlling	technician or engineer, works with the students
role of students	do what teacher says	less passive than GTM	imitators	works with the language
characteristics of teaching/learning process	translate one language to another, study grammar deductively	no translation, situational syllabus, study grammar inductively	new vocab trough dialogs, drills (repetition, backward build-up, chain, substitution, transformation, question and answer)	focuses on structure, practice without repetition,
the nature of student-	teacher to student	interaction both,	drills, teacher and	teacher is mostly

teacher interaction		teacher students and students teacher	students	silent, speak as minimum as possible, still very active by using gestures
the nature of student-student interaction	little students initiation and interaction			help each other
area of language emphasized	vocabulary and grammar	vocabulary over grammar	structures	pronunciation, structures, and vocabulary
skills of language emphasized	reading and writing	reading and writing	listening, speaking, reading and writing	all the four
the roles of students' native language	native language is mostly used through translation	students' native language should not be used in the classroom	interfere with the students' attempts to master the target language	can be used to give instruction when necessary

H. Suggestopedia

No	examples of classroom activities	Principles
1	the students are seated in cushioned armchairs, the lighting is dim, soft music is playing	learning is facilitated in a relaxed, comfortable environment
2	among posters hanging around the room are several containing grammatical information	a student can learn what is present in the environment
3	the teacher speaks reassuringly	if the students respect and trust the teachers' authority, they will accept and retain information better
4	e teacher tell them that learning the target language will be easy and enjoyable	the teacher should _ desuggests' the learners certain psychological barriers that they bring to the learning situation
5	the teacher invites the students to take a mental trip with her	activating the learners' imagination will aid learning.
6	the students choose new names and identities	allow them more open
7	the students use the new English sentences as if they were at a	when their attention is off the form of the language, and on the process of

	party	communicating, students will learn best
8	the teacher briefly mentions a few points about English Grammar and Vocabulary	the teacher should explain the grammar and vocabulary, but not dwell on them
9	the teacher reads the script a second tie as the students close their eyes and listen. This is done to different music.	the state one experiences when listening to a concert, is ideal for overcoming psychological barriers and for taking advantage for learning potential
10	for homework, the students are to read the dialog at night and in the morning	at these times, the distinction between conscious and subconscious is more blurred and, therefore optimal learning can occur
11	the teacher instructs the students to pretend they are auditioning for a play	the fine arts (music, art, and drama) enable suggestion to reach the subconscious. The arts should therefore be integrated as much as possible into the teaching process.
12	the teacher leads the class in various activities involving the dialog, for example, question and answer, repetition, and translation	the teacher should help the students _activate' the material to which they have been exposed.

13	he teaches the students a children's ng	music and movement reinforce the linguistic mate l
14	The students make an error by saying, -How you do?I the teacher ignores the error at the time, but later uses the correct questions structures herself	error are to be tolerated, the emphasis being on content, not form. The teacher should use the form a little later so the students will hear it used correctly

I. Community Language Learning

No	examples of classroom activities	Principles
1	the teacher greets the students, introduce himself and has the students introduce themselves.	building a relationship with and among students is very important
2	students have a nversation	language is for mmunication
3	the teacher translates what the students want to say in chunks	the teacher should be sensitive to students' limitations and not overwhelm them with more they can handle
4	students are invited to talk about how they felt during the	teacher and students are whole persons.

	conversation	
5	the teacher accept what the students says	guided by the knowledge that each learner is unique, the teacher creates an accepting atmosphere. Learners feel free to lower their defenses and the learning experiences becomes less threatening.
6	the teacher understand what the students say	the teacher _ nsels‘ the students. He shows them that he is really listening to them and understand what they are ying.
7	the students listen to the tape and give the Indonesian translation	the students‘ native is use to make the meaning clear. Students will feel secure when they understand everything
8		the teach encourage the students initiative and independence
9		students need quite reflection time in order to learn
10	students works together in a group of three	in groups, students can begin to feel a sense of community and can learn from each other as well as the teacher. Cooperation, not competition, is encouraged.

11	the teacher corrects by repeating correctly the sentence the students have created.	teacher should work in a non-threatening way with what the learner has produced.
12	the students read their sentences to the other members of the class	developing a community among the class members builds trust and can help to reduce the threat of the new learning situation
13	the teacher plays the tape while the students listen	learning tends not to take place when the material is too new, or conversely, [illegible] familiar.
14	the students are once again invite to talk about the experience they has that evening	students reflect on what they have experienced. Learning about their own learning as well as learning about the language.
15		in the beginning class, syllabus is designed by the students. Students are more willing when they have created the material themselves.

J. The Total Physical Response (TPR)

No	**examples of classroom activities**	**Principles**
1	the teacher gives a command in the target language and performs	meaning in the target language can often be conveyed through actions

	it with the students	
2	the students say nothing	the students' understanding of the target language should be developed before speaking
3	the teacher gives commands quite quickly	students can initially learn one part of the language rapidly by moving their bodies
4	the teacher sits down and issues commands to the volunteers	students can learn trough observing actions as well as by performing the actions themselves
5	the teacher introduces new commands after she is satisfied that the first six have been mastered	it is very important that students feel successful. Feelings of success and low anxiety facilitate learning
6	the teacher changes the order of the commands	students should not be made to memorize fixed routines
7	when the students make errors, teacher repeat the commands while acting it out	correction should be carried out in an unobtrusive manner
8	the teacher gives commands that they have not heard before	the students need to understand more than the exact sentences used in training
9		language learning is more effective when it is fun

10	the teacher writes the new commands on the blackboard	spoken language should be emphasized over written language
11	a few weeks later, a student who has not spoken before gives commands	students will begin to speak when they are ready
12		students are expected to make errors when they first begin speaking. Teacher should be tolerant of them.

K. The Communicative Approach

No	examples of classroom activities	Principles
1	the teacher gives the students the direction for the activity in the target language	the target language is vehicle for the classroom communication, not just the object of the study
2		authentic language , use in real context, should be introduced
3		one function can have many different linguistic forms
4		students should work with the language at the discourse or suprasentential (above the sentence)

5	the students plat a language game	games are important
6	the students are asked how they feel about the prediction	students should be given an opportunity to express their ideas and opinions
7	a student makes error. The teacher and the students ignore it.	errors are tolerated and seen as a natural outcome of the development of communication skills.
8		one of the teacher's major responsibilities is to establish situations likely to promote communication
9	the students work with a partner to predict what the next picture in the strip story will look like	communicative interaction encourages cooperative relationships among students
10	the students are to do a role play	the social context of the communicative event is essential in giving meaning to the utterances
11		learning is to use language forms appropriately is an important part of communicative competence
12		the teacher acts as advisor during the communicative activities
13		in communicating, a

		speaker has a choice not only about what to say but also how to say it
14		the grammar and vocabulary that the students learn follow from the function, situational context, and the roles of the interlocutors
15	for their homeworks, the students are listened to a debate on the radio or watch it on television	students should be given opportunities to develop strategies for interpreting language as it is actually used by native speaker

Reviewing the principles

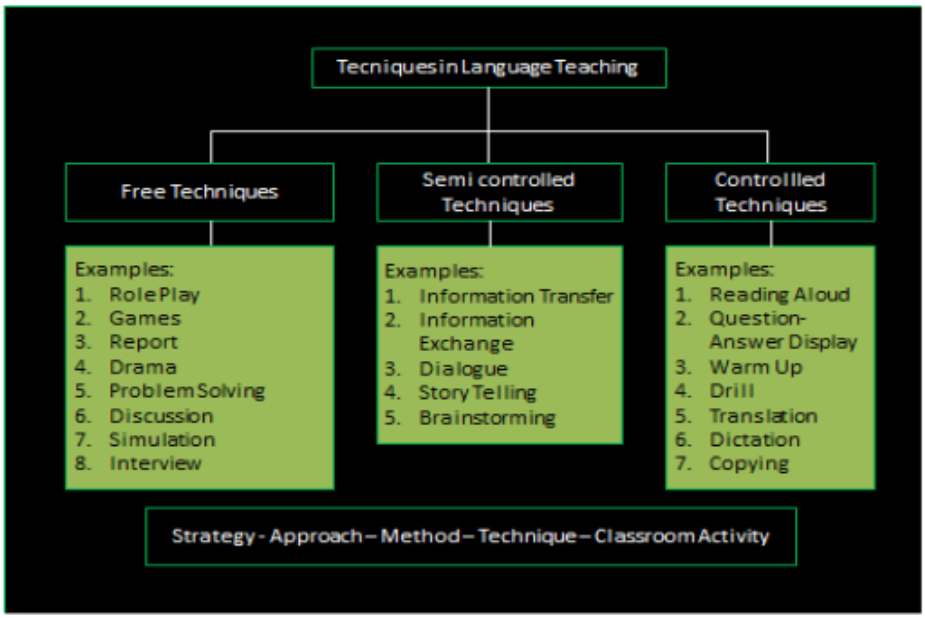
points	**Suggesto-pedia**	**Total Physical Response**	**Community Language Learning**	**Communicative Approach**
goals of teacher	accelerate the process by which students learn to use a foreign language for everyday communication	students enjoy their experience in learning to communicate in a foreign language	how to use the target language communicatively	to have one's students become communicatively competent
role of teacher	authority in the classroom	director	counselor	facilitator . manager of classroom

				activities, advisor during the activities.
role of students	trust and respect the teacher	imitators of teacher's non verbal model	clients	Students are communicators
characteristics of teaching/ learning process	comfortable learning process, relax and fun	modeling, commands (nonverbal)	native language then translation	use the language with a communicative intent
the nature of student-teacher interaction	teacher interact with group of students and individuals	teacher interact with group of students and individuals, teacher speaking and the students respond nonverbally	change within the lesson and change overtime, facilitators	the teacher is initiator and the students interact with one another
the nature of student-student interaction	interact each other	command one another and speak	cooperation, not competition	interact one to another
area of language emphasiz	vocabulary	grammatical structures	grammar points, pronunciat	language functions are emphasized

ed		and vocabularies	ion patterns and vocabulary	over forms
skills of language emphasized	speaking communicatively	written language	understanding and speaking the language	all skills
the roles of students' native language	used to make the meaning clear	introduction language and commands	a tool to make the meaning clear	explaining unfamiliar vocabularies

Chapter 5
Techniques in Teaching English[22]

Carry out a method, is implementational, meaning that a technique is something that actually takes place in language teaching or learning in the classroom. The Principle in implementing the technique are: contextualizationis a basic premise. Language learning is learning to communicate – not learning about a language[23]. Comprehensible pronunciation is sought – not a false ideal. Drilling is used, but not to ensure memorization without context



[22] Larsen, Diane – Freeman. *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press.

[23] Widdowson, H. G. 1978. *Teaching Language as Communication*. Oxford: Oxford University

These techniques have multiple benefits: the instructor can easily and quickly assess if students have really mastered the material (and plan to dedicate more time to it, if necessary), and the process of measuring student understanding in many cases is also practice for the material—often students do not actually learn the material until asked to make use of it in assessments such as these. Finally, the very nature of these assessments drives interactivity and brings several benefits. Students are revived from their passivity of merely listening to a lecture and instead become attentive and engaged, two prerequisites for effective learning. These techniques are often perceived as ‑fun‖, yet they are frequently more effective than lectures at enabling student learning. Not all techniques listed herewill have universal appeal,
with factors such as your teaching style and personality influencing which choices may be right for you. Instructor Action: Lecture

The Term of Technique

2. Activity. Activity may refer to virtually anything that learners do in the classroom.

- ✓ We usually refer to a reasonably unified set of student behaviour, limited in time, preceded by some direction from the teacher, with a particular objective.
- ✓ Activities include role plays, drills, games, peer-editing, small-group information-gap exercise, and much more.
- ✓ Because an activity implies some sort of active performance on the part of learners, it is generally not used to refer to certain teacher behaviours like saying “good morning,” maintaining eye contact with students, explaining a grammar point, or writing a list of words on the chalkboard.

