

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of The study

One of ability in the language is spoken, the ability to speak is sometimes underappreciated in some subjects or any other ability tests. For example, when an exam type of PBT (Text-Based Practice) TOEFL, which is required in the answer the question is this ability of listening, reading and grammar. From there, the writer concludes speak is still not considered to be important. Yet even if it passed the exam, so it takes the ability to speak in order to adapt to the surroundings, especially with a graduation using a different language than their own country. Speaking is a communication tool that can adapt around it. For example, someone pass the TOEFL in England, he must be able to speak English in order that to be able to stay there.

Speaking is a communication. They regard speaking as the most important skill they can acquire. At present, the need for speaking mastery in English has been dramatically increasing due to the strengthening position of English as a language for international communication. (Nazara, 2011:29)

In Indonesia, particularly in education, many of the students have not been able to speak especially English well. The ability to speak English as one of the goals of language learning. It is not only how a learner can master the vocabularies, but how a learner can be abled to apply the vocabularies in everyday life. For make it sure, the writer made the interview with one teacher of

tenth grade in one of senior high school (SMA N 1 Sibolangit)(look at Appendix 6), that is why the writer need to know the student needs of speaking material in English text book.

According to Bygate (1987) in Ampa (2013:175), the notion of speaking skills may be viewed into two basic aspects; those are ‘motor-receptive skills’ and ‘interaction skills’. ‘Motorreceptiveskills’ involve a mastering of sounds and structures and ‘Interaction skills’ involve making decisions about what and how to say things in specific communication situation to convey the right situation. Similarly, Burkart (2004) states that speaking skills involve three areas of knowledge, namely, ‘mechanics’, ‘functions’, and ‘social and cultural rules and norms’. ‘Mechanics’ refer to pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary. ‘Functions’ refer to transaction and interaction, while the ‘social and cultural norms’ refer to understanding how to take into account who is speaking to whom, in what circumstance, about what, and for what reason, such as ‘turn-taking, length of pauses between speakers, and relative roles of participants’.

Based on above, the writer concludes from Bygate (1987) and Burkart (2004) in Ampa (2013:175) that the speaking skill have two basic aspects motor-receptive skills and interaction skills. Motor-receptive skills (mechanics) have three components, they are: vocabulary, pronunciation and structure. Interaction skills (functions) have three components, they are: interaction, transaction and performance. The students’ need focus on mechanic and functions in speaking material of tenth grade. Based on explanation above, the writer is interested to analyze the students’ needs in speaking material of tenth grade in one of senior high school. So, the writer concludes to choose the title An Analysis of Students’ Needs in Speaking Material in English Achievement of Tenth Grade in SMA Negeri 1 Sibolangit.

1.2 Problem of The Study

Based on the background above, the problem of the study is formulated as follows:

1. What are the students’ needs in speaking material of tenth grade in senior high school (SMA Negeri 1 Sibolangit)?
2. Does the materials of English text books accommodate the students’ needs in speaking material of tenth grade in senior high school (SMA Negeri 1 Sibolangit)?

1.3 The Scope of The Study

The writer finds students' needs in English speaking skill by using questionnaire concerning the culture and characteristic in North Sumatera, it is given to tenth grade in senior high school. The teaching materials in English text book will be studied whether it is appropriate with the students' needs for english speaking material in senior high school (SMA Negeri 1 Sibolangit).

1.4 The Objective of The Study

The objectives of the study is presented as follows:

1. To find out the students' needs in speaking material of tenth grade in senior high school (SMA Negeri 1 Sibolangit).
2. To find out the materials of English text book have accomodated the students' needs in speaking material of tenth grade in senior high school (SMA Negeri 1 Sibolangit).

1.5 The Significances of The Study

This study is useful for:

1. For English book compiler in senior high school. They need this research so that the speaking material in English text book in senior high school more accomodate the students needs than before. Especially for book compiler around Sibolangit.
2. For teachers, this research will give more information for speaking achievement in the teaching process.

