Teaching Materials in ELT for Future Employment: What are Appropriate?

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Abstract---**INQF or the Indonesian National Qualification Framework has been implemented since 2016 by tertiary institutions in Indonesia as a reformed education policy. This study examines whether the framework has satisfied the ELT graduates' needs for employment in terms of teaching materials which focuses on oral communication. The study participants were ELT graduates with variety of jobs. Using interview technique, the findings revealed that some materials written in the INQF do not match the graduates' needs at work. They need materials containing English for Specific Purposes or ESP to support their jobs other than as English teachers such cover as translators, bank clerks, front officers for not all ELT graduates are not interested to be English teachers. Thus, the gap between the needs for what to teach for future employment in ELT and the INQF items on materials should be fulfilled to improve ELT outcome-based education.**

I. INTRODUCTION

In English Language Teaching (ELT), it is important to arrange a syllabus as guidance for a teacher in the classroom. As defined by Richards (2001:2) "a syllabus is a specification of the content of a course of instruction and lists what will be taught and tested". As far as I observed, a teacher can play roles both as a syllabus designer and teacher. However, several teachers undertake their teaching session using a syllabus written by another teacher. Whoever the syllabus designer is, a syllabus should satisfy the students' future needs (Hall & Cook, 2012): the students' needs should be identified initially before designing a syllabus.

I wish to explore a university syllabus concentrating on speaking skills and whether it matches the students' needs regarding their future employment. Not all university graduates work in the same field they study. In a survey, The New College of Humanities (2014) identified that half of UK graduates do not work in their field of study. The survey shows that financial reasons and the graduates' interest in having their own business influenced them to change jobs. However, I believe that one factor relating to this may be that the field they have studied is not their own particular interest. Another aspect is that there may be more job opportunities in other fields. These two problems may be common sense in society as many engineering graduates work as teachers, or graduates from teaching courses work as bank clerks for example. We cannot simply claim that this is due to the graduates' mistakes; nevertheless this natural phenomenon should be faced sensibly and the syllabus designers should consider their true needs.

My interest in this area is driven by a desire to improve the speaking syllabus at my institution and to improve the quality of my teaching. I have long been concerned with matches and mismatches between a university syllabus and job graduates and I consider that understanding what students need for future employment is the key to being successful in their occupations. Brown (1995) suggests that needs can be used to decide the course goals and objectives, teaching methods and materials in a syllabus. While there has been a considerable amount of research exploring teaching methods and materials to improve students' speaking, there is lack of research investigating what students actually need to improve their speaking skill, especially for their future employment. I trust that my findings will suggest what aspects of speaking graduates actually need at work, and consequently, the speaking syllabus at my institution can be improved.

The context in relation to this research is conducted at the Department of English Education (DEE), Universitas Muhammadiyah Surakarta

(UMS), Indonesia. The DEE is one department under the School of Teacher Training and Education which prepares the students to be professional teachers (FKIP UMS, 1987). Hence, the DEE should officially prepare the students to be professional English teachers. The DEE is one department at the university which has a large number of students, although the enrolment requirements must not be disregarded, because having the ability to speak English is prestigious and exceedingly valuable.

However, it appears that not all the DEE graduates become English teachers. Table 1 below reveals data relating to some of the jobs the graduates perform:

No	Types of Jobs	Number of Graduates
1	English Teacher: - Kindergarten Teachers - Primary School Teachers - Junior High School Teachers - Senior High School Teachers - Higher Education Teachers - Private Educational Institution Teachers	 3 20 11 14 7 7 Total 62
2	Bank Clerk	4
3	Translator	2
4	Production Employee	2
5	Sales Associate	1
6	Secretary	1
7	Administrative Officer	1
8	Credit Analyst	1
9	Finance Consultant	1
10	Librarian	1
11	Sales Marketing	1
12	Customer Service at a Private Factory	1
Total		78

(Table 1, Tracer Alumni Website of DEE Muhammadiyah University of Surakarta in 2015)