Such teacher behaviour, however can indeed be referred to as technique.

1. **Picture Prompt**
   Show students an image with no explanation, and ask them to identify/explain it, and justify their answers. Or ask students to write about it using terms from lecture, or to name the processes and concepts shown. Also works well as group activity. Do not give the ―answer‖ until they have explored all options first.
2. **Think Break**
   Ask a rhetorical question, and then allow 20 seconds for students to think about the problem before you go on to explain. This technique encourages students to take part in the problem-solving process even when discussion isn't feasible. Having students write something down (while you write an answer also) helps assure that they will in fact work on the problem.
3. **Choral Response**
   Ask a one-word answer to the class at large; volume of answer will suggest degree of comprehension. Very useful to ―drill‖ new vocabulary words into students.
4. **Instructor Storytelling**
   Instructor illustrates a concept, idea, or principle with a real-
   life application, model, or case-study.
5. **Pass the Pointer**
   Place a complex, intricate, or detailed image on the screen and ask for volunteers to temporarily borrow the laser pointer to identify key features or ask questions about items they don‘t understand.
6. **Empty Outlines**

Distribute a partially completed outline of today's lecture and ask students to fill it in. Useful at start or at end of class.

7. **Classroom Opinion Polls**
   Informal hand-raising suffices to test the waters before a controversial subject.
8. **Total Physical Response (TPR)**[24]
   Students either stand or sit to indicate their binary answers, such as True/False, to the instructor's questions.



7

1. **TPR Storytelling Session**

Tell a story to the whole class. It can be about anything: fairytale, adventure, even horror and comedy. Tell it with plenty of gestures and actions, which you repeat often. (That's the TPR way!)

A TPR story shares all the elements of a great tale: a relatable main character, a captivating plot and an ending that rewards the listeners. But in addition to these, a foreign language teacher employing TPR must remember that the story is used to teach meaning. So a

35

[24] Zainil. 2003. *Language Teaching Methods*. Padang: Universitas Negeri Padang Press.

TPR story would use a good mix of the students‘ native language and the target language. Especially for beginners, a healthy dose of the students‘ native language might be used, with a peppering of the target language. And because the story is a vehicle for teaching meaning, repetition of key phrases and their attending movements are the order of the day. You should really focus on key phrases you want to teach the class, not the story itself. The plot, the twists and turns of the story come second to the meaningful and memorable words and phrases you want your wards to integrate into their long-term memory. So for example, in teaching the Spanish words for the different parts of the body, you might employ the tale of a young Billy who goes to the city for the very first time. And each time about you talk about the many wonderful things he sees with his eyes (i.e. buses, buildings and airplanes), you emphasize the word *ojos* (eyes) while at the same time pointing to your eyes. It‘s also important that you widen your eyes as you point to them.

Keep repeating *“ojos”* and pointing to your eyes as you go through the awesome things Billy sees in the city. He sees a fleet of cars, *“ojos.”* He sees a dog walker, *“ojos.”*

There are ways you can employ repetition in the story without being repetitive. For example, with *ojos,* you can do the following:

1. Point to your own eyes
2. Ask the students to point to their own eyes
3. Ask students to point to your eyes (or a classmate‘s)

(And as a comprehension check, you can point to your tummy and see if your students try to correct you.)

This technique also works for all the other parts of the body. The *nariz* (nose) for everything he smells: freshly

baked bread, flowers at the park and the smoke from cars. *Orejas* (ears) for everything that catches his attention: the sound of cars honking, the tumult at the market and the powerful blasts of a plane taking off. You can actually set your story so little Billy, the main character, can interact and visit places that will give you maximum opportunity to repeat the meaningful words and phrases. The plot is but a vehicle, so don't worry so much about it.

7

2. Simon Says with a Twist

A vocabulary-oriented game like Simon Says is analogous to the process that takes place as children acquire their first language. Adults often give instructions to kids, like –throw the ball‖ –come here‖ or —eat your chicken.‖ (By virtue of repetition and validation—and gesturing—children are able to figure out what mommy wanted done.) In this activity, you organize the class into two groups. You can go boys vs. girls (always a hit!) or any grouping you want. Each group sends a representative for every round. They stand at the back of the class, near the wall, with their eyes fixed on you. You will play –Simon‖ and come up with creative commands and actions with which your students would then have to perform. So in a French class you might say, –*Sautez trois fois!*‖ (Jump three times) or –*Pleurez*!‖ (cry). The student who gives the correct response gets to take a step forward towards the –Finish Line.‖ Reaching the finish line first wins 1 point for the team. The team who gets 5 points first wins the game.

Not everyone gets to play each time, but spectators will not only get to cheer their team, they'll also learn the target language in the process.

Play this game often and you will have natural rivalries arise. And that's also when the learning really heats up.

3. The Amazing Race

I'm sure you've seen "The Amazing Race" on TV. But with this activity, you don't have to send the class on a thrilling trip around the world. You only have to send them off to do some task or demonstrate comprehension by performing prescribed motions. (With TPR, you can always check for comprehension because you can just look at their actions.) Group the class into four or five teams. Each team would ideally be composed of three to four players. The tasks that you choose to give your students are only limited by your imagination—but instead of writing out the tasks, give them verbally. For example, one task can be a "bring me" scenario and you can tell the teams in your Spanish class to bring you an *amarillo* (yellow) object. Or you can ask the class to *griten* (shout) their favorite color. You can go outside the classroom for this activity and have it in the schoolyard. You can tell your students to bring in the garbage bins (two birds with one stone, if you ask me), pick up twenty dried leaves, arrange flower pots in a line, etc. You can ask the groups to dance the cha-cha, move to the "Macarena" or sing "Happy Birthday." With "The Amazing Race" as one of your activities, your class will be racing to language acquisition.

4. TPR Theater



This one‘s for those a little bit advanced in the target language since –TPR Theater‖ has some improv added into the mix. It is, for all intents and purposes, an impromptu play. Your role as the teacher is to narrate and move the story forward by telling the characters in front of the class what they need to do. Think of yourself as a benevolent narrator and puppet master where the bit players are to do your every bidding. Okay, first things first. Determine what your play will be. Is it a love story? An epic adventure? A contemporary comedy? Knowing this will dictate the number of characters, the nature of events in the story and their reactions to it. Let‘s say you have a love story. You should then have at least two students to play the role of lovers, and perhaps another one to function as a foil and complete the love triangle. Or, if you want to have more students in the play, you can create characters like the evil mother-in-law, the jealous friend and the nervous aunt. (But don‘t involve everybody in the play, otherwise there‘ll be no audience. Those who don‘t play parts in the drama today will get their chance to strut out their acting chops the next time.) So for example, say there‘s one particular scene where the lovers are bonding at the park. In a German class you might bark some

funny instructions to your bit players, like –*kneife sie in die Wange!*‖ (pinch her nose) or *"kitzle sie...*‖ (tickle her…) Again, in this case, where the plot takes you or how it ends doesn't really matter. These are not the most important things so don't obsess over them. The whole affair is really just an excuse to practice the target language. So keep it light. Help the students if they have comprehension difficulties. Don't be afraid to drop everything midway if it means explaining something about the target language.

5. Action Songs for the Whole Class



Action songs are actually TPR–but with music. Children love them. They add melody and cadence that the brain can latch on to. They are the perfect memory aids that can effectively embed language and movement into the long-term memory. Singing together as a class is a great memory-enhancing tool. Did you notice that even as adults, we find it hard to jettison the nursery rhymes and songs of our childhood? It may have been 40 years ago, but they are as fresh as the morning we learned it in class. So lead the class in action songs (here's a great listing of children's songs and rhymes by language, by the way). But you don't have to rely on the nursery classics for action songs. The classics all began

with a creative teacher, alone her room, coming up with gestures to accompany the lines. You can create actions for any song that you want, including pop music in the target language.

First, determine the important words in the song. That is, the words you want to embed into your students‘ memories. (Don‘t gesture out each word in the song, that‘ll be too overwhelming.) Second, pick the appropriate accompanying gestures for your words. The action may seem obvious for words like‖jump,‖ –look,‖ –laugh,‖ etc. But how about when the song has words like –hope‖ or –integrity‖? These will force you to be creative and think outside the box. You‘ll have to think of situations in which –hope‖ or –integrity‖ is displayed or practiced. –Hope‖ is displayed during prayer, for example, by people hoping to get prayers answered. So your action can perhaps be interlacing fingers, just like a prayer position. –Integrity‖ is often displayed by someone giving a persuasive speech. Your action can then be a pounding fist. Remember, the gestures need not be spot on. They only need to be a semblance of the thing they signify. When coming up with actions to go with your song, aside from creativity, go for a little bit of exaggeration. Take the word –see‖ for example. Instead of simply pointing to your eyes, mimic a telescoping gesture or place a horizontal palm above your eyebrow and swing your neck from left to right, looking out into the distance. It makes the lyrics of the song more vivid and more engaging for your students. And speaking of lyrics, don‘t teach the songs line-by-line or distribute lyrics (if possible). Instead, teach the song as a whole—with music and the accompanying gestures. The goal here is not to make the students memorize the lyrics. It‘s

to let them understand what they are singing about: comprehension. So those are your five classroom TPR activities. Try them in your language class and set language acquisition on fire. Because nothing is as rewarding as seeing your students pick up a beautiful language.

9. **Hand Held Response Cards**
   Distribute (or ask students to create) standardized cards that can be held aloft as visual responses to instructor questions. Example: green card for true, red for false. Or hand-write a giant letter on each card to use in multiple choice questions.

10. **Student Polling**
    Select some students to travel the room, polling the others on a topic relevant to the course, then report back the results for everyone.
11. **Self-Assessment of Ways of Learning**
    Prepare a questionnaire for students that probes what kind of learning style they use,so the course can match visual/aural/tactile learning styles.
12. **Quote Minus One**
    Provide a quote relevant to your topic but leave out a crucial word and ask students to guess what it might be: —I cannot forecast to you the action of_____; it is a riddle, wrapped in a mystery, inside an enigma.‖ This engages them quickly in a topic and makes them feel invested.
13. **Everyday Ethical Dilemmas**
    Present an abbreviated case study with an ethical dilemma related to the discipline being studied.
14. Polar Opposites

Ask the class to examine two written-out versions of a theory (or corollary, law of nature, etc.), where one is incorrect, such as the opposite or a negation of the other. In deciding which is correct, students will have to examine the problem from all
angles.

15. **Pop Culture**
    Infuse your lectures, case studies, sample word problems for use during class with current events from the pop culture world. Rather than citing statistics for housing construction, for instance, illustrate the same statistical concept you are teaching by inventing statistics about something students gossip about, like how often a certain pop star appears in public without make-up.

16. **Make Them Guess**
    Introduce a new subject by asking an intriguing question, something that few will know the answer to (but should interest all of them). Accept blind guessing for a while before giving the answer to build curiosity.
17. **Make It Personal**
    Design class activities (or even essays) to address the real lives of the individual students. Instead of asking for reflections on Down's Syndrome, ask for personal stories of neurologicalproblems by a family member or anyone they have ever met.
18. **Read Aloud**
    Choose a small text (500 words or less) to read aloud, and ask students to pay particular attention during this phase of lecture. A small text read orally in a larger lecture can focus attention.
19. Punctuated Lectures

Ask student to perform five steps: listen, stop, reflect, write, give feedback. Students become self-monitoring listeners.

20. **Word of the Day**
    Select an important term and highlight it throughout the class
    session, working it into as many concepts as possible. Challenge students to do the same in their interactive activities.
21. **Recall, Summarize, Question, Connect, and Comment**
    This method of starting each session (or each week) has five steps to reinforce the previous session's material: recall it, summarize it, phrase a remaining question, connect it to the class as a whole, and comment on that class session.