3. For students, this research will give the information to improve their speaking achievement.
4. For the other researchers who research related the students' needs.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Theoretical Framework

In this chapter, a review related Ampa, dkk theory. According to Ampa, dkk (2013:171) state that in needs analysis, the designer identifies the learning problem, the goals and objectives, the audience's needs, existing knowledge, and any other relevant characteristics of students. Analysis also considers the learning environment, any constraint, the delivery options, and the timeline for the project. This chapter explain about needs analysis for students, speaking skill, instructional material and textbook.

2.2 Needs Analysis

According to Ampa, dkk (2013:171) state that in need analysis, the designer identifies the learning problem, the goals and objectives, the audience's needs, existing knowledge, and any other relevant characteristics of students. Analysis also considers the learning environment, any

constraint, the delivery options, and the timeline for the project. During analysis, the designer develops a clear understanding of the "gaps" between the desired outcomes, and the audience's existing knowledge and skills. The questions used during the analysis phases are: 1) Who is the audience and what are their characteristics?, 2) What types of learning constraints exist?, 3) What are the delivery options?, 4) What are the pedagogical considerations, (verbal, visual, tactile, auditory)?, 5) What is the timeline for project completion? . To identify the specific skills that the learner must have mastered prior to beginning the instruction.

Ampa, dkk (2013:171) state that, "This is not a listing of all the things learners can already do, but an identification of the specific skills they must be able to do in order to begin the instruction. It is also important to identify any specific characteristic of the learners that may be important to consider in the design of the instructional activities. The results of analysis will guide to design the lesson. The areas related to the analysis include 'general characteristics, specific entry competences (knowledge, skills, attitudes,) and learning styles.'" Similarly, Casper (2003) in Ampa, dkk (2013:171) state that, "A need analysis includes all the activities used to collect information about the students' learning needs, wants, wishes, or desires." Furthermore, According to Munby (1987) in Ampa, dkk (2013:171) propose the elements of need analysis which are related to the participants, communication need processor, profile needs, language skills selector, linguistic in-coder, and communicative competence specification.

Based on the Ampa and others' opinions above the needs analysis is to identify the learning problem, goals and objectives, the objectives needs, the knowledge that has been exist, the other characteristics that related with the objectives, and identify the specific characteristic of objectives (students). Besides it, the needs analysis should be consider some things like: the learning environment, every constraints or obstacles, how delivery options for objectives, and the

schedule for design. The needs analysis is not the list from all of things that could be done by the objectives, but identify the specific skill to enable the objectives to be done before the instruction will be begun. Based on Casper's opinion, state that needs analysis covered all the activities about the students' needs in learning and the activities about the needs, hopes and longing of students. Based on Munby's opinion, state that needs analysis concerns with students, concern with the communication need the processor to do it (communication) well, concern with the precise that give the facts about the specific things of needs, concern with the instrument to choose the language skill, *linguistic incoherence*, and concern with the ability to communicate specifically.

2.3 Speaking

In opinion of Thornbury and Slade (2006:17) state that speaking could be defined as a social, multi-sensory speech event, whose topic is unpredictable. Speaking is social, in the sense that it establishes rapport and mutual agreement, maintains and modifies social identity, and involves interpersonal skills.

According to Bygate (1987) in Ampa (2013:175), the notion of speaking skills may be viewed into two basic aspects; those are 'motor-receptive skills' and 'interaction skills'. 'Motor-receptive skills' involve a mastering of sounds and structures and 'Interaction skills' involve making decisions about what and how to say things in specific communication situations to convey the right message. Similarly, Burkart (2004) states that speaking skills involve three areas of knowledge, namely, 'mechanics', 'functions', and 'social and cultural rules and norms'. 'Mechanics' refer to pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary. 'Functions' refer to transaction and interaction, while the 'social and cultural norms' refer to understanding how to take into account who is speaking to whom, in what circumstance, about what, and for what reason, such as 'turn-taking, length of pauses between speakers, and relative roles of participants'.

In Thornbury and Slade's opinion, state that speaking is social, it means that speaking performs the contact and collective agreement, defines, modifies social identity, and engages interpersonal skills. Interpersonal skill is one of speaking skill. The speaking skill is stated by Bygate's opinion in Ampa and other friends, it is looked by two basic aspects namely: motor-receptive skills and interaction skills. Motor-receptive skills are the skills that receive the

movement in the language especially in mastering of sound and the organizes the shape of language. Interaction skills is the skills that do action one each other in decide a decision about what and how to said things in a communication to be a precise situation. Similarly, the speaking skills based on Burkart'opinion engaged three aspects of knowledge, namely, mechanics, funtions and cultural rules and norms. Mechanics refer to vocabulary, pronunciation and structure. Functions refer to transaction, such: the agreement of buying and selling and the contact for doing an action one each other in a precise situation.