I am informed by the raw data presenting each sheet showing the occupations graduates do, and subsequently, I group the types of jobs and calculate them into numbers. Out of 2234 graduates traced, only 78 graduates completed the survey which comprised those who graduated from 2007 until 2015. This means that this survey does not display all the graduates' jobs and I am convinced there are more jobs which could not be traced and /or the same jobs which other graduates undertake that did not participate in this survey. Teaching is the employment the most graduates go into, whereas the second most common occupation is as a bank clerk and the third is working as a translator. These jobs will be the types of employments studied in this research. Indeed, it is worth noting

that the production employee is placed in the same position as the translator. However, it is important to consider that this survey does not identify the actual data with regards to graduates' employment, and that I received some information from my former students who became translators and did not complete in the survey. Therefore, it can be viewed as being slightly problematic if this research merely refers to the survey.

Interestingly, the survey shows one third of graduates have other jobs in contrast to being English teachers. Whereas, none of materials in the current speaking syllabus teaches these skills except for conversation at the bank which does not even teach technical terms connected to banking and activities at the bank. My observation thus far suggests that there are some drawbacks in the current speaking syllabus. Speaking at the DEE is gradually taught from semester 1 to 4. Each grade revolves around different topics: Speaking 1 is concerned with functional communication such as greetings, introducing one's self and others, and describing things. Speaking 2 raises topics related to situational communication such as communication at the market, at the bank and at hospital. Speaking 3 is in relation to discussion and debate. Lastly, Speaking 4 teaches the students about presentations such as presenting an academic paper and promoting a product (Current Syllabus, 2006). This is not logical in terms of the complexities of the materials. The debating skills taught in Speaking 3 are more difficult than the ones utilised in presentation, especially as debating requires high level of critical thinking. It is easier to promote a product rather than to build critical arguments through research. Therefore, discussion and debate should have been taught later than presentations, or in the final series. Furthermore, none of these topics pertains to teaching English as EOP (English for Occupational Purposes) (Carter, 1983); and are all about General English (Carter, 1983; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Dudley-Evans, 1997).

However, on 8th August 2014, the Indonesian Government launched a policy called the Indonesian National Qualifications Framework (INQF) which every Higher Education establishment must follow. It means that Higher Education in Indonesia, particularly each department is in the process of arranging their new syllabus and will implement it in 2016. The IQNF aims to standardise the tertiary level, whilst each degree has its own learning achievement target. Furthermore, the INQF was created to "give a

parameter in the form of degree qualifications" (Sailah et al., 2014:12). The parameters of Higher Education graduates can be seen in diagram 1 beneath.
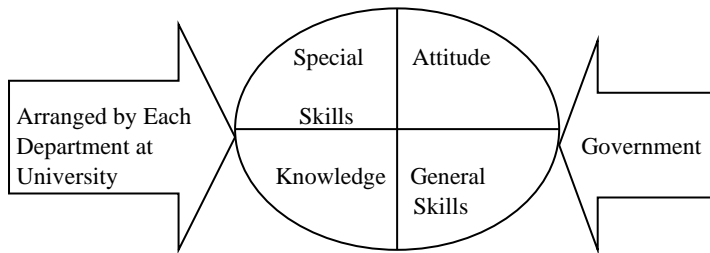
(Diagram 1, Parameters of Higher Education Graduates of INQF 2014)

It should be noted that the parameters that can be observed in the lower right part of the diagram are attitudes and general skills arranged by the government, the ones on the left side are special skills and knowledge, which are arranged by each department at the university, which is the focus of this study. Therefore, each department including the DEE at UMS has the autonomy to decide which materials to utilise in its syllabus as long as the syllabus follows the INQF principles that every Higher Education graduate must qualify with the special skills and knowledge that are appropriate for their field of study (INQF, 2014).

However, there are a number of materials in the new syllabus arranged by the DEE which are not appropriate with the INQF principles in terms of similar jobs to the field that the graduates study in. Another point is that here are no changes in speaking 1, interpersonal communication and speaking 2, situational communication. Meanwhile, debating material is reduced and combined with academic presentation taught in semester 4 or speaking 4. However, speaking 3 is replaced with English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (New Syllabus, 2015) which is again not relevant to English for teaching.

