CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

In line with the objective of this study, some fundamental aspects that provide information on the characteristics and theoretical elements of the terms related to the study need to be highlighted in this section. In this regard, the section presents the theories that support the research. There are overviews of the definition of English Language Teaching (ELT), Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), communicative competence, speaking skills, environment analysis, need analysis, syllabus, and previous related research.

A. English Language Teaching (ELT)

The history of English Language Teaching (ELT) as an academic and professional field is closely tied to the establishment of the English Language Teaching Journal (ELTJ). According to Smith (2007), the journal was first published in 1946 by the British Council in London under the title English Language Teaching. It quickly became a key publication for teachers and scholars worldwide. The journal's success popularised the term "ELT," which later came to represent the entire global field of teaching English as a foreign or second language. Over time, the journal was renamed several times — from English Language Teaching to English Language Teaching Journal in 1973, and finally to ELT Journal in 1981 — reflecting its expanding international influence and academic recognition.[35]

A central figure in the early history of English Language Teaching (ELT) was A. S. Hornby (1898–1978), who is often regarded as the father of ELT in postwar Britain. Hornby's combined experience as a teacher and researcher contributed significantly to the development of English teaching methodologies. After completing his studies in English at University College London, he began teaching in Japan, where he worked closely with linguist Harold E. Palmer at the Institute for Research in English Teaching (IRET) in Tokyo. Their collaboration

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[35]Smith, R. C. (2007). *The origins of ELT Journal*. ELT Journal. https://wrap.warwick.ac.uk/id/eprint/75581/

focused on vocabulary research and the development of learner-friendly teaching principles. This partnership later produced A Learner's Dictionary of Current English (1942), which evolved into the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary—one of the most influential references for English learners and educators worldwide (Smith, 2007; Cowie, 1999).[36]

Hornby's teaching experience in Japan had a profound impact on his philosophy of language education. Through his collaboration with Harold E. Palmer and his own classroom research, he developed the Situational Approach. This instructional method emphasized teaching grammar and vocabulary through meaningful situations and real-life contexts. This method became one of the defining features of British English Language Teaching (ELT) from the 1950s to the 1970s, laying the groundwork for the later development of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), which emphasized interaction and fluency as key goals of learning.[37] Hornby's influence extended beyond methodology through his major publications, including A Guide to Patterns and Usage in English (1954) and Oxford Progressive English for Adult Learners (1954–1956). These works became essential resources for teachers and contributed to the professionalization of ELT during the mid-twentieth century.[38]

Smith (2007) explains that the creation of the English Language Teaching journal represented more than the publication of an academic periodical; it marked the beginning of a new era in Britain's global role in English education. Through the work of A. S. Hornby and the support of the British Council, English Language Teaching (ELT) began to take shape as a recognized professional discipline.[39] During the Second World War and the years that followed, demand for English-language instruction increased significantly, particularly in Europe, Asia, and the Middle East. The British Council responded by opening English-language teaching centers, developing instructional materials, and sponsoring teacher-training

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[36] Cowie, A. P. (1999). *English dictionaries for foreign learners: A history.* **Oxford University Press.**
[37] Smith, R. C. (2007).
[38] Cowie, A. P. (1999).
[39] Ibid.

programs across these regions.[40] The ELT Journal became a central platform for sharing pedagogical ideas, classroom techniques, and research findings among teachers and scholars worldwide, helping to unify and professionalize the field of ELT.[41]

Before its institutional development, English teaching in the United Kingdom lacked a unified professional foundation. There were few teacher education programs, limited coordination among practitioners, and minimal research into pedagogy. Hornby's initiatives helped unite universities, publishers, and international organizations, transforming English Language Teaching (ELT) from isolated teaching practices into a recognized professional discipline.[42] His collaboration with institutions such as the BBC, particularly through the English by Radio programs, and with Oxford University Press contributed significantly to spreading new methods of English instruction to international audiences.[43]

Smith (2007) observes that early ELT research was largely practical rather than theoretical, emerging from teachers' experiences abroad rather than from formal linguistic or psychological study.[44] Articles in the early issues of English Language Teaching focused on classroom techniques, pronunciation, and materials development rather than on abstract linguistic theory. Only during the 1950s, with the rise of applied linguistics, did more formal frameworks begin to shape ELT methodology.[45] Hornby's editorial direction during this period emphasized sharing teacher experiences and practical classroom reports, including discussions on using radio and film for language teaching. This grassroots exchange helped create a global network of English teachers dedicated to innovation and collaboration.[46]