Based on above, the writer concludes from Thornbury and Slade (2006:17), Bygate (1987) and Burkart (2004) that speaking performs the contact and collective agreement, defends, modifies social identity, and engages interpersonal skills. Interpersonal skill is one of speaking skill. The speaking skill have two basic aspects motor-receptive skills and interaction skills. Motor-receptive skills (mechanics) have three components, they are: vocabulary, pronunciation and structure. Interaction skills (functions) have three components, they are: interaction, transaction and performance.

“Without speaking, show that you do not understand what the speaker is saying, by looking confused, scratching your head in confusion, etc. However, only do this once. Without speaking, show that you do not agree with something the speaker is saying, by looking angry, shaking your head, etc. However, only do this once.” (Harmer, 2005:270).

Based on Harmer, speaking is a tool to show the expressing what you are feeling by words, such as: confuse, scratching the head in confusion, angry because disagree with the speaker saying with shaking your head. Scratching the head in confusion do only once, this is not show that you confuse about the speaker saying. Shake your head because you disagree about the speaker saying is not enough to show for speaker that you disagree what the speaker saying. So, express your feeling with speak out.

2.3.1 Improving Speaking Skill

Macmillan (1988:653) stated that the Student Government campaign is well under way, and the candidates are addressing the class. One candidate has a clear voice and a confident manner; the other slouches and mumbles. Which one is easier to listen to? Which one has better ideas? The answer to the first question is obvious. The second question probably cannot be answered fairly because no one heard the second speaker's message through the mumbles.

No matter how great an idea is, if it is not communicated properly, it can not be made effective. Good speakers know this fact. They learn to use their voices and their bodies to get idea across to their listeners.

When you learned to swim or to ride a bike, you were encourage to practice a new skill. If you play a musical instrument or a sport, you spend a lot of time rehearsing or drilling. Your voice is the product of special sets of muscles in your throat, chest, and head. Like all muscles, they can be strengthened or trained through special exercises. First, however, you will have to find out what kind of training they need. In order to analyze your voice production, you should pay attention to these qualities by Macmillan (1988:653) namely:

1. Pronunciation-the clarity or distinctness of your words.
2. Volume-the loudness or strenght of your voice.
3. Tempo-the speed or rate at which you speak.
4. Pitch-the level or tone of your voice

2.3.2 Types for Speaking Skill

Brown (2003:141) states there are five types in speaking skill, they are:

1. Imitative

At one end of a continuum of types of speaking performances is the ability to simply parrot back (imitate) a word or phrase or possibly a sentence. While this is ability to simply parrot back (imitate) a word or phrase or possibly a sentence. While this is a purely phonetic level of oral production, a number of prosodic, lexical, and grammatical properties of language may be included.

2. Intensive

A second type of speaking frequently employed in assessment context is the production of short stretches of oral language designed to demonstrate competence in a narrow band of grammatical, phrasal, lexical, or phonology relationship (such as prosodic elements-intonation, stress, rhythm, juncture).

3. Responsive

Responsive assessment tasks include interaction and test comprehension but at the somewhat limited level of very short conversations, standard greetings and small talk, simple requests and comments, and the like. The stimulus is almost always a spoken prompt (in order to preserve authenticity) with perhaps only one or two follow-up questions or retorts;

A. Mary : Excuse me, do you have a time?

Dough : Yeah, Nine-fifteen

B. T : What is the most urgent environmental problem today?

S : I would say massive deforestation

C. Jeff : Hey, Steff, how's it going?

Steff : Not bad, and yourself?

Jeff : I'm good.

Steff : Cool, okay, gotta ya.

4. Interactive

The differences between responsive and interactive speaking is the length and complexity of the interaction, which sometimes includes multiple exchange and/or multiple participants. Interaction can be take the two forms of transactional language, which has the purpose of exchange specific information or interpersonal exchanges, which have the purpose of maintaining social relationships (in the three dialogue cite above, A and B were transactional and C was interpersonal). In interpersonal exchange, oral production can become pragmatically complex with the need of speak in casual register and use colloquial language, ellipsis, slang, humor, and other sociolinguistic comentions.