22. Focused Listing
    List several ideas related to the main focus point. Helpful for starting new topics.
23. **Background Knowledge Probe**
    Use questionnaire (multi-choice or short answer) when introducing a new topic.
24. Goal Ranking and Matching
    Students rank their goals for the class, then instructor combines those with her own list.
25. Interest/Knowledge/Skills Checklist
    Assesses interest and preparation for the course, and can help adjust teaching agenda.
26. **Documented Problem Solutions**
    Keep track of the steps needed to solve specific types of problems. Model a list for students first and then

ask them to perform similar steps. Instructor Action: Lecture (Small Class Size)

27. Pass the Chalk
    Provide chalk or a soft toy; whoever has it must answer your next question, and they pass it on to the student of their choice.

28. Quaker Meeting
    Students highlight key passages of the reading, and there is silence (like a Quaker meeting) until someone wants to read his/her out, and others follow. End with brief writing about what they learned from the sentences.

29. **Town Hall Meeting**
    Abdicate the front of the room for a student willing to speak out on a controversial subject, and when she is done with her comment, she selects the next speaker from the hands raised.

30. **The Half Class Lecture**
    Divide the class in half and provide reading material to one half. Lecture on that same material to the other half of the class. Then, switch the groups and repeat, ending with a recap by pairing up members of opposite groups.

31. Tournament
    Divide the class into at least two groups and announce a competition for most points on a practice test. Let them study a topic together and then give that quiz, tallying points. After each round, let them study the next topic before quizzing again. The points should be carried over from round to round. The student impulse for competition will focus their engagement onto the

material itself. Student Action: Individual (many of these can be used as partnerwork or groupwork instead; or may escalate to that after some individual effort)

32. **One-Minute Papers**
    Students write for one minute on a specific question (which might be generalized to –what was the most important thing you learned today‖). Best used at the end of the class session.
33. Ask the Winner
    Ask students to silently solve a problem on the board. After revealing the answer, instruct those who got it right to raise their hands (and keep them raised); then, all other students are to talk to someone with a raised hand to better understand the question and how to solve it next time.

34. **Simulation**
    Provides students with activities that are designed to provide lifelike problem-solving experiences. They provide a representation of some phenomenon, event, or issue that actually exists or existed in the real world. It can represent historical events, international affairs, family problems, military operations, schools, politics, or any activity. They permit students to perform vicariously expressive roles in decision making. It provides participants with an illusion of involvement in reality



35. Bookmark Notes

Distribute full-length paper to be used as a bookmark for the
current chapter. On it, record prompts and other –reading questions‖, and require students to record their notes, observations, and objections while reading onto these bookmarks for collection and discussion in class.



Chapter 6
Variety of Classroom Activities[25]



A. Interactive Classroom Activities

Students learn through their participation in the attainment of knowledge by gathering information and processing it by solving problems and articulating what they have discovered. Each activity below provides students with opportunities to deepen their learning by applying concepts and articulating new knowledge and many of these activities also provide the instructor feedback about the students‘ learning.

1. Entry/Exit Tickets

Entry & Exit tickets are short prompts that provide instructors with a quick student diagnostic. These exercises can be collected on 3x5 cards, small pieces of paper, or online through a survey or course management system. ***Entry tickets*** focus

[25] Brown University. Providence, Rhode Island 02912, USA. 2016

student attention on the day‘s topic or ask students to recall background knowledge relevant to the day‘s lesson: e.g., –Based on the readings for class today, what is your understanding of _____?‖ ***Exit tickets*** collect feedback on students‘ understanding at the end of a class and provide the students with an opportunity to reflect on what they have learned. They can be helpful in prompting the student to begin to synthesize and integrate the information gained during a class period. For example, a muddiest point prompt: –What was the muddiest point in today‘s class?‖ or –What questions do you still have about today‘s lecture?‖.

Advantages of entrance and exit tickets include: participation of each student, prompt for students to focus on key concepts and ideas, a high return of information for the amount of time invested, important feedback for the instructor that can be useful to guide teaching decisions (e.g., course pacing, quick clarification of small misunderstandings, identification of student interests and questions).

2. **Free Writing/Minute Paper/Question of the Day Exercise**

These are activities that prompt students to write a response to an open question and can be done at any time during a class. Writing activities are usually

1-2 minutes, and can focus on key questions and ideas or ask students to make predictions. These activities give students the opportunity to organize their own thoughts, or can be collected by the teacher to gain feedback from the students. Advantages include developing students' abilities to think holistically and critically, and improving their writing skills.

3. **Ice Breakers**

   Ice Breakers are low-stakes activities that get students to interact and talk to each other, and encourage subsequent classroom interactions. They can be useful at the beginning of the semester: for example, asking students to introduce themselves to each other and what they would like to learn in the course. Advantages of icebreakers include: participation of each student, the creation of a sense of community and focusing students' attention on material that will be covered during the class period.

4. **Think–Pair–Share**

   This type of activity first asks students to consider a question on their own, and then provides an opportunity for students to discuss it in pairs, and finally together with the whole class. The success of these activities depends on the nature of the questions posed. This activity works ideally with questions to encourage deeper thinking, problem-solving, and/or critical analysis. The group

discussions are critical as they allow students to articulate their thought processes.

The procedure is as follows:

1. Pose a question, usually by writing it on the board or projecting it.
2. Have students consider the question on their own (1 – 2 min).
3. Then allow the students form groups of 2-3 people.
4. Next, have students discuss the question with their partner and share their ideas and/or contrasting opinions (3 min).
5. Re-group as a whole class and solicit responses from some or all of the pairs (3 min).

   Advantages of the think-pair-share include the engagement of all students in the classroom (particularly the opportunity to give voice to quieter students who might have difficulty sharing in a larger group), quick feedback for the instructor (e.g., the revelation of student misconceptions), encouragement and support for higher levels of thinking of the students.

5. Case Studies and Problem-Based Learning

Case studies are scenarios that apply concepts learned in class to a ―real-life‖ situation. They are usually presented in narrative form and often involve problem-solving, links to course readings or source materials, and discussions by groups of

students, or the entire class. Usually, case studies are most effective if they are presented sequentially, so that students receive additional information as the case unfolds, and can continue to analyze or critique the situation/problem.

Guiding questions lead students through the activity. The questions should be designed to develop student's critical thinking by asking students to distinguish between fact and assumptions, and critically analyze both the process they take in solving the case study as well as the solution itself. Example questions include:

- What is the situation? What questions do you have?
- What problem(s) need to be solved? What are some solution strategies? Evaluate pros/cons and underlying assumptions of these strategies.
- What information do you need? Where/how could you find it?
- What criteria will you use to evaluate your solution?

There are many collections of case studies publically available in a variety of disciplines.

6. ***Problem-based learning*** activities are similar to case studies but usually focus on quantitative problems. In some cases the problems are designed to introduce the material as well as provide students with a deeper learning opportunity. The advantages

of problem-based learning activities and case studies include developing students problem solving and decision making skills, develop student‘s critical thinking skills encouraging critical reflection and enabling the appreciation of ambiguity in situations.

7. **Debate**

Engaging in collaborative discourse and argumentation enhances student‘s conceptual understandings and refines their reasoning abilities. Stage a debate exploiting an arguable divide in the day‘s materials. Give teams time to prepare, and then put them into argument with a team focused on representing an opposing viewpoint. Advantages include practice in using the language of the discipline and crafting evidence-based reasoning in their arguments.



8. **Interview or Role Play**

Members of the class take the part or perspective of historical figures, authors, or other characters and must interact from their perspective. Breakdown the role play into specific tasks to keep students

organized and to structure them so that the content you want to cover is addressed. Preparation work can be assigned for outside of class, so clearly communicating your expectations is essential. Advantages include motivation to solve a problem or to resolve a conflict for the character, providing a new perspective through which students can explore or understand an issue and the development of skills, such as writing, leadership, coordination, collaboration and research.



9. Interactive Demonstrations

Interactive demonstrations can be used in lectures to demonstrate the application of a concept, a skill, or to act out a process. The exercise should not be passive; you should plan and structure your demonstration to incorporate opportunities for students to reflect and analyze the process.

a. Introduce the goal and description of the demonstration.

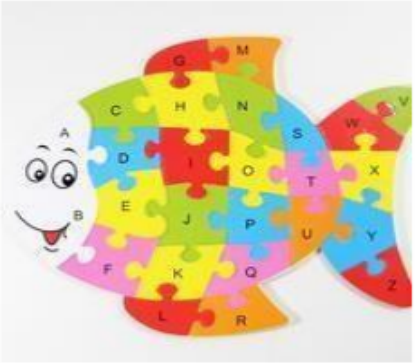
b. Have students think-pair-share (see above) to discuss what they predict may happen, or to analyze the situation at hand (—pre-demonstrationl state or situation).
c. Conduct the demonstration.
d. Students discuss and analyze the outcome (either in pairs/small groups, or as a whole class), based on their initial predictions/interpretations.

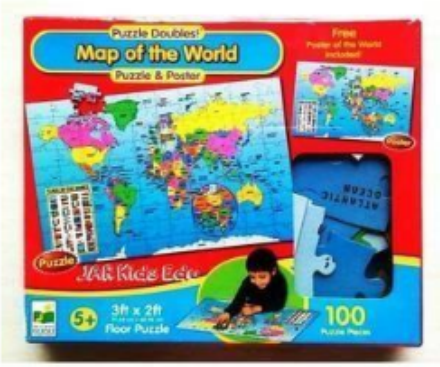
Advantages of interactive demonstrations include novel visualizations of the material and allowing students to probe their own understanding by asking if they can predict the outcome of the demo. They are also a venue for providing applications of ideas or concepts.

10. Jigsaw

A Jigsaw is a cooperative active learning exercise where students are grouped into teams to solve a problem or analyze a reading. These can be done in one of two ways – either each team works on completing a different portion of the assignment and then contributes their knowledge to the class as a whole, or within each group, one student is assigned to a portion of the assignment (the jigsaw comes from the bringing together the various ideas at the end of the activity to produce a solution to the problem). In a jigsaw the activity must be divided into several equal parts, each of which is necessary to solving a problem, or answering a

question. Example activities include implementing experiments, small research projects, analyzing and comparing datasets, and working with professional literature.





The advantages of the jigsaw include the ability to explore substantive problems or readings, the engagement of all students with the material and in the process of working together, learning from each other, and sharing and critical analyzing a diversity of ideas.

B. Simple activities to encourage physical activity in the classroom

1. **Secret Password:**
   Every day establish a secret password activity such as 5 jumping jacks, stand on one foot for 5 seconds, hop three times, etc. Then establish when the student needs to use the secret password - i.e. after a drink of water, before receiving a hand out, when entering the classroom, in between subjects, etc.
2. Walking Worksheets:
   Tape worksheets on wall, easel and chalkboard. Students move from worksheet to worksheet and answer the different questions.
3. **Opposite Hunt:**
   Divide the class in half. Half of the class write a word on an index card. The other half writes the definition. Shuffle the cards and hand one card to each student. The students must move around the classroom and match the word with the definition. For younger students match up sight words, letter or numbers. Try math problems and solutions.
4. **Pencil Jumps: For a quick movement break in between** lessons have each student place a pencil on the floor Jump over the pencil a designated number of times.
5. Race in Place: When reviewing material, have the students stand up and run in place by their desks. On the teachers signal, student stops running in place, listens to question and writes down the answer on paper

6. Daily Rule: Establish a new daily rule every day that includes physical activity e. walk backwards to water fountain, tip toe to the bathroom, stretch before sitting in chair, See if you can catch the students forgetting the daily rule.
7. Shredder: Cut up worksheets in quarters. Students can help scatter the worksheets around the floor face down. On the teachers signal, the students can crawl around the floor, find the four quarters of the worksheet, complete the worksheet and give it to teacher

8. **Push Up Line Up:**
   When the students line up against **the** wall to leave the classroom, have each student face the wall and perform 10 wall push ups. After all push ups completed the class can walk in the line.
9. Mobile Math: Divide the class in half to review math problems. The students can stand at their desks (paper and pencil on desk). Call out a math problem such as 4+5=. One half of the class jumps 4 times and the other half jumps five times. Each student writes down answer on paper, Continue with other math problems. Vary movements.