Hence, with the data related to graduates' jobs, the current syllabus that has been implemented, the Government's policy on the INQF and several changes in the new syllabus, I will reveal why DEE students actually require speaking for their future employment by addressing how the current speaking syllabuses match the DEE students' needs for future employment. I will subsequently explain what teaching methods and

materials can be applied to teach speaking at the DEE.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *The Position of English in Indonesia*

English is divided into several levels based on the position in particular countries and is commonly known as World Englishes. Kachru (1992) divides the Englishes into three different concentric circles: the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle and the Expanding Circle, and moreover, categories the countries that belong to the Inner Circle as follows: the United States, United Kingdom, Canada, Australia and New Zealand. Meanwhile, Conrad (1996) suggests that English is the Native Language (ENL). He adds that the Outer Circle refers to the countries which were colonised by the Inner Circle countries' for extended periods such as India, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Sri Lanka and Nigeria. English posits as the Second Language (ESL) in the Outer Circle which the norms are typically provided by ENL (Hamid and Baldauf, 2013), although the errors made defined as 'deviations' are socially acceptable notions of correctness (Bartsch, 1987). Third, the Expanding Circle refers to the remaining countries in the world where "performance varieties of the language are used essentially in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) context" (Kachru, 1992:257) including China, Indonesia, Japan, Saudi Arabia and Russia where the norms of the language are dependent and reliant on the Inner Circle varieties. Low's (2010) concept is similar to the meaning of the Outer Circle.

While Kachru classifies his circles based on the British Empire's expansion, Schneider (2007) proposes the spread of English in postcolonial settings. He argues that differences in the sociocultural context or extra-linguistic background can enrich specific forms of English spoken world-wide today although Davydova (2011), in contrast, argues that people who have the same language background can have a similar variety of English. However, Schneider's idea has supported the concept of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) where English is spoken by people from different lingua-cultural backgrounds. Cogo and Dewey (2012) calls it non-monolithic cultural background and linguistic resources; thus native speakers' norms of usage are not conformed in their communication (Guido & Seidholfer, 2014). Therefore, ELF is not

designed with a precise (Sowden, 2012) English norms because "like any other language, English is a dynamic process, and naturally varies or changes as it spreads" (Seidholfer, 2011:94) and also considering the fact that English is mostly spoken by non-native speakers (Bjorkman, 2013). Here, English functions as an International Language (EIL) (Friedrich and Matsuda, 2010). Furthermore, Cogo (2012) suggests that ELF is a 'natural phenomenon' or a situation where English is spoken by variety of cultural backgrounds and linguistic resources, while EIL is how English functions in this situation and across different countries.

This study will focus on a speaking course where English is spoken by non-native students in the classroom and examines types of English speaking required at work which may employ communication in international settings.

B. Definition of Syllabus

"A syllabus is a specification of the content of a course of instruction and lists what will be taught and tested". (Richards, 2001:2); McKay (1978); Brown (1995) and Graves (1996) have similar insight although Celce-Murcia and Olsthain (2000) prefer to use the term course design. Most of these scholars agree that a syllabus is similar to a curriculum except for Celce-Murcia and Olsthain (ibid.) who state that a curriculum is designed at national, district, community and university levels, whereas a syllabus operates at a narrower scope, such as a course programme.

In designing a syllabus, the role of the teachers is very important. Goodson (2003) divides three contexts which a teacher should reflect to design a syllabus. They are *external contexts* or the scope of national/state-wide curriculum, *internal contexts* or school/departmental practices, and *personal contexts* or subject knowledge, biography. These three contexts should relate each other. Therefore, to create a good syllabus, a teacher should not only know the subject knowledge he or she is going to teach, but they should be also aware of the school and the nation's curriculum or vision.

This study will follow Celce-Murcia and Olshtain's idea which focuses on a speaking course at a department at a university which is related to the national policy about Higher Education curriculum.