5. Extensive (monologue)

Extensive oral production tasks include speeches, oral presentations, and story-telling, during which the opportunity for oral interaction from listeners is either highly limited (perhaps to non verbal responses) or rule out altogether. Language style is frequently more deliberative (planning is involve) and formal for extensive tasks, but we can not rule out certain informal monologues such as casually delivered speech, (for

example, my vacation in the mountains, a recipe for outstanding pasta primavera, recounting the plot of a novel or movie).

2.3.3 Element of Speaking

According to Harmer (2001:269), among the element necessary for spoken production are in the following:

1. Connected : effective speaker of English need to be able not only to produced the individual phonemes of English but also to use fluent connected speech. In connected speech sounds are modified, omitted, added or weakened.
2. Expressive devises : native speaker of English change the pitch and stress of particular parts of utterances, vary volume and speed, and show by other physical and non verbal (paralinguistic) means how they are feeling (especially in face-to-face interaction). The use of these devices contribute to the ability to convey meanings. They allow the extra expression of emotion and intensity. Student should be able to deploy at least some of such suprasegmental features and devices in the same way if they are to be fully effective communicators.
3. Lexis and grammar : spontaneous speech is marked by the use of a number of common lexical phrases, for different functions such as agreeing or disagreeing, expressing surprise, or approval. Where students are involved spesific speaking context such as a job interview, we can prime them, in the same way, with certain usefull phrases which they can produce at various stages of an interaction.
4. Negotiation language : effective speaking benefits from the negotiatory language we use to seek clarification and show the structure what we are saying. We often need to ask for clarification when we are listening someone else talk. For students this is

especially crucial. A useful thing teachers can do, therefore, is to offer them phrases such as the following :

1. (I'm sorry) I didn't quite catch that.
2. (I'm sorry) I don't understand.
3. What exactly X mean?
4. Could you explain that again, please?

2.4 Instructional Materials

“Real – life experiences provide the most direct type of learning, but they are difficult to supply in the traditional classroom. Most experiences may be more occur through verbal symbolism-written and spoken words. These classroom experiences may be easier for teachers to supply, but they may be more difficult for many students to understand. Verbal symbolism depends on the ability to conceptualize and think in the abstract, while the impact of firsthand experiences is immediate and concrete. Various multisensory instructional aids-texts, pictures, games, simulations-can substitute for firsthand experiences and enhances understanding, so they are an integral part of the learning activity.”(Orstein, 1992:381).

Based on Orstein, the students need the materials to develop on the ability by multisensory instructional aids, such as : text, pictures, games, and simulations. Regardless of the type of instructional aids to be used, a teacher must consider it in light of the purpose of learning activity. The instructional aid must be suited to that objective or purpose-whether it be subject matter mastery, skills improvement, or valuing. Although materials and media can stimulate and maintain student interest, they are not meant merely to entertain the students; student need to understand this fact. Unless students are properly guided, they become distracted by the attention-getting aspects of the instructional aids and lose sight of their educational significance. For example, the students of a teacher who frequently starts the lesson with a political cartoon, picture, or film-strip may, after a while, look forward to these little aids as a way of delaying or avoiding discussion and critical thinking.

2.4.1 Purpose of Instructional Aids

Orstein (1992:382) stated that instructional aids can affect students in many ways by:

1. Motivating students. For example, model cars, trucks, trains, boats, and airplane can be used to introduced a unit on transportation.
2. Contributing to understanding. For example, graps can be used to clarify fluctuations of the stock market.
3. Providing varied learning experiences. For example, a workbook or paperback novel can supplement the assigned textbook.
4. Reinforcing learning. For example, when students hear the music of a composer, they can better understand a discussion of his or her style.
5. Allowing for different interests. For example, various sections of a newspaper can be assigned, depending on the type of lesson or the learner.
6. Encouraging participation. For example, role-playing increases individual involvement.
7. Providing experiences that might not otherwise be had. For example, simulations allow students to feel and sense experiences in the classroom.
8. Changing attitudes and feelings. For example, a photograph can be used to increase the emotional impact of abstract concepts such as pollution, war, and poverty.