Smith (2007) further highlights that British ELT's foundations were closely linked to prewar research in Japan. The Institute for Research in English Teaching (IRET), founded by Harold E. Palmer in 1923, represented the first major center for

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[40] Howatt, A. P. R., & Widdowson, H. G. (2004). *A history of English language teaching* (2nd ed.). Oxford University Press.
[41] Phillipson, R. (2009). *Linguistic imperialism continued.* Routledge.
[42] Ibid.
[43] Howatt, A. P. R., & Widdowson, H. G. (2004)
[44] Smith, R. C. (2007).
[45] Ibid.
[46] Ibid.

systematic study of English pedagogy. Hornby, who served as IRET's editor and later director, continued Palmer's principles after returning to Britain. The Bulletin of the Institute for Research in English Teaching directly inspired the creation of the English Language Teaching journal. Smith identifies IRET as the "missing link" connecting early European language reform movements with modern ELT. Palmer and Hornby's research emphasized vocabulary control, learner experimentation, and situational practice—ideas that shaped later developments such as the Situational and Communicative Approaches. [47] Their emphasis on cooperation between British and Japanese educators laid the groundwork for international collaboration in English teaching.

The literature shows that the emergence of English Language Teaching (ELT) as a global profession can be traced to the pioneering work of A. S. Hornby and Harold E. Palmer. Their collaboration in Japan, the establishment of the ELT Journal, and the British Council's institutional support laid the foundation for the field. [48] According to Smith (2007), ELT developed from a practice-based movement into a research-informed discipline that values innovation, cultural exchange, and international collaboration.[49] This historical background explains why ELT today continues to integrate practical classroom techniques with theoretical understanding and global inclusivity—principles that remain central to modern English education.

In designing a supplementary speaking English course for senior high school students, the ELT framework provides the theoretical and pedagogical foundation for effective syllabus development. The design must align with ELT's aim of developing not only linguistic accuracy but also communicative competence, defined as the ability to use language meaningfully in real contexts.[50] Accordingly, the syllabus should address three overarching components of language ability—

[47] Cowie, A. P. (1999). *English dictionaries for foreign learners: A history.* Oxford University Press.
[48] Ibid.
[49] Smith, R. C. (2007).
[50] Hymes, D. (1972). *On communicative competence.* In J. B. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics: Selected readings* (pp. 269–293). Penguin

linguistic, pragmatic, and interactional competence.[51] In practical terms, this means structuring speaking activities that progress from controlled practice (accuracy) toward freer communication (fluency), thereby bridging form and function. For senior high school learners transitioning from learning about English to actively using it, the supplementary syllabus should capitalize on their growing autonomy and readiness for interaction, in alignment with ELT principles.[52]

A crucial step in ELT-based syllabus design is conducting a thorough needs analysis, which identifies what learners can currently do, what they are required to do, and the gap between these stages.[53] In a speaking course, this involves determining the oral communication tasks students must perform—such as presentations, dialogues, and debates—and analyzing their present speaking proficiency and attitudes. Empirical studies show that when syllabi are designed around authentic learner needs, the outcomes are more motivating and effective.[54] Yana (2021), for example, found that Indonesian students preferred pair and group-based speaking activities over teacher-led drills, suggesting that interactive, learner-centered designs enhance participation and engagement. By grounding syllabus development in needs analysis, the supplementary speaking course reflects ELT's learner-oriented principles.[55]

In linking ELT theory to syllabus structure, the supplementary speaking course should adopt a task-based or function-notional syllabus rather than one limited to grammatical structures.[56] In ELT, task-based syllabi assume that language is best learned through performing meaningful communication.[57] In a senior high school context, this may involve designing modules such as "Conducting a Class Interview," "Role Play: Planning a School Event," or "Group Discussion: Career Aspirations." Each module should outline communicative

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[51] Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). *Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing.* **Applied Linguistics, 1**(1), 1–47.

[52] Richards, J. C. (2013). *Curriculum approaches in language teaching: Forward, central, and backward design.* **RELC Journal, 44**(1), 5–33.

[53] Hutchinson, T., & Waters, A. (1987). *English for specific purposes: A learning-centred approach.* Cambridge University Press.

[54] Nation, I. S. P., & Macalister, J. (2010). Language curriculum design. Routledge.

[55] Hutchinson & Waters (1987).

[56] Nunan, D. (1988). *Syllabus design.* Oxford University Press.