10. **Q and A Stretching:**
    Provide students with paper at desk. Students can stand or sit. Ask a question and student writes

down the answer (very large) on one sheet of paper. Each student holds paper up, with two hands overhead to stretch. Teacher checks answers. Multiple choice questions work best. Looking for more motor activity ideas?? Visit

Index

Kurikulum 29
Grammar Translation Method 34, 152
Situational Method 36
Communicative Method 37
Communicative Language Teaching 39
English Teachers‘ Competence 39
Communicative Competence 45
Instructional Planning 51
Syllabus Design 65
Approach 57
Lesson Planning 80
RPP 93
Seating Arrangement 100
Instructional Media 121
Teaching Strategies 140
Method 151
Technique 170
Activity 185
Language Test 196
Evaluation 196
Assessment 197
Marking Criteria 224
Scoring Scheme 225
Analytical Scoring 225
Holistic Scoring 226
Banding system 253
Scales 258Language Components 266

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Appendix 1
Example of Lesson Plan

RENCANA PELAKSANAAN PEMBELAJARAN
(RPP)

Satuan Pendidikan : SMP
Mata Pelajaran : Bahasa Inggris
Kelas/semester : VII/2 (dua)
Materi Pokok : Teks Lisan dan Tulis untuk Menanyakan dan Menyatakan SifatOrang
Alokasi Waktu : 1 x pertemuan (2 JP)

A. Kompetensi Inti

KI 1 : Menghargai dan menghayati ajaran agama yang dianutnya

KI 2 : Menghargai dan menghayati perilaku jujur, disiplin, tanggungjawab, peduli (toleransi, gotongroyong), santun, percaya diri, dalam berinteraksi secara efektif dengan lingkungan sosial dan alam dalam jangkauan pergaulan dan keberadaannya

KI 3 : Memahami pengetahuan (faktual, konseptual, dan prosedural) berdasarkan rasa ingin tahunya tentang ilmu pengetahuan, teknologi, seni, budaya terkait fenomena dan kejadian tampak

mata

B. **Kompetensi**

KI 4 : Mencoba, mengolah, dan menyaji dalam ranah konkret (menggunakan, mengurai, merangkai, memodifikasi, dan membuat) dan ranah abstrak (menulis, membaca,menghitung, menggambar, dan mengarang) sesuai dengan yang dipelajari di sekolah dan sumber lain yang sama dalam sudut pandang/teori

Dasar dan Indikator Pencapaian Kompetensi

No	Kompetensi Dasar		Indikator Pencapaian Kompetensi
1.	1.1	Mensyukuri kesempatan dapat mempelajari bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa pengantar komunikasi internasional yang diwujudkan dalam semangat belajar.	Menulis *learning log* yang mengungkapkan rasa syukur atas kesempatan dapat belajar bahasa Inggris dan manfaatnya
2.	2.2	Menunjukkan perilaku jujur, **disiplin**, percaya diri, dan **bertanggungjawab** dalam	1. Menyelesaikan tugas bahasa Inggris tepat waktu 2. Menyelesaikan tugas yang

		melaksanakan komunikasi transaksional dengan guru dan teman. (Cetak tebal: Fokus untuk pembelajaran dalam 1 RRP ini)	menjadi bagiannya dalam kerja kelompok 3. Datang tepat waktu pada saat mengerjakan tugas kelompok di luar jam pelajaran
3.	3.7	Memahami fungsi sosial, struktur teks, dan unsur kebahasaan pada teks untuk menyatakan dan menanyakan sifat orang, binatang, benda, sangat pendek dan sederhana, sesuai dengan konteks penggunaannya.	1. Menentukan tujuan komunikatif teks 2. Mengidentifikasi kata sifat (*adjective*) yang menggambarkan sifat orang, hewan, dan benda 3. Mengidentifikasi ungkapan atau pola kalimat dalam teks 4. Mengidentifikasi unsur kebahasaan dalam teks
4.	4.8	Menyusun teks lisan dan tulis untuk menyatakan dan menanyakan sifat orang, binatang, dan benda, dengan memperhatikan fungsi	1. Menanyakan sifat dan ciri fisik teman, hewan, dan benda secara lisan dengan akurat, lancar dan berterima

		sosial, struktur teks dan unsur kebahasaan yang benar dan sesuai konteks.	2. Menyatakan sifat dan ciri fisik teman,hewan, dan benda secaralisan dengan akurat, lancar dan berterima 3. Menanyakan sifat dan ciri fisik teman, hewan, dan benda secara tertulis dengan akurat, runtut dan berterima 4. Menyatakan sifat dan ciri fisik teman, hewan, dan benda secara tertulis dengan akurat, runtut dan berterima 5. Mendeskripsikan teman, hewan, dan benda secara lisan dengan akurat, lancer dan berterima 6. Mendeskripsikan teman, hewan, dan benda secara tertulis dengan akurat, runtut dan berterima

A. Tujuan Pembelajaran

Pertemuan Pertama

Setelah mengikuti serangkaian kegiatan pembelajaran, peserta didik dapat:

1. menyebutkan ciri-ciri fisik orang pada gambar secara lisan secara akurat, lancar dan berterima berdasarkan beberapa gambar,
2. menemukan arti kata (*adjective*) dan pola kalimat yang digunakan dengan benar berdasarkan pengamatan atas beberapa contoh dialog.
3. menanyakan sifat dan ciri fisik teman sekelasnya dengan akurat, lancar/runtut dan berterima bila diberikan kesempatan untuk mengidentifikasi karakteristik teman-teman sekelasnya,
4. menyatakan sifat dan ciri fisik teman sekelasnya dengan akurat, lancar/runtut dan berterima bila diberikan kesempatan untuk mengidentifikasi karakteristik teman-teman sekelasnya dengan bertanggung jawab
5. mendeskripsikan teman sekelasnya secara lisan dengan akurat, lancar dan berterima bila diberikan kesempatan untuk mengidentifikasi karakteristik teman-teman sekelasnya dengan bertanggung jawab,
6. mendeskripsikan teman sekelasnya secara tertulis dengan akurat, runtut dan berterima bila diberikan kesempatan untuk mengidentifikasi karakteristik teman-teman sekelasnya,

7. menebak teman yang dimaksud dengan tepat bila diberikan kesempatan untuk mengidentifikasi beberapa sifat dan ciri fisik teman sekelasnya.

B. Materi Pembelajaran
Pertemuan Pertama

Fungsi Sosial : Mendeskripsikan dan mengidentifikasikan orang

Struktur Teks :

- Kata sifat (*young, old, clever, diligent, tall, short, beautiful, kind, nice, cheerful, dsb.*)
- Bentuk ungkapan pendek (*They're, I'm*, dsb.)
- Kalimat/Ungkapan (*What is he like? What are they like?What do you think?How nice they are!She is very kind.He is very cheerful*)

Unsur Kebahasaan:

- Kata Tanya (*what, how, who*)
- Kata ganti (*this, that, he, she,they*, dsb.)
- Kata kerja dalam *the simple present tense*: *have, has, be*, dsb.
- Ucapan, tekanan kata, intonasi, ejaan, dan tulisan tangan.

Topik:

- Orang-orang yang berada di sekitar dan relevan dengan kehidupan siswa

C. Metode Pembelajaran

1. Metode Ilmiah
2. Pembelajaran Kontekstual

D. Sumber Belajar

1. Kementerian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan. 2013. Bahasa Inggris, *When English rings the bell*. Jakarta: Politeknik Negri Media Kreatif. Hal. 125.
2. Lingkungan sekitar: Nama dan lokasi lingkungan sekitar sekolah

E. Media Pembelajaran

1. **Media** : gambar orang
2. **Alat dan bahan** : **teka-teki silang**

F. Langkah-langkah Kegiatan Pembelajaran

Pertemuan Pertama

Pendahuluan (10 menit)

1) Guru member salam (*greeting*);
2) Guru memeriksa kehadiran siswa;
3) Guru menyiapkan peserta didik secara psikis dan fisik untuk mengikuti proses pembelajaran;
4) Guru memberi motivasi belajar siswa secara kontekstual sesuai manfaat dan aplikasi materi ajar dalam kehidupan sehari-hari, dengan memberikan contoh dan perbandingan lokal, nasional dan internasional;
5) Guru mengajukan tentang kaitan antara pengetahuan sebelumnya dengan materi yang akan dipelajari;

6) Guru menjelaskan tentang tujuan pembelajaran atau kompetensi dasar yang akan dicapai;
7) Guru menyampaikan cakupan materi dan uraian kegiatan sesuai silabus.

Kegiatan inti (60 menit)
Mengamati

1) Peserta didik memperhatikan gambar yang akan disajikan dan mendengarkan cerita guru tentang isi gambar tersebut.
2) Peserta didik membuat catatan-catatan kecil berdasarkan cerita guru.
3) Peserta didik bergiliran menceritakan isi gambar tersebut berdasarkan contoh yang diberikan oleh guru.

Menanya

4) Peserta didik menggarisbawahi kata sifat yang terdapat dalam dialog dengan pertanyaan pengarah dari guru.

Mengumpulkan data/informasi

5) Peserta didik menemukanjawaban teka-teki silang yang diberikan, berupa beberapa kata sifat
6) Peserta didik menirukan cara pengucapan kata, dialog dan atau kalimat yang dipelajari.
7) Peserta didik menirukan cara menanyakan sifat atau ciri fisik seseorang dan cara menjawabnya.

8) Peserta didik mendeskripsikan salah seorang teman sekelasnya secara lisan berdasarkan kata sifat yang telah ditemukan.

Mengasosiasi/Mengolah Informasi

9) Peserta didik bekerja berkelompok untuk menuliskan ungkapan-ungkapan yang dipergunakan dalam menanyakan dan menyatakan sifat atau ciri fisik seseorang.
10) Peserta didik bekerja dalam kelompok untuk menemukan fungsi sosial teks tersebut dengan bantuan guru.

Mengomunikasikan

11) Peserta didik mempresentasikan pola ungkapan, unsur kebahasaan (kata sifat), ucapan, fungsi komunikasi dan struktur teks yang dihasilkan.

Mencipta

12) Peserta didik menuliskan deskripsi sangat sederhana tentang sifat dan ciri fisik salah seorang temannya.

5

Penutup (10 menit)

1) Peserta didik dan guru melakukan refleksi terhadap kegiatan pembelajaran dan manfaat-manfaatnya.
2) Peserta didik dan guru memberikan umpan balik terhadap proses dan hasil pembelajaran.
3) Peserta didik menerima tugas mandiri untuk menceritakan orang-orang di sekitarnya sebagai tindak lanjut kegiatan pembelajaran.

4) Peserta didik memperhatikan informasi tentang rencana kegiatan pembelajaran untuk pertemuan berikutnya.
5) Peserta didik dan guru mengucapkan salam penutup.