Orstein (1992:382-383) stated that the needs of each learning situation determine the materials and media the teacher uses. There some general considerations, however, that can help in estimating their value and appropriateness.

1. Interest is the extent to which the learner's curiosity is aroused and sustained by the use of instructional aids.
2. Relevance is the degree to which the experience provided by the aids is related to the learner's personal needs or goals.
3. Expectancy is the degree to which the learner expects to succeed at learning and sees success as being under his or her control when using aids.
4. Satisfaction is the level of outcome and the learner's satisfaction in performing the tasks.

All of these factors influence students' performance with instructional aids.

2.4.2 Selecting Instructional Materials

According to Ornstein (1992:387), how do instructional materials best serve students? Well-developed materials contain well-constructed tasks and important aspects of what is being taught. Below are some guides for selecting, using, and developing instructional materials, with emphasis on reading and subject-related tasks.

1. Materials should be relevant to the instruction that is going on in the rest of the unit or lesson.
2. A portion of the materials should provide for a systematic and cumulative review of what has already been taught.
3. Materials should reflect the most important aspects of what is being taught in the course or subject.
4. Material should contain, in a form that is readily accessible to students and teachers, extra tasks for student who need extra practice.

5. The vocabulary and concept level of materials should be related to that of the rest of the subject.
6. The language used in the materials must be consistent with that used in the rest of the lesson and in the rest of the textbook.
7. Instructions to students should be clear, unambiguous, and easy to follow; brevity is a virtue.
8. The layout of pages should combine attractiveness with utility.
9. Materials should contain enough content so that there is a chance a student will learn something and not simply be exposed to something.
10. Tasks that require students to make discriminations must be preceded by a sufficient number of tasks that provide practice on components of the discriminations.
11. The content of materials must be accurate and precise; tasks must not present wrong information or be presented in language that contains grammatical errors and incorrectly used words.
12. At least some tasks should be fun and have an obvious payoff to them.
13. Student response modes should be consistent from task to task and should be the closest possible to reading and writing.
14. The instructional design of individual tasks and of task sequences should be carefully planned.
15. There should be a limit on the number of different materials so as not to overload or confuse students.
16. Artwork in the materials must be consistent with the text.
17. Cute, nonfunctional, space- and time-consuming materials should be avoided.

18. When appropriate, materials should be accompanied by brief explanations of purpose for both teacher and students.

2.4.3 Presenting Materials

According to Orstein (1992:394), the following factors should be considered when presenting materials (published or teacher-made) namely:

1. Understanding

Understanding requires matching materials to the learner's abilities and prior knowledge. If students don't understand the materials, frustration sets in, making learning even more difficult. The teacher must know whether the materials are appropriate for the students to begin with and whether the students are understanding the material as it is being presented. The teacher must check for student understanding; this is especially important for younger and slower students and when teaching new information.

2. Structuring

Structuring, sometimes referred to as clarifying, involves organizing the material so it is clear to students. This means directions, objectives, and main ideas are stated clearly. Internal and final summaries cover the content. Transitions between main ideas are smooth and well integrated. Writing is not vague. Sufficient examples are provided. New terms and concept are defined. Adequate practice and review assignments reinforce new learning. Clarity is especially important when new subject matter is introduced and / or integrated into previous learning.

3. Sequencing

The teacher should arrange the material to provide continuous and cumulative learning and to give attention to prerequisite skills and concepts. According to two educators, there are four basic ways to sequence materials: (1) simple to complex-materials gradually increase in complexity and become broader and deeper in meaning; (2) parts to whole-parts of information are presented first enable the student to grasp the whole; (3) whole to parts-whole concepts or generalizations are presented first to facilitate organizing and integrating new and isolated items, and (4) chronological (which is a favorite organizer for many teachers)-topics, ideas, or events are studied in the order that they take place.

4. Balancing

The materials need to be vertically and horizontally related or balanced. Vertical relationships refer to building of content and experiences at the lesson, unit, and course levels. Ninth-grade math concepts build on eight-grade concepts, the second unit builds on the first, and so on. Horizontal relationships establish a multidisciplinary and unified view of different subjects. The content of social studies course is related to English and science.