[57] Willis, J. (1996). A framework for task-based learning. Longman.

goals, real-world relevance, and assessment criteria that measure interactional competence. Research on ELT syllabus design demonstrates that when learning modules are organized around authentic communication and learner agency, both engagement and performance improve.[58]

From an assessment perspective, the supplementary speaking syllabus must ensure coherence between learning objectives, classroom activities, and evaluation methods.[59] For example, when a module aims to have students "exchange opinions in peer dialogues," assessment tasks should involve role-play performances, peer feedback, and reflective journals rather than grammar-based tests.[60] Evidence from recent studies shows that when technology-based tasks and communicative assessments are aligned within the syllabus, students demonstrate greater motivation, confidence, and measurable progress in speaking proficiency.[61] Therefore, a modern supplementary speaking course must integrate technology, communicative competence, learner-centered approaches, and performance-based assessment to achieve the holistic goals of ELT.

B. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

1. Historical Background

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) emerged in Europe during the 1970s to make language instruction more responsive to learners' communicative and functional needs. It developed from the British language-teaching tradition, which previously relied on the Situational Language Teaching method, which emphasized grammar instruction through meaningful contexts. However, this earlier method was found to restrict learner creativity in spontaneous interaction, prompting a shift toward studying language as a system of communication rather than a set of

[58] Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2014). *Approaches and methods in language teaching* (3rd ed.). Cambridge University Press.
[59] Graves, K. (2000). *Designing language courses: A guide for teachers.* Heinle & Heinle
[60] Sebastian, R., & Yuniarto, D. (2025). *Interactive assessment design in speaking-focused English syllabi: Lessons from Indonesian secondary schools.* **Journal of English Language Pedagogy and Practice, 7**(1), 66–78
[61] Macalister, J., & Nation, I. P. (2019). *Language curriculum design.* Routledge.

structural patterns.[62] This development was influenced by Chomsky's theory of linguistic competence, which highlighted that grammar-based models could not fully explain the creativity of human language use.[63] British applied linguists therefore began to emphasize communicative proficiency over structural accuracy, giving rise to a new pedagogical focus on meaning and interaction.[64]

The social and political changes in Europe at that time also fueled this shift. The growing interdependence of European nations increased the need for effective communication across languages, leading educators to explore alternative, functional ways of teaching.[65] In 1964, a group of scholars supported by the Council of Europe proposed that language-learning tasks be broken down into smaller communicative units that reflected learners' real-world needs.[66] British linguist D. A. Wilkins (1976) advanced this idea by distinguishing between notional categories (such as time, quantity, or location) and communicative functions (such as requesting, denying, or offering), creating the foundation for the notional-functional syllabus.[67] This innovation marked a significant departure from traditional grammar-based instruction toward one focused on meaning and purpose in communication.

By the mid-1970s, CLT expanded to the American context, where it was viewed not as a fixed method but as an adaptable approach emphasizing communicative competence and the integration of the four language skills.[68] Since then, CLT has evolved into multiple interpretations and applications

[62] Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2014). *Approaches and methods in language teaching* (3rd ed.). Cambridge University Press.

[63] Chomsky, N. (1965). Aspects of the theory of syntax. MIT Press.

[64] Hymes, D. H. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), Sociolinguistics (pp. 269–293). Penguin.

[65] Howatt, A. P. R., & Smith, R. C. (2014). *The history of English language teaching* (2nd ed.). Oxford University Press.

[66] Council of Europe. (1971). *Modern languages: Learning, teaching, assessment. A Common European Framework of Reference.* Council of Europe Publishing.

[67] Wilkins, D. A. (1976). *Notional syllabuses.* Oxford University Press.

[68] Savignon, S. J. (2018). *Communicative competence: Theory and classroom practice* (3rd ed.). The McGraw-Hill Companies.

across the world, but all share a commitment to promoting fluency, interaction, and authentic language use rather than mechanical accuracy.[69]

2. Theoretical Development

The foundation of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) can be traced back to the linguistic revolution initiated by Noam Chomsky in the late 1950s. Chomsky (1957, 1965) challenged behaviorist and structuralist theories of language learning, arguing that language is not a product of mere imitation but rather a generative system rooted in the human mind.[70] He proposed that all humans possess an innate capacity for language acquisition, grounded in a set of universal principles he termed universal grammar.[71] This concept implies that beneath the surface variations of world languages lies a shared deep structure that enables individuals to generate an infinite number of meaningful utterances.[72]

Chomsky's distinction between competence—the internalized knowledge of language—and performance—its actual use in communication—became foundational in modern linguistics.[73] However, his notion of competence was largely idealized and did not address the social and contextual dimensions of language use.[74] Dell Hymes (1972) responded by proposing the concept of communicative competence, which extends beyond grammatical accuracy to include the ability to convey, interpret, and negotiate meaning appropriately across social situations. [75] Hymes emphasized that grammatical rules alone are insufficient without understanding the cultural and pragmatic norms governing their use,