G. Penilaian

1. Sikap spiritual
   a. Teknik Penilaian : Tertulis
   b. Bentuk Instrumen : Learning Journal
   c. Kisi-kisi :
   d.

No	Sikap/nilai	Butir Instrumen
1.	Menulis learning log tentang kesyukuran berkesempatan belajar Bahasa Inggris	Lampiran 1

   e. Instrumen: lihat Lampiran ...
   f. Rubrik Penilaian Sikap Spiritual

2. Pedoman Pensekoran:
   a.

No	Indikator	Skor
1	Menggunakan 8 kata positif dan dua diantaranya adalah kata –God‖ dan –Thank‖	5
2	Menggunakan 6 kata positif dan dua diantaranya adalah kata –God‖ dan –Thank‖	4

3	Menggunakan 4 kata positif dan dua diantaranya adalah kata –God‖ dan –Thank‖	3
4	Menggunakan 4 kata positif tanpa kata –God‖ dan –Thank‖	2
5	Menggunakan kurang dari 4 kata positif tanpa kata –God‖ dan –Thank‖	1

$$\text{NA} = \frac{Skor\ Perolehan}{Skor\ Maksimal} \text{X } 4$$

Konversi Kompetensi Pengetahuan, Keterampilan dan Sikap

Predikat	**Nilai Kompetensi**		
	Pengetahuan	Keterampilan	Sikap
A	4	4	SB
A-	3.66	3.66	
B+	3.66	3.66	B
B	3	3	
B-	2.66	2.66	
C+	2.33	2.33	C
C	2	2	
C-	1.66	1.66	
D+	1.33	1.33	K
D-	1	1	

3. Sikap sosial

a. Teknik Penilaian : Penilaian sejawat (antar teman)

b. Bentuk Instrumen : Lembar *Peer Assessment*

c. Kisi-kisi :

No	Sikap/nilai	Butir Instrumen
1.	Memberikan penilaian terhadap teman tentang nilai disiplin dan tanggung jawab	Lampiran Penilaian Sikap1-3

d. Instrumen: lihat *Lampiran ...*

e. Rubrik Penilaian Sikap Sosial

Keterangan:

 = 2

always

= 1 

often

 = 0,5

seldom

Contoh : Mencentang untuk seluruh pernyataan.



= 2 + 2 + 2 = Skor 6
Bila mencentang:



= 2 + 2 + 1 = Skor 5, dst.
Bila mencentang:



= 2 + 1 + 0,5 = Skor 3,5

f. Pedoman Penskoran

$$NA = \frac{Skor\ Perolehan}{Skor\ Maksimal} X\ 4$$

Konversi Kompetensi Pengetahuan, Keterampilan dan Sikap

Predikat	Nilai Kompetensi		
	Pengetahuan	Keterampilan	Sikap
A	4	4	SB
A-	3.66	3.66	
B+	3.66	3.66	B
B	3	3	
B-	2.66	2.66	

C+	2.33	2.33	C
C	2	2	
C-	1.66	1.66	
D+	1.33	1.33	K
D-	1	1	

18

4. Pengetahuan

a. Teknik Penilaian : Tes Tertulis
b. Bentuk Instrumen : Pilihan Ganda
c. Kisi-kisi :

No	Indikator	Butir Instrumen
1.	Disajikan teks bergambar tentang sifat atau ciri fisik orang, hewan, dan atau benda, siswa dapat menentukan fungsi sosialnya dengan benar.	Soal No. 1 dan 2
2.	Disajikan sebuah kalimat dengan beberapa kata digarisbawahi, siswa dapat menentukan kata sifatnya dengan tepat	Soal No. 3
3.	Disajikan pertanyaan yang mengandung sifat atau ciri fisik hewan tertentu, siswa dapat menentukan gambarnya dengan tepat.	Soal No. 4

4.	Disajikan sebuah kalimat tidak lengkap dan gambar yang relevan, siswa dapat melengkapinya dengan kata sifat yang tepat.	Soal No. 5

d. Instrumen: lihat *Lampiran* ...

e. Pedoman penskoran: Setiap jawaban benar diberi skor 1 (satu)

$$\text{NA} = \frac{Skor\ Perolehan}{Skor\ Maksimal} \text{X } 4$$

Konversi Kompetensi Pengetahuan, Keterampilan dan Sikap

Predikat	**Nilai Kompetensi**		
	Pengetahuan	Keterampilan	Sikap
A	4	4	SB
A-	3.66	3.66	
B+	3.66	3.66	B
B	3	3	
B-	2.66	2.66	
C+	2.33	2.33	C
C	2	2	
C-	1.66	1.66	
D+	1.33	1.33	K
D-	1	1	

18

5. Keterampilan

a. Teknik Penilaian : Unjuk Kerja

b. Bentuk Instrumen :
Tes Keterampilan Menulis, Membaca dan berbicara

c. Kisi-kisi:

No	Keterampilan/Indikator	Butir Instrumen
Menulis		
1.	Disajikan sebuah jawaban pesan singkat tentang menyatakan dan menanyakan sifat orang, binatang, dan benda, siswa dapat menuliskan pesan singkat pertanyaannya dengan akurat, runtut dan berterima.	Soal No. 6
2.	Disajikan sebuah jawaban pesan singkat tentang menyatakan dan menanyakan sifat orang, binatang, dan benda, siswa dapat menuliskan pesan singkat pertanyaannya dengan akurat, runtut dan berterima.	Soal No. 7
3.	Disajikan sebuah teks sederhana tentang menyatakan dan menanyakan sifat orang, binatang, dan benda serta 4 (empat) buah gambar, siswa dapat menentukan salah satu gambar yang	Soal No. 8

	dideskripsikan dengan tepat.	
4.	Diperdengarkan sebuah teks sederhana tentang menyatakan dan menanyakan sifat orang, binatang, dan benda serta 4 (empat) buah gambar, siswa dapat menentukan salah satu gambar yang dideskripsikan dengan tepat.	Soal No. 9 dan 10
5.	Disajikan sebuah situasi sederhana, siswa dapat menanyakan sifat atau ciri fisik temannya dengan lancar, runtut dan berterima.	Soal No. A.1
6.	Disajikan sebuah situasi sederhana, siswa dapat Menyatakan sifat atau ciri temannya dengan lancar, runtut dan berterima.	Soal No. A.2
7.	Siswa dapat mendeskripsikan temannya dan meminta teman lain untuk menebaknya dengan akurat, lancar dan berterima.	Soal No. A.3
8.	Siswa dapat mendeskripsikan benda kesayangannya secara lisan di depan kelas dengan	Soal No. A.3

	akurat, lancar dan berterima.	
9.	Siswa dapat menuliskan deskripsi rumahnya dalam bentuk teks sangat sederhana secrata akurat, runtut dan berterima.	Soal No. B

d. Instrumen: lihat *Lampiran ...*

e. Rubrik Tes Keterampilan Menulis (Soal No. 6 dan 7)

No	Aspek yang Dinilai	Kriteria	Skor
1	Kesesuaian isi dengan tujuan penulisan pesan	100% isi sesuai	5
		80% isi sesuai	4
		60% isi sesuai	3
		40% isi sesuai	2
		20% isi sesuai	1
2	Pilihan kata	100% pilihan kata tepat	5
		80% pilihan kata tepat	4
		60% pilihan kata tepat	3
		40% pilihan kata tepat	2
		20% pilihan kata tepat	1
3	Penulisan kosa kata	100% penulisan kosa kata tepat	5
		80% penulisan kosa kata tepat	4
		60% penulisan kosa kata tepat	3
		40% penulisan kosa kata tepat	2
		20% penulisan kosa	1

		kata tepat	
4	Ketepatan tata bahasa	100% penggunaan tata bahasa tepat	5
		80% penggunaan tata bahasa tepat	4
		60% penggunaan tata bahasa tepat	3
		40% penggunaan tata bahasa tepat	2
		20% penggunaan tata bahasa tepat	1

f. Cara penilaian

g. Pedoman Penskoran

$$\text{NA} = \frac{Skor\ Perolehan}{Skor\ Maksimal} \text{X } 4$$

Konversi Kompetensi Pengetahuan, Keterampilan dan Sikap

Predikat	**Nilai Kompetensi**		
	Pengetahuan	Keterampilan	Sikap
A	4	4	SB
A-	3.66	3.66	
B+	3.66	3.66	B
B	3	3	
B-	2.66	2.66	
C+	2.33	2.33	C
C	2	2	
C-	1.66	1.66	
D+	1.33	1.33	K

D-	1	1	

h. Konversi keterampilan membaca dan mendengarkan, soal No. 8 – 10.
Setiap jawaban benar diberi skor 1 (satu)

$$\text{NA} = \frac{Skor\ Perolehan}{Skor\ Maksimal} \text{X } 4$$

Konversi Kompetensi Pengetahuan, Keterampilan dan Sikap

Predikat	**Nilai Kompetensi**		
	Pengetahuan	Keterampilan	Sikap
A	4	4	SB
A-	3.66	3.66	
B+	3.66	3.66	B
B	3	3	
B-	2.66	2.66	
C+	2.33	2.33	C
C	2	2	
C-	1.66	1.66	
D+	1.33	1.33	K
D-	1	1	

i. Rubrik untuk penilaian keterampilan berbicara

ASPEK	**KETERANGAN**	**SKOR**

Pelafalan	• Sangat jelas sehingga mudah dipahami	4 3
	• Mudah dipahami meskipun pengaruh bahasa ibu dapat dideteksi	2 1
	• Ada masalah pengucapan sehingga pendengar perlu konsentrasi penuh	
	• Ada masalah pengucapan yang serius sehingga tidak bisa dipahami	
Tata bahasa	• Tidak ada atau sedikit kesalahan tatabahasa	4 3
	• Kadang-kadang ada kesalahan tetapi tidak mempengaruhi makna	2 1
	• Sering membuat kesalahan sehingga makna sulit dipahami	
	• Kesalahan tatabahasa sangat parah sehingga tidak bisa dipahami	
Kosakata	• Menggunakan kosakata dan ungkapan yang tepat	4 3 2
	• Kadang-kadang	

	menggunakan kosakata yang kurang tepat sehingga harus menjelaskan lagi • Sering menggunakan kosakata yang tidak tepat • Kosakata sangat terbatas sehingga percakapan tidak mungkin terjadi	1
Kelancaran	• Sangat lancar. • Kelancaran sedikit terganggu oleh masalah bahasa • Sering ragu-ragu dan terhenti karena keterbatasan bahasa • Bicara terputus-putus dan terhenti sehingga percakapan tidak mungkin terjadi.	4 3 2 1

j. Pedoman Penskoran:

$$\text{NA} = \frac{Skor\ Perolehan}{Skor\ Maksimal} \text{X } 4$$

Konversi Kompetensi Pengetahuan, Keterampilan dan Sikap

Predikat	Nilai Kompetensi		
	Pengetahuan	Keterampilan	Sikap
A	4	4	SB
A-	3.66	3.66	
B+	3.66	3.66	B
B	3	3	
B-	2.66	2.66	
C+	2.33	2.33	C
C	2	2	
C-	1.66	1.66	
D+	1.33	1.33	K
D-	1	1	

k. Rubrik untuk penilaian keterampilan menulis

No	Aspek yang Dinilai	Kriteria	Skor
1	Kesesuaian isi dengan tujuan penulisan pesan	100% isi sesuai	5
		80% isi sesuai	4
		60% isi sesuai	3
		40% isi sesuai	2
		20% isi sesuai	1
2	Pilihan kata	100% pilihan kata tepat	5
		80% pilihan kata tepat	4
		60% pilihan kata tepat	3
		40% pilihan kata tepat	2
		20% pilihan	1

		kata tepat	
3	Keterpaduan kalimat	100% kalimat terpadu dan runtut	5
		80% kalimat terpadu dan runtut	4
		60% kalimat terpadu dan runtut	3
		40% kalimat terpadu dan runtut	2
		20% kalimat terpadu dan runtut	1
4	Penulisan kosa kata	100% penulisan kosa kata tepat	5
		80% penulisan kosa kata tepat	4
		60% penulisan kosa kata tepat	3
		40% penulisan kosa kata tepat	2
		20% penulisan kosa kata tepat	1
5	Ketepatan tata bahasa	100% penggunaan tata bahasa tepat	5
		80% penggunaan	4

		tata bahasa tepat	
		60% penggunaan tata bahasa tepat	3
		40% penggunaan tata bahasa tepat	2
		20% penggunaan tata bahasa tepat	1
6	Originalitas penulisan	100% tulisan hasil pemikiran sendiri	5
		80% tulisan hasil pemikiran sendiri	4
		60% tulisan hasil pemikiran sendiri	3
		40% tulisan hasil pemikiran sendiri	2
		20% tulisan hasil pemikiran sendiri	1

l. penskoran:

$$NA = \frac{Skor\ Perolehan}{Skor\ Maksimal} X\ 4$$

Konversi Kompetensi Pengetahuan, Keterampilan dan Sikap

Predikat	Nilai Kompetensi		
	Pengetahuan	Keterampilan	Sikap
A	4	4	SB
A-	3.66	3.66	
B+	3.66	3.66	B
B	3	3	
B-	2.66	2.66	
C+	2.33	2.33	C
C	2	2	
C-	1.66	1.66	
D+	1.33	1.33	K
D-	1	1	

Losarang, 24 Juni 2014

Mengetahui
Kepala Sekolah,

Guru Mata Pelajaran,

Lampiran 1: kegiatan pembuka

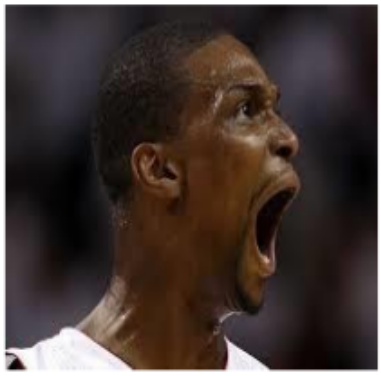












Lampiran 2 : kegiatan penutup
Post-test: Writing project

"Describe Other People"

Direction:

1. Tell students they are going to write a description
2. Elicit the things they can mention in their description and write a list on the board: e.g. name, age, nationality, height, hair, eyes, favourite music, sport, etc.
3. Students write their description individually.