C. Discourse-Oriented Curriculum vs. Linguistically Oriented Curriculum

According to Celce-Murcia & Olsthain (2000) two types of curricula can be designed for language teaching: a discourse-orientated curriculum and a linguistically orientated curriculum. "A discourse-orientated curriculum places special emphasis on three areas: *context, text types* and *communicative goals*" (op cit.:185). Therefore, contextual features must be taken into account (op cit.). However, a linguistically orientated curriculum might consider contextual features as external factors to the curriculum (op cit.). The linguistically orientated curriculum applies linguistic competence such as pronunciation, grammar and lexis. Thus, it appears that the first type of curriculum provides more sources for the speaking course.

Furthermore, there are a number of benefits of a discourse-orientated curriculum. First, as the focus is not on linguistic errors, students may be more confident and encouraged to practice speaking in the classroom. Hence, sharing information through the flow of conversation excites students because it normally precedes new information (Widdowson, 1978). Secondly, context plays a very important role in conversations and Hedge (2000:49) states that "learners need to know the appropriate social conventions" such as politeness. For some cultures, a particular attitude may be polite; however, it may not be polite for other cultures. By being aware of this social knowledge, a student knows how "to select the language forms to use in different settings and with people in different roles and with different status" (op cit.). Bachman (1990) calls this a *sociolinguistic competence*. Thirdly, activities on speaking courses are mostly situational. Clark (1996) gives such discourse examples as telephone conversations, face-to-face conversations, business transactions and plays. The turn-taking and back-channelling (McCarthy, 1991), for instance, in these activities are seen as features that create a whole communication, rather than being viewed as unnecessary things to be neglected.

These resources are useful to help address the research questions in this study examining whether these kinds of benefits reflect on the current and new speaking syllabuses.

D. Elements of Syllabus

In designing a syllabus, Brown (1995) remarks that there are at least five elements involved: needs analysis, objectives, teaching or methodology, materials used and testing or evaluation. With a slight variation, Graves (2000)

adds that context and beliefs should be articulated in a syllabus development process. This means that these two additional features are also important in designing a syllabus. Grave's idea cannot be ignored since an institution's context such as culture and local wisdom should be defined to underline what the students actually need. In addition, teachers or stakeholders' beliefs (Goodson, 2003) play a role in formulating goals and objectives. However, this study will focus on needs analysis, materials and teaching methods whilst context and beliefs might also be involved as well.

E. Needs Analysis

Needs refer to wants, desires, demands, motivations, gaps, constraints and requirements (Brindley, 1989) that, in language learning, relate to linguistic deficiency describing what a student can do at present and what he or she should be able to do (Richards, 2001). A process of gathering this information, interpreting it and using it to design a course is called needs analysis (Brown, 1995), although Graves (2000) calls it needs assessment. In this study, I will consistently use the term 'needs analysis'. Furthermore, needs are stated in terms of goals and objectives (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Brown, 1995). Thus, needs analysis in the first stage affects the subsequent processes relating to teaching and assessment. This study is a fundamental approach to how students' needs are identified particularly for future employment rather than merely considering the syllabus designers' voices.

F. Materials

Brown (1995:139) states "Materials are any systematic description of the techniques and exercises to be used in classroom teaching". Hutchinson and Waters (1987:108) provide a more detailed model, which is called materials criteria, which consists of four elements:

a. Input: a text, dialogue, video-recording, diagram or any piece of communication data.

b. Content focus:language is not an end itself, but a means of conveying information and feelings related to something.

c. Language focus: the aim is to enable learners to use language and provide them with necessary language knowledge.

d. Task:the ultimate purpose of language learning is language use.

Furthermore, Stevick (1971) suggests that materials should be evaluated as follows in terms of qualities, dimensions and components:

a. Three qualities:strength, lightness, transparency (as opposed to weakness, heaviness, opacity)

b. Three dimensions: linguistic, social and topical

c.Four components: occasions for use, sample of language use, lexical exploration, exploration of structural relationships.