[69] Lin, Q. (2025). English Language Teaching Goals: Embracing Global Varieties for Effective Communication. Journal of Contemporary Educational Research. https://doi.org/10.26689/jcer.v9i5.10563
[70] Chomsky, N. (2002). Syntactic structures. Walter de Gruyter.
[71] Chomsky, N. (2014). Aspects of the Theory of Syntax (No. 11). MIT press.
[72] Grenfell, M., & Harris, V. (2002). *Modern languages and learning strategies*: In theory and practice. Routledge.
[73] Cook, V., & Newson, M. (2014). *Chomsky's universal grammar: An introduction* (3rd ed.). Wiley-Blackwell.
[74] Brown, H. D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (4th ed.). Longman.
[75] Hymes, D. H. (1972). *On communicative competence.* In J. B. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics* (pp. 269–293). Penguin.

famously stating that "there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless."[76]

Subsequent scholars expanded this model. Savignon (2002) defined communicative competence as comprising four components—grammatical, discourse, sociocultural, and strategic—each essential for meaningful communication.[77] Richards (2006) further clarified that communicative competence includes the ability to use language for diverse purposes, adapt to varying contexts, understand different text types, and employ strategies to sustain communication despite linguistic limitations.[78] This marked a major shift from focusing on form to prioritizing function and meaning in language teaching.

Around the same period, psycholinguist Stephen Krashen developed the Input Hypothesis, which contributed to the CLT paradigm. He argued that language acquisition occurs naturally through exposure to comprehensible input—language slightly beyond the learner's current proficiency level.[79] Krashen (1982) posited that the Language Acquisition Device (LAD) in every learner's brain is activated through meaningful interaction rather than rote learning.[80] Although Krashen was not directly associated with the British proponents of CLT, his theories aligned closely with its principles, emphasizing meaning-focused learning, the importance of interaction, and the centrality of learner identity in the acquisition process.[81]

The convergence of these linguistic, sociocultural, and psycholinguistic perspectives created the intellectual foundation for Communicative Language Teaching. This pedagogy views language

[76] Grenfell, M., & Harris, V. (2002). *Modern languages and learning strategies: In theory and practice*. Routledge.

[77] Savignon, S. J. (2002). *Communicative language teaching: Linguistic theory and classroom practice.* Yale University Press.

[78] Richards, J. C. (2006). *Communicative language teaching today.* Cambridge University Press.

[79] Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition.* Pergamon Press.

[80] Krashen, S. D. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications.* Longman.

[81] Ellis, R. (2015). *Understanding second language acquisition 2nd edition*. Oxford university press.

learning as both a cognitive and a social process involving interaction, negotiation, and contextualized meaning-making.

3. Communicative Language Teaching Approach

The Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach emphasizes the learner as the central focus of the teaching process. The communicative needs of learners form the foundation for curriculum design, with the primary goal of developing functional communicative competence. In addition, sociocultural variations in learning styles are considered essential factors in designing an effective language program that responds to learners' diverse contexts:[82]

1. Language instruction is grounded in the view of language as communication, through which speakers create meaning and interact for specific purposes in both spoken and written forms.

2. Diversity is an integral aspect of language learning and use.

3. Communicative competence is relative rather than absolute.

4. Different language varieties can serve as models for learning and teaching.

5. Culture functions as a crucial factor in shaping a speaker's communicative competence in both first and additional languages.

6. A range of techniques and methodologies can be appropriately applied.

7. Language use enables learners to express ideas, interact with others, and comprehend and produce texts, corresponding with their developing competence.

8. Learners are encouraged to use the language in performing communicative tasks for various purposes throughout the learning process.[83]

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[82] Savignon, S. J. (2002). *Interpreting Communicative Language Teaching: Contexts and Concerns in Teacher Education.* Yale University Press.
[83] Berns, M. (1990). In S. J. Savignon (Ed.), *Interpreting Communicative Language Teaching: Contexts and Concerns in Teacher Education* (pp. 104). Yale University Press.