Appendix 2
Example of English Syllabus

Sample Syllabus for English 102

Text in blue requires your review or refers to optional instructions that can be deleted.

<Instructor Name>
Office: <instructor's office>
English Department Mail Room: E & T 637
Office Hours: <instructor's office hours—80 minutes per week for each 4-unit class>
Campus Phone: <instructor's telephone number>
Email: <instructor's email address—this is optional>
Course Web Site: <URL for course materials—this is optional>

English 102: Composition II

Catalog Description

Composition II: Analytic and Persuasive Writing

Prerequisite: ENGL 101 or equivalent. Continuing to practice the rhetorical skills introduced in ENGL 101, students will analyze, interpret, and synthesize diverse texts in order to construct a well-supported, researched, academic argument. Graded A,B,C/NC.

Course Description

English 102 focuses on the conventions of academic writing, and the purpose of this course is to help students write convincing, well developed, and well organized essays that synthesize, document, and respond to various sources on a given topic.

Class Theme: Our theme for this quarter is Myth America. Within this unifying theme, we will be exploring identity formation, examining in particular the role played by myth and fairy tales. We will look at some of the ways in which myths and fairy tales, both traditional ones and their modern counter-parts in popular culture, shape, reflect, and sustain our ideas about who we are, and we will also consider how our obedience to various kinds of authority helps us construct a sense of self. In addition to the readings in our text, we will analyze depictions in film, advertising, and various other media to see how myth and fairy tales can be used to reveal social and psychological phenomena, and we will also explore how and why we are often obedient to these media images.

Learning Objectives

Students will

- develop an ability to write about problems from historical, philosophical, rhetorical and/or cross-cultural and interdisciplinary perspectives;
- engage in group discussions and activities to develop critical perspectives, a clear sense of audience, and a fluent and effective style;
- plan, write, and revise three to four formal essays approximately 4-6 pages in length, at least one of which will involve research and the integration of multiple sources. Essays will include analytic, interpretive, and persuasive strategies to present and support a considered position;
- continue to develop critical attitudes toward culture and media;

- evaluate the relevance, validity and authority of information, and use and cite this information ethically.

Attendance

The English Department attendance policy states that **any student who misses more than 20% of class meetings or does not complete 80% of classwork will not be permitted to take the final exam or submit a portfolio**. Since so much of the content of this class is dependent on our work in the class, regular attendance is vitally important to your success in the course and to your development as a writer. There is no way to –make up‖ what is missed if you are not here. Arriving more than 20 minutes late (or leaving 20 minutes early) is counted as an absence. If you must miss class for any reason, please call to let me know. **Note: You must attend the first two class meetings if you wish to retain your place in the class.**

Individual conferences are an important element of a writing class, so I require that you come to see me during office hours at least once during the quarter to go over your papers and discuss any questions you might have about your own writing. Conferences are especially crucial if you are not doing as well in the class as you would like. If you can‘t come during office hours, let me know and we can arrange to meet at another time. **Failure to meet this requirement is treated as an absence.**

Required Work

There are five assigned essays in this class: 2 essays completed out of class (approx. 5 pages each), 1 research paper, and 2 in-class essays (midterm and final). Students will also complete homework assignments and give 2 brief presentations.

Your final grade for the quarter will be based on all of the following criteria, listed roughly in order of importance: the quality of your work (the thoughtfulness, depth, and seriousness of your approach to a topic, as well as a minimum of grammatical errors); the completeness and promptness of your work; class participation; regular and prompt attendance; and your own growth and development as a writer.

I will excuse one late paper, no questions asked; however, this late paper must be turned in within one week of the original deadline, and late papers will be graded and returned to you late. Other late work, regardless of the reason, will be penalized; this includes work that is late due to absence from class. **Missing assignments or late papers (beyond the one allowed) will lower your final grade.**

Texts, Supplies and Other Helpful Advice

Required Text:

Writing and Reading Across the Curriculum, 10th edition (2008), edited by Laurence Behrens and Leonard J. Rosen.

Note: Please bring the text with you to each class meeting.

Recommended Text:

The writing handbook recommended by the English Department is Diana Hacker's *A Pocket Style Manual*, 4th ed. (Bedford/St. Martin's).

Supplies: Some regular, lined notebook (8.5 x 11) paper, some dark-ink pens (blue or black), and at least two standard-sized (8.5 x 11) bluebooks (exam books) to use for

your reading journals. (These supplies should be available in the campus bookstore.)

Tutorial assistance is available at the University Writing Center, located in 2097 Library South (phone: 3-5350). The Writing Center tutors can help you at any stage of the writing process, from getting started to helping you learn to edit and proofread your papers, or to answer specific questions or problems with grammar and usage. You may drop in or call to make an appointment with a tutor. Don‘t feel you have to have a serious problem to make use of their services; all writers can benefit from some assistance and feedback.

Classroom Behavior

All students are expected to treat everyone in class with respect and in general to behave in a reasonable, responsible, and courteous manner at all times. This means observing the customary rules that govern polite, civilized behavior. I expect everyone to do the following:

- Arrive promptly and stay in the classroom for the duration of the class meeting, unless you are ill or have an emergency; this holds true for all classroom activities. If your schedule prevents you from arriving on time, you may want to enroll in a section that better suits your schedule. If you must leave class early for some reason, please let me know in advance.
- Do the reading and writing assignments **before** class time so that you come to class prepared to contribute to and participate in discussions.
- Do not talk, read, sleep, or do other work during classtime. When someone is talking, you should listen

attentively, and when you are talking, you should address yourself to your group or to the class. If you are sitting next to someone with whom you may be tempted to chat during class, please move to another seat so that you will not succumb to temptation.

- Make sure you turn off and put away your cell phone during class.

ADA Accommodations

Reasonable accommodation will be provided to any student who is registered with the Office of Students with Disabilities and requests needed accommodation.

Grading System

English 102 is graded ABC/NC (with pluses and minuses). A grade of C or better is necessary to pass the course; a C- is **not** a passing grade and will be recorded as a No Credit (NC). You should always be clear about how you are doing in the class from the points you receive, but if you have questions about your grade, please come see me.

Once papers are turned in and evaluated, the grades you receive are final (no more revisions can be submitted at that point), but remember you are always welcome to visit me during my office hours and/or meet with a Writing Center tutor with your drafts **before** the essay is due (this is the best way to improve your grades on essays).

Point system:

First essay (fairy tales)	100 pts. (10 pts. for draft workshop)
Second essay (obedience)	100 (10 pts. for draft workshop)
Researched paper	150
Midterm essay (in class)	60
Final essay	60
Attendance	20 (5 pts. subtracted for each absence)
Quizzes	20
Homework (summaries, etc.)	20
Presentation	20
TOTAL POINTS POSSIBLE	550 pts.

Late papers (beyond the one allowed): 10 pts. will be subtracted for each class meeting late.

Letter grades for individual essays correspond to the points as follows:

100 pts.	**=**	**A**	**=**	**150-143**
95		A-		142-135
90		B+		134-127
85		B		126-116
80		B-		115-107
75		C+		106-98
70		C		97-90

65		C-		89-81
60		NC+		80-72
55		NC		71-63

Final grades for the quarter correspond to the points as follows:

550-525	**=**	**A**
524-495	=	A-
494-465	=	B+
464-435	=	B
434-405	=	B-
404-375	=	C+
374-345	=	C
under 345	=	NC

Late papers (beyond the one allowed): First and second essays: 10 points subtracted for each class meeting late; researched paper: 25 points subtracted for each class meeting late.

Note: Although you need a C or better to pass as a final grade for the class, these letter grades reflect the work on the individual essays.

Recommended Journal Writing

You may want to keep a reflective journal for the class to record your responses to the readings and to our discussions (your questions, ideas, insights, or areas of confusion). Having some of your ideas and questions already on paper can be extremely helpful as you begin to collect your thoughts to write your essays and formulate a thesis. There are no set –rules‖ to follow, but here are

some suggestions to make your journal-writing more productive:

1. Keep a notebook just for your journal entries, separate from your other class notes.
2. Try to write your journal entries as soon as possible after class discussions or after you've done the reading. It doesn't have to be much -- maybe half a page or a page of your responses -- and it shouldn't take you more than 15 or 20 minutes.
3. If you don't know what to write, ask yourself such things as –What did I learn that surprised me or answered a question I had?‖ or –What was confusing about the reading or discussion?‖
4. Don't worry about spelling or grammar; just write to get your ideas out there without making judgments or paying attention to –correctness.‖ The less you censor yourself, the more productive your journal-writing will be. This kind of writing is –thinking on paper‖ rather than a performance for an audience. (If you're writing on a computer, try working with the screen off, so you're not tempted to edit or make corrections as you write.)
5. If you miss a day or two of writing in your class journal, don't worry about it. Just pick it up again when you can. Keeping a journal should be helpful and even pleasant, not a burdensome chore.

Academic Dishonesty/Cheating

Collaborating with others is encouraged when you are planning your papers, reviewing each other's work, preparing for presentations or for exams. Study or reading

groups can be effective ways to study and learn. However, when you write your papers, the text needs to be your own.

1. You must carefully observe the standard rules for acknowledging the sources of words and ideas. If you make use of a phrase or a quote or if you paraphrase another writer's words or ideas, you must acknowledge the source of these words or ideas telling us the source of these materials. APA and MLA style differ on the exact format of this attribution, but the simple version is the name of the author and the page number (if appropriate) in parentheses at the end of the sentence containing the use of the source material. (We will work on properly acknowledging sources this quarter.)
2. If you plagiarize or otherwise misrepresent the source of your work, you will receive a zero on the assignment and be reported to the Student Disciplinary Officer.
3. If you panic and are tempted to plagiarize or cheat, DO NOT. Contact me and we can negotiate a solution. Once you cheat, it is too late for you to negotiate anything.
4. For more information, please refer to the University's Academic Honesty policy available in the *University Catalog*, each term's *Schedule of Classes*, and online at the University's web site.

Weekly Assignment Schedule

Note: I reserve the right to make changes in assignments or due dates; you will always be advised well in advance of any changes.

All readings listed below are in *Writing and Reading Across the Curriculum*, and all assignments are due at the beginning of the class meeting for which they are assigned.

Wk 1-1 Syllabus and introduction to course. In-Class diagnostic essay.

Homework: Read: Summarizing (Chapter 1).

Wk 1-2 In class: discuss rhetoric, summarizing, and critical reading.