Hutchinson and Waters' and Stevick's ideas imply both linguistically and discourse-orientated curricula and the language focus criterion suggested by Hutchinson and Waters may stress linguistic competence; however, language knowledge in this criterion may mean beyond linguistic forms such as discursive features as knowledge of social conventions (Hedge, 2000) and sociolinguistic competence (Bachman, 1990). Meanwhile, language use as the purpose of giving tasks as advised by Hutchinson and Waters enables the students' to practice their ability, and as long as the assessment is not focused too much on linguistic competence but on the flow of conversation instead, the students' confidence will build gradually (Widdowson, 1978). In addition, the sample of language use component initiated by Stevick is normally given in situational communication, although not consistently, where turn-taking and back-channelling may be involved (McCarthy, 1991). Furthermore, Hutchinson and Waters, Dudley-Evans and St John's (1998), Carter (1983) and Anthony (1997) combine these linguistic and discursive competences into English as Specific Purposes (ESP). ESP consists of General English (GE) where linguistic competence is normally tested, and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) where linguistic competence is assessed but discursive features are usually more.

This study will relate to these material resources as speaking ability cannot be separated from linguistic and discursive features, especially with regards to future employment.

G. Speaking

Teaching Speaking

There are several arguments related to how speaking is ideally implemented to achieve an improved performance from students. James (1992) proposes at least three factors that should be considered by teachers in teaching speaking as a foreign language: "background knowledge,

speaking task and self-confidence" (p.2). Background knowledge relates to meaning and discourse, speaking task refers to oral competence demonstration and self-confidence deals with participation. Weyers (2010) agrees with this stating that students "are directed to notice discourse" (p.387), whereas Murphy (1991) attempts to integrate speaking with listening and pronunciation skills given that they are reciprocally interdependent. In addition, Shurovi (2014) suggests that the institution should provide materials, but does not specifically elaborate what kinds of materials needed to assist with teaching. However, the most important part not mentioned by these scholars is in connection with students' needs. Whatever ideal the teaching preparation is, if it is not satisfying the students' needs, the teaching and learning process will not have value. Here, contextual factors such as the institution's vision, the local culture, social conventions as suggested in the discourse-oriented syllabi play very important roles in identifying what material resources are actually needed to teach in the classroom. Considering students' needs in teaching is central as it can improve students' participation and increase motivation and positive attitudes (Uztosun, 2013).

Furthermore, since speaking is not a discrete skill, teaching speaking cannot be separated from other areas of skills. Hughes (2011) divides these areas into three distinctive levels: discourse, structural and speech production levels. These three levels receptively relate to linguistics of discourse, for instance pragmatics, lexis and grammar, and phonology/phonetics. The third level appears to be what speaking teachers normally focus on, so that pronunciation is given a high proportion when speaking is being taught. Ur (1996) notes that teaching pronunciation is not undertaken in order to achieve a perfect native accent but is related to the correctness of articulation. However, the other sub-skills commonly taught in general speaking course are grammar and vocabulary, which according to Yungzhong (1985), are reduced to the minimum. Carter and McCarty (1997) oppose Yungzhong's idea that it is not a reduction, but that spoken grammars and vocabularies are unique and have special qualities compared to written grammars. Therefore, Carter and McCarty see the 'different' grammars and vocabularies in spoken language as diverse and rich resources rather than 'marginal' ones.

These resources provide information on aspects that speaking teachers ideally teach, which will contribute to addressing the research questions in this study, particularly on aspects required in a speaking syllabus. Hence, the answers will be subsequently used to offer solutions regarding material resources and teaching methods which are appropriate for teaching speaking.