5. Explaining

This refers to the way headings, terms, illustrations, and summary exercises are integrated and elucidate the content. Do the examples illustrate major concepts? Are the major ideas identified in chapter objectives and overviews? Do the headings outline a logical development of the content? Do the materials show relationships among topics, events, or facts to present an in-depth view of major concepts? The

student should be able to discover important concepts and informations and related new knowledge to prior knowledge on their own through the materials. In short, the content of the materials should be explicit, related, and cumulative in nature.

6. Pacing

This refers to how much and how quickly material is presented. The volume or length of material should not overwhelm students, but there must be enough to have an effect. As student get older, the amount of material can increase, the presentation can be longer and more complex, and the breadth and depth can be expanded.

7. Elaborating

Learning is enhanced when the same material is presented in different ways. Teacher should be taught to transform information from one form to another, and to apply new information to prior knowledge-by using various techniques such as comparing and contrasting, drawing analogies, drawing inferences, paraphrasing, summarizing, and predicting. A series of elaboration strategies helps students learn new materials. Students can be taught a broad list of questions representing different techniques (of comparing and contrasting, drawing analogies, etc.), or the teacher can raise the questions in class when discussing the materials: (1) What is the main idea of the story? (2) If I lived during that period, how would I feel? (3) What does this remind me of? (4) How can I use the information in the project I am working on? (5) How do I feel about the author's opinion? (6) How can I put this material in my own words? (7) What might be an example of this? (8) How can I explain this to my father, sister? (9) If I were to interview the author, what questions would I ask? and (10) How does this apply to my own life?

8. Transferring

Instructional materials, according to Posner and Strike, may be transferred in that they are: (1) concept-related, drawing heavily on structure of knowledge, the concepts, principles, or theories of the subject; (2) inquiry-related, derived from critical thinking skills and procedures employed by learning theorists or scholar in the field; (3) learner-related, related to the needs, interests, or experiences of the students; and (4) utilization-related, showing how people can use them in real-life situations. The first two organizers seem to work best with intrinsically motivated (self-motivated) students and the second two with students who need to be extrinsically motivated. Since most students need some extrinsic motivation, learner-related and utilization-related materials will be more effective with the majority of students.

2.5 Textbook

The textbook is the most frequently used instructional tool beyond the primary grades, and in some cases it is the only the teacher uses. “The textbook and its parner, the workbook,” asserts Eisner, “Provide the curicular hub around which much of what is taught revolves.” Interm of purchasing, it receive the highest priority, with the exception of costly hardware such as computer and copying machine. Textbook can have a strong influence or even domnate the nature and sequence of a course and thus profoundly affect the learning experience.

Reliance the textbook is consistent with the stress on written words as the medium of education-as well as the way many teachers them selves were educated. Dependence on the textbook is also linked to the time when a majority of teachers were poorly prepared in subject and read the text one day in advance of students. Many of today’s teacher, while better educated

than their predecessors, may lack time or training to prepare new materials; thus they continue to rely on the textbook and workbook. Text book have the advantages and disadvantages. Orstein (1992:397) state that advantages and disadvantages of textbook as follow:

2.5.1 The Advantages of Text Book

There are eight points about advantages of text book that is written by Orstein (1992:397) namely:

1. Provides an outline that the teacher can use inplanning courses, units, and lessons;
2. summarize a great deal of pertinent information;
3. enables the students to take home in convenient form most of the material they need to learn for the course;
4. provides a common resourse for all students to follow;
5. provides the teacher with ideas regarding the organization of information and activities;
6. includes pictures, graphs, maps, and other teaching aids, and other illustrative material, which facilitates understanding;
7. includes other teaching aids, such as summaries and review questions; and
8. relieves the teacher of preparing material for the course, thus allowing more time to prepare the lesson.

2.5.2 The Disadvantages of Text Book

In many classes the textbook becomes the only point of view in the course. In effect, the course is based on the theories and biases of the author of the text. Even though the author may try to maintain objectivity, what is selected, what is omitted, and how the discussion is slanted reflect the author's views.

In order to have wide application and to increase potential sales, textbooks tend to be general, noncontroversial, and bland. They are usually written for a national audience, so they do not consider local issues, topics, and data that might upset potential audiences or interest groups are omitted.