Homework: Read Intro to Chapter 12, –The Universality of the Folktale‖ by Stith Thompson, **and all nine Cinderellas** (584-621). Do worksheet –The Characteristics of Cinderella in Perrault and Grimm.

Wk 2-1 Discuss characteristics of Cinderella; introduction to fairy tales; handout topics for Essay 1. First draft due: Week 3-2.

Homework: Read Jones and Kolbenschlag (handouts). Read Bettelheim (627) and Panttaja (644). Summarize Jones for Tuesday. Your summary should be one-half to one page long and it must be typed and double-spaced.

Wk 2-2 Summary of Jones due. In class: Begin discussion of fairy tales/readings.

Wk 3-1 Handout library assignment: Motifs in Fairy Tales: due Week 4-2.

Finish discussion of fairy tales. Prepare for draft workshop on Week 3-2.

Wk 3-2 Draft workshop with Essay #1: bring two copies. Final revision of Essay 1 due Week 4-2.

Homework: Read –Avoiding Logical Fallacies,‖ (p.57-61) and –Argument Synthesis‖ (146-153).

Wk 4-1 Discuss research paper topics; formal requirements for essays; thesis formation and synthesis; paragraphing; quoting and citing sources.

Wk 4-2 **Essay 1 Due:** turn in all drafts and peer responses. Library report presentations due; hear presentations.

Homework: For Week 5-1: Complete preliminary research topic worksheet.

For Week 5-2: read Intro to Chapter Nine (349-351); Asch (351- 357); Milgram (358-370); Zimbardo (389-400) and Fromm (402-406) and other readings TBA.

Summarize Milgram and Asch. Summaries should be one-half to one page long, and they must be typed and double-spaced.

Wk 5-1 Library day: Room TBA (bring research topics)

Wk 5-2 Turn in summaries of Asch and Milgram. In class, begin discussion of Chapter 9. Handout writing topics for Essay #2: first draft due Wk 6-2.

Wk 6-1 Discuss research paper proposals; paper proposals due Wk 6-2. Finish discussion of Chapter 9 (Obedience to Authority).

Homework: Read for Wk 6-2 199-208. (Analysis)

Wk 6-2 Draft Workshop for Essay 2; bring two copies of your draft to class. Final revision of Essay 2 due Wk 7-2; turn in all drafts and peer response sheets. Turn in researched paper proposal.

Wk 7-1 Begin class work on researched paper. **Researched paper is due Wk 9-1.**

Wk 7-2 Write in-class essay. Essay 2 due; turn in all drafts and peer responses.

Wk 8-1 Discuss MLA and APA documentation.

Wk 8-2 Draft workshop: bring 4 copies of your researched essay. Note: if you do not have four copies of your draft, do not come to class.

Wk 9-1 Researched papers due at beginning of class. Hear reports on researched papers (2-3 minutes each).

Wk 9-2 Extra Day (Can be added anywhere in schedule when 20 class meetings)

Wk 10-1 Prepare for final in-class essay.

Wk 10-2 Final in-class essay.

Appendix 3
Example of A lesson Plan

RENCANA PELAKSANAAN PEMBELAJARAN
(RPP)

Satuan Pendidikan	: SMP
Kelas/Semester	: VII/1
Mata Pelajaran	: Bahasa Inggris
Topik	: Greeting and Introduction
Pertemuan Ke-	1
Alokasi Waktu	: 2 x 40 menit

A. Kompetensi Dasar

2.1 Menunjukkan perilaku jujur dan percaya diri dalam berkomunikasi dengan lingkungan sosial sekitar rumah dan sekolah

3.1. Mengenal berbagai cara berbeda dalam membuka percakapan (menyapa, memperkenalkan diri, menginisiasi topik percakapan)

1.1. Membuka dan menutup percakapan *interpersonal* dengan ungkapan bervariasi melalui kegiatan menyimak dan berbicara

B. Indikator Pencapaian Kompetensi

1. Menunjukkan motivasi untuk mengembangkan kemampuan berbahasa Inggris.
2. Mengidentifikasi ungkapan yang digunakan untuk menyapa dalam bahasa Inggris*(Greeting)*
3. Melakukan tindak tutur menyapa dalam bahasa Inggris dengan percaya diri

4. Mengidentifikasi ungkapan yang digunakan untuk memperkenalkan diri dalam bahasa Inggris (*Introduction*)
5. Melakukan tindak tutur memperkenalkan diri dalam bahasa Inggris
6. Melakukan percakapan *interpersonal* dengan menggunakan ungkapan sapaan melalui kegiatan terintegrasi menyimak dan berbicara bahasa Inggris.
7. Melakukan percakapan *interpersonal* dengan menggunakan ungkapan perkenalan diri melalui kegiatan terintegrasi menyimak-berbicara bahasa Inggris dengan percaya diri.

C. Tujuan Pembelajaran

1. Melalui contoh, peserta didik dapat menggunakan ungkapan sapaan ke dalam praktik berbicara bahasa Inggris.
2. Melalui contoh, peserta didik dapat menggunakan ungkapan perkenalan diri ke dalam praktik berbicara bahasa Inggris.

D. Materi Pembelajaran

1. Ungkapan sapaan:*Hello/Hi, How are you?, How's life?, Good morning/afternoon/evening/night.*
   Nice to meet you.

2. Ungkapan perkenalan diri: *my name is_, you can call me_ ,*
3. Kosakata yang berhubungan dengan aktivitas sapaan dan perkenalan diri: *thank you, I am fine, thanks, nice to meet you too.*

E. Model/Metode Pembelajaran

1. Pendekatan: *scientific*
2. Strategi: *observe – practice*.
3. Metode: *Inquiry/Experiencial learning.*

F. Kegiatan Pembelajaran

Kegiatan	Deskripsi Kegiatan	Alokasi Waktu
Pendahuluan	• Guru masuk ke kelas dan langsung menyapa menggunakan bahasa Inggris agar *English Environment* dapat langsung tercipta di pertemuan pertama. • Guru dapat menggunakan kaliamat -Good *morning, students".* • Pastikan peserta didik merespon dengan menjawab kembali -Good *morning, Teacher/ Sir/Mam".* • Jika peserta didik belum merespon, jangan dulu melanjutkan pelajaran. • Jika memungkinkan, guru dapat bertanya ke beberapa anak secara individual untuk memastikan bahwa peserta didik dapat merespon perkataan guru.	**10 menit**

Inti	***Observing*** • Guru menjelaskan bahan ungkapan yang dapat disampaikan ketika menanyakan kabar tentang seseorang adalah –How *are you?"* • Saat ini pertanyaan –How *are you?"* terbiasa dijawab dengan kata-kata *"I'm fine, thank you." "What about you?", "What about yourself?",* atau *"And yourself?"* • Oleh karena itu, diperkenalkan bahwa pertanyaan –How *are you?"* dapat dijawab dengan –I'm *feeling great."* ***Communicating*** • Peserta didik mengulang-ulang pengucapan –How *are you?"* hingga pengucapannya benar. • Peserta didik berlatih melakukan percakapan bersama rekan sebangkunya. • Guru dapat menjelaskan mengenai penggunaan kalimat-kalaimat yang dapat digunakan ketika bertemu dengan orang lain. –How *are you?"* –I'm *fine, thank you. And you?"* –I'm *fine too. Thank you."* • Kalimat-kalimat tersebut merupakan kalimat dasar yang	**30 menit** **30 menit**

	dapat digunakan ketika menyapa seseorang. • Kata –Sir‖, yang menandakan kita berbicara kepada seorang pria yang lebih dewasa, dalam hal ini guru laki-laki. • Untuk guru laki-laki, selain kata –Sir‖, kita pun dapat menggunakan kata –Mister‖ yang diikuti nama keluarga, misalnya Mr. Suparlan untuk Agus Suparlan. • Sedangkan untuk guru perempuan, kita dapat menggunakan kata –Mam‖, atau –Ms‖. • Dalam penggunakan kata sapaan untuk guru perempuan, kita dapat memberikan sedikit penjelasan bahwa untuk panggilan kepada perempuan yang masih *single* atau belum menikah, biasa kita sebut dengan panggilan –Miss‖. Sedangkan • untuk wanita yang telah menikah kita dapat memanggilnya dengan kata –Mrs‖. Sedangkan untuk wanita yang masih belum diketahui status pernikahannya, kita dapat menggunakan kata sapaan –Ms‖.	

	• Di beberapa daerah yang sudah terbiasa dengan –Bapak‖ maupun –Ibu‖, ungkapan-ungkapan ini tidak salah tentunya. Penggunaan kata *"Mister"* maupun *"Miss"* digunakan dalam usaha untuk memunculkan *English environment*. Namun secara umum, panggilan yang digunakan untuk menyapa guru adalah "*Mister*" *atau* "*Miss*". ***Experimenting*** • Guru mengenalkan ragam ungkapan-ungkapan salam baik dalam situasi formal maupun situasi informal. • Dalam bagian ini, guru menjelaskan bahwa pertanyaan –How *are you?"* tidak harus selalu dijawab dengan *"I'm fine"*. • Sebagian pendapat mengatakan bahwa jawaban –I'm *fine"* merupakan salah satu bentuk motivasi diri untuk selalu merasa sehat dan menularkan semangat yang ada ke setiap orang, walaupun mungkin kondisinya sedang tidak terlalu baik. • Percakapan pertama bercerita tentang kondisi anak yang merasa sakit kepala *(headache)*. • Percakapan kedua bercerita	

	tentang kondisi anak yang merasa *flu*. • Beberapa jenis penyakit umum yang dapat diperkenalkan di antaranya: *stomachache, toothache, backache, flu/cold, cough*	
Penutup	• **Setelah mengikuti kegiatan pembelajaran pada pertemuan ini, siswa ditanya bagaimana perasaannya (REFLEKSI)** • **Guru memberikan pertanyaan untuk mengetahui apakah siswa sudah memahami topik tentang "Greeting and Introduction"** • **Siswa diminta membuat kesimpulan pembelajaran pada pertemuan ini** • **Siswa diberi tugas kelompok untuk pembelajaran minggu depan untuk penilaian projek**	**10 menit**

G. Sumber/Media Pembelajaran

1. Sumber: Buku Paket Siswa
2. Media: Audio/video, *White board, board marker*

H. Penilaian

1. Penilaian dari Aspek Pengetahuan *(knowledge)*

a. Kosa kata *(vocabulary)*

5 = Hampir sempurna
4 = Ada kesalahan tapi tidak mengganggu makna
3 = Ada kesalahan dan mengganggu makna
2 = Banyak kesalahan dan menganggu makna
1 = Terlalu banyak kesalahan sehinngga sulit dipahami.

b. Kelancaran *(fluency)*

5 = Sangat lancar
4 = Lancar
3 = Cukup lancar
2 = Kurang lancar
1 = Tidak lancar

c. Ketelitian *(accuracy)*

5 = Sangat teliti
4 = Teliti
3 = Cukup teliti
2 = Kurang teliti
1 = Tidak teliti

d. Pengucapan *(pronunciation)*

5 = Hampir sempurna
4 = Ada kesalahan tapi tidak mengganggu makna
3 = Ada beberapa kesalahan dan mengganggu makna
2 = Banyak kesalahan dan mengganggu makna
1 = Terlalu banyak kesalahan sehingga sulit untuk dipahami

e. Intonasi *(intonation)*

5 = Hampir sempurna
4 = Ada beberapa kesalahan tapi tidak mengganggu makna
3 = Ada beberapa kesalahan dan mengganggu makna
2 = Banyak kesalahan dan mengganggu makna
1 = Terlalu banyak kesalahan sehingga sulit dipahami

f. Pemahaman *(understanding)*

5 = Sangat memahami
4 = Memahami
3 = Cukup memahami
2 = Kurang memahami
1 = Tidak memahami

g. Pilihan kata *(diction)*

5 = Sangat variatif dan tepat
4 = Variatif dan tepat
3 = Cukup variatif dan tepat
2 = Kurang variatif dan tepat
1 = Tidak variatif dan tepat