Speaking Needs for Future Employment

While Berger and Kellermann (1994) theoretically describe three components of the goal in communication as: "knowledge of selves and others, knowledge about social interaction processes, and communication skills" (p.24), Donna (2000) offers more specific examples of oral communication in business, that may apply to other jobs, such as talking to clients, using the telephon, dealing with visitors, talking to colleagues, reporting to foreign managers, presentations and Q & A (questions and answers) sessions, meetings and moreover negotiating. In addition, O'Connor (2015) mentions including a motivational speaker, a radio and television reporter, teacher and sales representative. Meanwhile, Matreyek (1983) provides more examples for general uses communication, for instance greeting and introduction, serving and handling complaints and promoting products. He adds that a conversation at the bank, a conversation at a meeting and the likes are categorized as situational communication, which communication that occurs in a particular situation.

However, Kaur et al., (2012) studied how the apprehension of tertiary students' communication in Malaysia was investigated to measure their levels of anxiety in speaking practices. The results show that many students have lower levels of confidence about speaking in meetings and at great lengths in front of the public. Smith and Frymier (2006), Kelly & Keaton (2000), and Devi and Feroz (2008) have also conducted research on a similar topic and attained similar results as well, suggesting that students need to improve their speaking ability as realistically as possible to achieve an enhanced speaking performance. Furthermore, Kaur et al., imply from the results that most students are not ready to work after graduation in employee recruitment and internship prospects because Malaysian employers focus more on good oral communication. Therefore, they suggest that it needs to reinforce tertiary students to have the ability to communicate

better in English, in order to secure jobs, once they have graduated. Despite English having at different status, Indonesia has a similar socio-cultural background to Malaysia, including criteria relating to employment. The research may contribute to this study in terms of the importance of English speaking ability for future employment.

It is worth noting that some advertisements in Indonesia that are published on Mitula (2015) announce that some jobs in several Indonesian institutions which require English skills such as English teachers, promotion officers, customer engineers, tele-marketing, quality assurance analysts, production pharmacists, sales executives, website developers, programmer consultants, administration staff, sales associates and production secretaries. However, the advertisements mentioned require English speaking skills for most of these professions, while there are only three out of the twelve jobs require passive skills such as reading: customer engineer, website and programme consultant. Those occupations which require English speaking skills may require interpersonal communication, situational communication and presentation skills as parts of the work, while those which do not require English speaking skills may not deal with communicating with many people. This study will also discuss how speaking is required in different types of employments one job may not require the same amount of speaking in relation to the other jobs.

III. RESEARCH METHODS

A. Research Design

There are several strengths in relation to qualitative research. First, it emphasises a particular case (English Speaking syllabus continuum), and moreover, the phenomenon is centred and tied in its context (DEE, UMS, Indonesia) (Miles et al., 2014). Second, the qualitative data is rich and holistic, incorporating complexity into 'thick descriptions' (Geertz, 1973). Third, the data collection times and methods (interviews and document reviews) are flexible and adjusted to what is being studied in order that the researcher can achieve the comprehension of data (Miles et al., 2014).

B. Selection of Participants

This study employed purposeful sampling to select the participants. Flick (2007:27) suggests:

"Sampling in qualitative research in most cases is not oriented on a formal (e.g. random) selection as a part of an existing or assumed population. Rather it is conceived as a way of setting up a collection of deliberately selected cases, materials or events for constructing a corpus of empirical examples for studying the phenomenon of interest in the most instructive way. Therefore, most suggestions for qualitative sampling are around a concept of purpose".

There were 4 participants in this study who were selected by using a maximum variation which is qualitative sampling enabling the researcher to select the participants based on their heterogeneity (Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh, 2002; Bryman, 2013; Miles & Huberman, 1994) to gain rich data based on the following: a spread of genders (male and female graduates), work background (for the graduates: a primary school English teacher, a secondary school English teacher, a translator and a bank clerk.

C. Data Collection

The data from this study consist of interviews. How the participants were selected and how the interviews were conducted is described as follows.

D. Participants

There were 4 participants interviewed consisting of 4 DEE graduates. Graduates from different genders, graduation years and employment backgrounds following graduation were interviewed regarding how the Speaking courses have satisfied their needs.