Textbooks summarize large quantities of data and in so doing may become general and superficial and may discourage conceptual thinking, critical analysis, and evaluation. With the exception of those on mathematics, most textbooks quickly become outdated because of the rapid change of events; but because they are costly, they are often used long after they should be replaced.

2.5.3 Selecting a Textbook

Clark and Irving (1991:411) state that consequently, you should be aware of what makes a good textbook, even though you may have to use texts that have been selected by others. The following questions can serve as a guide:

1. Will the use of this book lead to the attainment of your course objectives?
2. Does the book cover the proper topics with the proper emphases? Is any content omitted?
3. Is the book so arranged and so written that it will enhance student learning?
4. Is the book interesting? Is it readable?
5. Are the topics arranged in a desirable sequence? If not, can the sequence be altered or portions omitted without disrupting the usefulness of the book?
6. Are the concepts presented clearly? Are they adequately developed with sufficient detail, or is there a tendency to try to jam in too many ideas too compactly?

7. Is the content accurate and accurately presented?
8. Is the book free from bias?
9. Are information and interpretation up to date?
10. Is the author competent in the field?
11. Does the author write clearly and well?
12. Is the technical reading level appropriate?
13. Is the conceptual reading level appropriate?
14. Are the vocabulary and language appropriate for the students of the class?
15. Does the book resume background knowledge and experience that the students do not yet have?
16. Does the author make good use headings, summaries, and similar devices? Are there opportunities for the readers to visualize, generalize, apply, and evaluate the content?
17. Are the table of contents, preface, index, appendixes, and glossary adequate?
18. Does the book provide suggestion for use supplementary materials?
19. Does the book provide a variety of suggestions for stimulating, thought-provoking instructional activities?
20. Are these suggestions sufficiently varied both in level and kind?
21. Are the sources used by the author documented adequately?
22. Are the book well illustrations accurate, purposeful, and properly captioned? Are they placed near the text they are design to illustrate?
23. Does the book have suitable maps, charts, and tables? Are they clear and carefully done? Does the author refrain from trying to cram too much data onto the maps and charts?

24. Is the book well made? Does it seem to be strong and durable?
25. Does the book look good? Is the type clear and radable? Do the pages make a pleasant appearance with enough white space?

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHOD

3.1 The Research Design

In this study, the researcher used the qualitative research. The research designed be a plan of the writer to obtain the answer to research questions. It mean that in research design the researcher decided the research method that is given for students. The writer used descriptive method to analyze the student needs speaking achievement in English textbook.

Berg (2006:3) states that, “ Qualitative research refers to the meanings, concept, definition, characters, methapors, symbols, and description about things”. Qualitative employs conversation, document analysis, interviews, and recoding. It is not suggested that numerical measure are never used, but other means of description are emphasized.

3.2 Participant and Place

The participant of this research is the students who are in tenth grade of Senior high school which is placed in SMA NEGERI 1 SIBOLANGIT.

3.3 Data Collection

In this study, the writer used questionnaires and interview questions as the instrument to obtain the data. The data was collected by questionnaires and books.

3.4 Technique of Analyzing Data

The subjects of the research were 40 students from the first semester of tenth grade in SMA Negeri 1 Sibolangit. They were involved to gather information about the students' needs. The instruments were questionnaires to find out the needs. The questionnaires covered the items of students' needs. To know the students' needs, the researcher offered the items of questionnaire that consisted of 5 choices, i.e. *very important (5)*, *important (4)*, *doubt (3)*, *unimportant (2)*, *very unimportant (1)*. Data obtained from the questionnaires were analyzed by using the percentage technique based on Ampa and other friends's method. The formula was: $P : F/N \times 100$, where P was per cent, F was the frequency of the responses, and N was a total number of responses. The analytical process of the students' needs towards the aspects of speaking skills was classified into 5 (very important) converted with 81%-100%, 4 (important) converted with 61%-80%, 3 (doubt) converted with 41%-60%, 2 (not important) converted with 21%-40% and 1 (very unimportant) converted with <20% (Ampa, dkk : 2013). Furthermore, the results of the data analysis were interpreted qualitatively.