2. Penilaian dari Segi Sikap *(attitude)*

a. Rasa hormat *(respect)*

5 = Tidak pernah menunjukkan sikap tidak hormat
4 = Pernah menunjukkan sikap tidak hormat
3 = Beberapa kali menunjukkan sikap tidak hormat
2 = Sering menunjukkan sikap tidak hormat
1 = Sangat sering menunjukkan tidak hormat

b. Jujur *(honest)*

5 = Tidak pernah menunjukkan sikap tidak jujur
4 = Pernah menunjukkan sikap tidak jujur
3 = Beberapa kali menunjukkan sikap tidak jujur
2 = Sering menunjukkan sikap tidak jujur
1 = Sangat sering menunjukkan sikap tidak jujur

c. Peduli *(care)*

5 = Tidak pernah menunjukkan sikap tidak peduli
4 = Pernah menunjukkan sikap tidak peduli
3 = Beberapa kali menunjukkan sikap tidak peduli
2 = Sering menunjukkan sikap tidak peduli
1 = Sangat sering menunjukkan sikap tidak peduli

d. Berani *(brave)*

5 = Tidak pernah menunjukkan sikap tidak berani
4 = Pernah menunjukkan sikap tidak berani
3 = Beberapa kali menunjukkan sikap tidak berani
2 = Sering menunjukkan sikap tidak berani
1 = Sangat sering menunjukkan sikap tiodak berani

e. Percaya diri *(confidence)*

5 = Tidak pernah menunjukkan sikap tidak percaya diri
4 = Pernah menunjukkan sikap tidak percaya diri
3 = Beberapa kali menunjukkan sikap tidak percaya diri
2 = Sering menunjukkan sikap tidak percaya diri
1 = Sangat sering menunjukkan sikap tidak percaya diri

f. Berkomunikasi baik *(communicative)*

5 = Tidak pernah menunjukkan sikap tidak komunikatif
4 = Pernah menunjukkan sikap tidak komunikatif
3 = Beberapa kali menunjukkan sikap tidak komunikatif
4 = Sering menunjukkan sikap tidak komunikatif
5 = Sangat sering menunjukkan sikap tidak komunikatif

g. Peduli sosial *(social awareness)*

5 = Tidak pernah menunjukkan sikap tidak peduli sosial
4 = Pernah menunjukkan sikap tidak peduli sosial
3 = Beberapa kali menunjukkan sikap tidak peduli sosial
2 = Sering menunjukkan sikap tidak peduli sosial
1 = Sangat sering menunjukkan sikap tidak peduli sosial

h. Ingin tahu *(curiosity)*

5 = Tidak pernah menunjukkan sikap tidak ingin tahu
4 = Pernah menunjukkan sikap tidak ingin tahu
3 = Beberapa kali menunjukkan sikap tidak ingin tahu
2 = Sering menunjukkan sikap tidak ingin tahui
1 = Sangat sering menunjukkan sikap tidak ingin tahu

3. Penilaian dari segi tingkah laku *(action)*

a. Kerja sama *(team work)*

5 = selalu bekerja sama
4 = sering bekerja sama
3 = Beberapa kali melakukan kerja sama
2 = pernah bekerja sama
1 = tidak pernah bekerja sama

b. Melakukan tindak komunikasi yang tepat *(communicative action)*

5 = Selalu melakukan kegiatan komunikasi yang tepat
4 = Sering melakukan kegiatan komunikasi yang tepat
3 = Beberapa kali melakukan kegiatan komunikasi yang tepat
2 = Pernah melakukan kegiatan komunikasi yang tepat
1 = Tidak pernah melakukan kegiatan komunikasi yang tepat

PERATURAN
MENTERI PENDIDIKAN NASIONAL
REPUBLIK INDONESIA
NOMOR 16 TAHUN 2007
TENTANG
STANDAR KUALIFIKASI AKADEMIK DAN KOMPETENSI GURU

DENGAN RAHMAT TUHAN YANG MAHA ESA

MENTERI PENDIDIKAN NASIONAL,

Menimbang : bahwa dalam rangka pelaksanaan Pasal 28 ayat (5) Peraturan Pemerintah Nomor 19 Tahun 2005 tentang Standar Nasional Pendidikan, perlu menetapkan Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan Nasional tentang Standar Kualifikasi Akademik dan Kompetensi Guru;

Mengingat :

1. Undang-Undang Nomor 20 Tahun 2003 tentang Sistem Pendidikan Nasional (Lembaran Negara Republik Indonesia Tahun 2003 Nomor 78, Tambahan Lembaran Negara Republik Indonesia Nomor 4301);
2. Undang-Undang Nomor 14 Tahun 2005 tentang Guru dan Dosen (Lembaran Negara Republik Indonesia Tahun 2005 Nomor 157, Tambahan Lembaran Negara Republik Indonesia Nomor 4586);

3. Peraturan Pemerintah Nomor 19 Tahun 2005 tentang Standar Nasional Pendidikan (Lembaran Negara Republik Indonesia Tahun 2005 Nomor 41, Tambahan Lembaran Negara Republik Indonesia Nomor 4496);
4. Peraturan Presiden Nomor 9 Tahun 2005 tentang Kedudukan, Tugas, Fungsi, Susunan Organisasi, dan Tata Kerja Kementerian Negara Republik Indonesia sebagaimana telah beberapa kali diubah terakhir dengan Peraturan Presiden Republik Indonesia Nomor 94 Tahun 2006;
5. Keputusan Presiden Republik Indonesia Nomor 187/M Tahun 2004 mengenai Pembentukan Kabinet Indonesia Bersatu sebagaimana telah beberapa kali diubah terakhir dengan Keputusan Presiden Republik Indonesia Nomor 20/P Tahun 2005;

MEMUTUSKAN:

Menetapkan : PERATURAN MENTERI PENDIDIKAN NASIONAL REPUBLIK INDONESIA TENTANG STANDAR KUALIFIKASI AKADEMIK DAN KOMPETENSI GURU.

Pasal 1

(1) Setiap guru wajib memenuhi standar kualifikasi akademik dan kompetensi guru yang berlaku secara nasional.

(2) Standar kualifikasi akademik dan kompetensi guru sebagaimana dimaksud pada ayat (1) tercantum dalam Lampiran Peraturan Menteri ini.

Pasal 2

Ketentuan mengenai guru dalam jabatan yang belum memenuhi kualifikasi akademik diploma empat (D-IV) atau sarjana (S1) akan diatur dengan Peraturan Menteri tersendiri.

Pasal 3

Peraturan Menteri ini mulai berlaku pada tanggal ditetapkan

Ditetapkan di Jakarta pada
tanggal 4 Mei 2007
MENTERI PENDIDIKAN NASIONAL,
TTD.
BAMBANG SUDIBYO

LAMPIRAN PERATURAN MENTERI PENDIDIKAN NASIONAL NOMOR 16 TAHUN 2007 TANGGAL 4 MEI 2007 STANDAR KUALIFIKASI AKADEMIK DAN KOMPETENSI GURU

A. KUALIFIKASI AKADEMIK GURU

1. Kualifikasi Akademik Guru Melalui Pendidikan Formal

Kualifikasi akademik guru pada satuan pendidikan formal mencakup kualifikasi akademik guru pendidikan Anak Usia Dini/ Taman Kanak-kanak/Raudatul Atfal (PAUD/TK/RA), guru sekolah dasar/madrasah ibtidaiyah (SD/MI), guru sekolah menengah pertama/madrasah Tsanawiyah (SMP/MTs), guru sekolah menengah atas/madrasah aliyah (SMA/MA), guru sekolah dasar luar biasa/sekolah menengah luar biasa/sekolah menengah atas luar biasa (SDLB/SMPLB/SMALB), dan guru sekolah menengah kejuruan/madrasah aliyah kejuruan (SMK/MAK*), sebagai berikut.

a. Kualifikasi Akademik Guru PAUD/TK/RA

Guru pada PAUD/TK/RA harus memiliki kualifikasi akademik pendidikan minimum diploma empat (D-IV) atau sarjana (S1) dalam bidang pendidikan anak usia dini atau psikologi yang diperoleh dari program studi yang terakreditasi.

b. **Kualifikasi Akademik Guru SD/MI**
Guru pada SD/MI, atau bentuk lain yang sederajat, harus memiliki kualifikasi akademik pendidikan minimum diploma empat (D-IV) atau sarjana (S1) dalam bidang pendidikan SD/MI (D-IV/S1 PGSD/PGMI) atau psikologi yang diperoleh dari program studi yang terakreditasi.

c. **Kualifikasi Akademik Guru SMP/MTs**
Guru pada SMP/MTs, atau bentuk lain yang sederajat, harus memiliki kualifikasi akademik pendidikan minimum diploma empat (D-IV) atau sarjana (S1) program studi yang sesuai dengan mata pelajaran yang diajarkan/diampu, dan diperoleh dari program studi yang terakreditasi.

d. **Kualifikasi Akademik Guru SMA/MA**
Guru pada SMA/MA, atau bentuk lain yang sederajat, harus memiliki kualifikasi akademik pendidikan minimum diploma empat (D-IV) atau sarjana (S1) program studi yang sesuai dengan mata pelajaran yang diajarkan/diampu, dan diperoleh dari program studi yang terakreditasi.

e. **Kualifikasi Akademik Guru SDLB/SMPLB/SMALB**
Guru pada SDLB/SMPLB/SMALB, atau bentuk lain yang sederajat, harus memiliki kualifikasi akademik pendidikan minimum diploma empat (D-IV) atau sarjana (S1)

program pendidikan khusus atau sarjana yang sesuai dengan mata pelajaran yang diajarkan/diampu, dan diperoleh dari program studi yang terakreditasi.

f. **Kualifikasi Akademik Guru SMK/MAK***
Guru pada SMK/MAK* atau bentuk lain yang sederajat, harus memiliki kualifikasi akademik pendidikan minimum diploma empat (D-IV) atau sarjana (S1) program studi yang sesuai dengan mata pelajaran yang diajarkan/diampu, dan diperoleh dari program studi yang terakreditasi.

2. **Kualifikasi Akademik Guru Melalui Uji Kelayakan dan Kesetaraan**
Kualifikasi akademik yang dipersyaratkan untuk dapat diangkat sebagai guru dalam bidang-bidang khusus yang sangat diperlukan tetapi belum dikembangkan di perguruan tinggi dapat diperoleh melalui uji kelayakan dan kesetaraan. Uji kelayakan dan kesetaraan bagi seseorang yang memiliki keahlian tanpa ijazah dilakukan oleh perguruan tinggi yang diberi wewenang untuk melaksanakannya.



Leffi Noviyenty dilahirkan di Curup – Bengkulu pada 6 Nopember 1976. Putri kedua dari Bapak **Ridwan Effendi** dan Ibu **Noerhayani Amri** (Almrh) ini menyelesaikan pendidikan S1 nya pada Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris di Universitas Bengkulu tahun 1999 dengan prestasi Cumlaude (IPK 3,74). Tahun 2004 – 2006 ia menyelesaikan program Master di Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris Universitas Negeri Padang juga dengan prestasi Cumlaude (IPK 3,83). Menikah dengan Dr. **Fakhruddin, M. Pd. I** tahun 2006, telah dikaruniai 3 orang putra, **Azzam Al Farras Fawwaz Ziddan** (15 tahun), **Aufa Azka Sakha Az Zhafir** (13 tahun), **Keynan Af Fathin Siraj** (511 tahun) serta seorang Putri **Malayeka Larisha Sibil** (5,5 tahun). *Well – Prepared English Teaching* adalah buku ke-lima yang disusunnya. Ia aktif sebagai tenaga pengajar di Program Studi Tadris Bahasa Inggris STAIN Curup dan sejak 2003 sampai saat ini.

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