E. Interviews

Punch (2009) suggests that interviews are "a very good way of accessing people's perceptions, meanings, definition of situations and constructions of reality" (p.144). This method is needed to address the aim of this study which is to understand whether the current speaking syllabus continuum meets the students' needs. Bryman (2008) proposes two types of interview: structured and semi-structured. This study employs the semi-structured interview due to its numerous advantages. First, the semi-structured interview "capitalises on the richness of qualitative open-ended responses, but structures the content of the interview through the use of an interview guide" (Adair, 1992: 9-10). Second, a semi-structured interview enables the researcher to offer open-ended questions. Therefore, the researcher will

have the opportunity to gain more in-depth information related to the participants' experiences (deMarrais, 2004). Third, semi-structured interviews enable participants to express their views freely, because of the open-ended questions given, and allow the researcher to compare and contrast the participants' responses due to the similar questions addressed (Bryman, 2012).

In preparation for the interviews, the interview questions were developed to specifically answer the research question because this question examines whether or not the current syllabus matches the students' needs for future employment.

The current speaking syllabus is used as the source to formulate the interview guide whether the speaking syllabus has met the students' needs. It was the graduates who were interviewed not the current students, given that the graduates have practiced speaking in the 'real' world in settings such as at work.

F. Data Analysis

Before the transcripts from the audio recordings were analysed the participants were asked to verify the accuracy. The data was analysed in five stages: rereading, segmenting, coding, reducing overlap and redundancy codes, and collapsing codes into themes (Creswell, 2008). In the first stage, the interview transcripts were reread several times to understand what was meant by the participants. Subsequently, the transcripts were broken down into segments. A comparison of each participant's view was used because "comparing is essential in identifying abstract concepts, and for coding. At the first level of coding it is by comparing different indicators in the data that we arrive at the more abstract concepts behind the empirical data" (Punch, 2009:182).

In the second stage, segmentation was conducted to determine similar meanings or characteristics in the transcript. Johnson and Christensen (2008) define a segment as "a meaningful unit (i.e. segment) of text which can be a word, a single sentence, or several sentences, or it might include a larger passage such as a paragraph or even a complete document" (p.534).

Next, the identified segments were labelled by placing them into categories. According to Johnson & Christensen (2008), coding is "the process of marking segments of data (usually text data) with symbols, descriptive words, or category names" (p.534).

In the reducing overlap and redundancy codes stages, the collected codes were reread and matched with the original transcripts to ensure the codes had been properly labelled and named. Johnson & Christensen (2008) claim that inter-coder reliability is important to conduct in order to check coding consistency during the coding process.

Finally, categorising the data was carried out by grouping the codes based on similarity. Saldaña (2012) describes a theme as "an outcome of coding, categorization, and analytic reflection, not something that is, in itself, coded" (p.139).

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A. What materials and teaching methods in the new syllabus are appropriate to the INQF?

The INQF, as can be seen in appendix 4, has four standards of learning achievement which relate to materials for Higher Education graduates as follows: attitude and general skill formulated by the Government and special skill and knowledge formulated by each department at university. However, the DEE new speaking syllabus also includes the two standards arranged by the Government, attitude and general skill. Goodson (2003) notes that the teachers and department should be cooperative with the national's curriculum in order that it will not create any gaps of standard or double standards with the institutional curriculum. If the DEE follows Goodson's advice to cohere the new syllabus with the INQF, the new syllabus designers should only focus on special skill and knowledge and remove the formulation of attitude and general skill from the draft.

Furthermore, while speaking 1, speaking 2 and speaking 3 are skills which can be used in general situation, none of the learning materials in speaking 3, English for Specific Purposes (ESP), is relevant to the DEE field of study, English Language Teaching (ELT): English for Banking, English for Front Office, English for Flight Attendance, English for Hotel, English for Business and English for Broadcasting. The designers arranged these materials based on personal information they have received from some graduates. The senior designer says:

> "I know jobs the graduates do from personal contacts between me and some graduates via Blackberry Messenger. Those

who contacted me have variety of jobs. Some work at the banks. One works as stewardess. One works at a currency exchange firm. There is also one who becomes a housewife but has an online business. But mostly, they become English teachers".

She receives information about graduates' jobs from personal contacts, and draws this information as the students' needs for future employment so that the types of jobs she has written in speaking 3 of new syllabus are similar to what she has mentioned above. Brown (1995) will not oppose her idea of analysing these students' needs because she has gathered the information from some graduates, interpreted it and used it to design the new syllabus. However, regarding the learning achievement standard of special skill for Higher Education graduates in the INQF, the ESP materials in speaking 3 do not meet the standard since the materials do not relate to English for teaching. English for teaching is an English for Occupational Purpose (EOP), as the ESP materials in the new syllabus should be actually called, which is one type of English for future employment (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Dudley-Evans & St John's, 1998; Carter, 1983 and Anthony, 1997). Hence, English for teaching should be also included in speaking 3 to fit in the INQF principle.

In relating to this, lecturing method in speaking 3 aims to explain spoken expressions about ESP which is subsequently not relevant to the INQF principle; whereas the other methods such as mini-drama, group discussion, role-play, and individual presentation method, as are in speaking 1, speaking 2 and speaking 4, are flexible to use in other speaking materials such as functional/interpersonal communication, situational communication and academic presentation.

In summary, some gaps are formed between the new syllabus and the INQF. Attitude and general skill standards should be removed from the new syllabus document as the DEE's focus is only on special skill and knowledge standards. Moreover, none of the ESP materials in speaking is relevant to the special skill standard which requires special working skill based on the field of study; whereas, English for teaching should be included as it is relevant to ELT. Consequently, the lecturing method aiming to explain the spoken expressions on the ESP materials is not relevant to INQF.

B. How do the gaps between the new syllabus and INQF match the DEE students' needs for future employment?

It becomes a dilemma if ESP materials are removed from the new syllabus in order to fit in the INQF special skill standard. On the one hand, following Goodson's (2003) suggestion to make the personal, internal and external contexts in line is an attempt to support the Government policy. On the other hand, the graduates' desires of improving the speaking course quality should also be heard. It will be useless to teach something that the students do not need. The designers' belief that the ESP materials are important to teach considering the fact that some graduates work in various fields cannot be ignored. By knowing the types of jobs usually done by graduates in the surrounding culture, a syllabus designer will be able to underlie what the students actually need (Graves, 2000). This has not been described in the INQF. This kind of problem normally happens in a top-down policy, in this case from the Government to university because the Government sometimes is not really aware of what is actually needed in the 'grass root' level. Therefore, ESP materials should not be removed and taught at the DEE; while English for teaching be added as most graduates work as English teachers as informed by the new syllabus designers. ESP is better changed to be EOP since ESP comprises English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

As a result, no changes on the teaching methods in the new syllabus should be made but enriched with more variety of methods such as dialogue (Romney, 2015), culture studies (Grossberg, 2010; Freeman & Freeman, 1994; Rusdiyanti, 2014), audio diaries (Ispri, 2014), video making (Mariyati, 2014; Susiati, 2014), and peer-tutorial projects (Damayanti, 2014) that can encourage students to participate more in speaking in the classroom.

To summarize, ESP, or should be changed into EOP, materials should still be taught at the DEE considering the usefulness for the students' future employment; whereas, the Government should regard the gaps as the INQF improvement. Accordingly, the all teaching methods should be applied supported with other teaching methods for speaking.

V. CONCLUSION

The gaps between the new speaking syllabus and the INQF meet a dilemma where the students need English for Specific Purposes (ESP) materials of non-English language teaching jobs, while the INQF standard requires every Higher Education to refer their curriculum to their field of study in terms of graduates' learning achievement. However, the institution knows more what the students want to learn than the Government since the teachers and the institution intensively deal with the real situation. As a result, hearing the graduates' voice of which materials to teach and teaching methods to use is wiser and more constructive for speaking course with regards the INQF as a general parameter of graduates' qualifications. The DEE focuses only on the special skill and knowledge standards and considers linguistic and discursive aspects in the new syllabus.

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