Traditional grammar-based curricula in language teaching focused primarily on mastering discrete grammatical structures through controlled practice activities such as memorizing dialogues and performing drills. Over time, however, these practices evolved to include pair work, role plays, group activities, and project-based tasks that encouraged more active learner participation.[84] In contrast, the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach shifted attention from grammar mastery to the functional use of language in real communication. Its main goal is to develop fluency and the ability to communicate effectively in diverse contexts, integrating grammar within meaningful interaction.[85] Authentic materials are used, and students are encouraged to participate actively in classroom discourse. Within this framework, interactive small-group work became an essential strategy to promote fluency, where learners listen to peers, take responsibility for their own learning, and view the teacher as a guide and facilitator rather than a sole authority.[86]

Another key principle of CLT is scaffolding, which refers to the role of teachers and others in supporting learners' development and providing temporary support structures that enable them to reach higher levels of understanding.[87] This idea is rooted in Lev Vygotsky's sociocultural theory and his concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), which posits that learning occurs through meaningful social interaction with more capable peers or mentors.[88] Learning, therefore, is not an isolated activity but a socially embedded process of internalization. In the CLT framework, this learner-centeredness is realized as students construct knowledge

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[84] Parrish, B. (2006). *The communicative language teaching approach*. Retrieved from https://media.neliti.com/media/publications/232429-the-communicative-language-teaching-appr-3d20a903.pdf

[85] Parrish, B. (2006).

[86] Parrish, B. (2006).

[87] Van der Stuyf, R. R. (2002). *Scaffolding as a teaching strategy*. Adolescent Learning and Development Section, 0500A. Retrieved from https://docslib.org/doc/13956777/scaffolding-as-a-teaching-strategy

[88] Arshad, M., & Chen, W. H. (2021). Vygotsky's sociocultural theory of literacy: Scaffolding children to read and write at an early age. *Wacana, 11*(2). Retrieved from https://scholarhub.ui.ac.id/wacana/vol11/iss2/7/

collaboratively and build upon prior experiences through guided participation and communicative engagement.[89]

4. Roles of Teachers and Students in CLT

In the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) classroom, the teacher and the learners assume dynamic but complementary roles that foster authentic communication and learner autonomy. [90] The teacher functions primarily as a facilitator and guide, responsible for creating conditions that encourage communication and collaboration among learners. Rather than serving as the central authority, the teacher supports the learning process by monitoring students' progress, providing feedback, and modeling the communicative use of the target language.[91] At the same time, students act as communicators who actively negotiate meaning, express themselves, and work to understand others—even when their linguistic competence is incomplete.[92]

This shift toward a more learner-centered model reduces teacher dominance and encourages students to take greater responsibility for their own learning.[93] CLT therefore emphasizes learning through meaningful interaction rather than rote memorization or structural drills. Classroom activities are typically organized around pair and group work, task completion, and the use of authentic materials to promote genuine language use.[94] According to Breen and Candlin (1980), learners in this approach take on the role of "negotiators"—not only negotiating meaning in communication but also negotiating their own learning process within a group context.[95]

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[89] Van der Stuyf, R. R. (2002)

[90] Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000). *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching* (2nd ed.). Oxford University Press.

[91] Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000).

[92] Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000).

[93] Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2014). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching* (3rd ed.). Cambridge University Press.

[94] Rance-Roney, J. (2010). Reconceptualizing interaction in communicative language teaching. *The English Teacher Forum*, 48(1), 18–25.

[95] Breen, M. P., & Candlin, C. N. (1980). The essentials of a communicative curriculum in language teaching. *Applied Linguistics, 1*(2), 89–112. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/I.2.89

Learner-centered instruction within CLT focuses on students' needs, goals, and learning styles, promoting cooperation rather than competition in the classroom.[96] Teachers create opportunities for students to participate freely, speak spontaneously, and develop confidence without fear of making errors.[97] This approach helps learners become more responsible and creative participants in the learning process while the teacher provides guidance and constructive feedback as needed.[98] Ultimately, CLT prioritizes interaction, collaboration, and communicative competence as the core outcomes of language learning.[99]

5. English as a Foreign Language in CLT

In English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts, one key dimension of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is the interdependence between teacher and learner roles. According to Nunan (2010), the success of communicative-based instruction depends largely on the active participation of both teachers and learners in constructing meaningful interaction.[100] Similarly, Savignon and Wang (2018) emphasize that the effectiveness of communicative teaching is influenced by the teacher's performance within a learner-centered instructional culture that values collaboration and contextual adaptability.[101] Furthermore, the interaction among school context, teacher perceptions, and instructional practices plays a critical role in shaping the successful implementation of CLT.[102] In line with this, Butler (2011) explains that teacher performance develops within a "technical culture" shaped by teachers' daily classroom

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[96] Brown, H. D. (2010). *Language Assessment: Principles and Classroom Practices* (2nd ed.). Pearson Education.
[97] Brown, H. D. (2010)
[98] Brown, H. D. (2010)
[99] Savignon, S. J. (1976). Communicative competence: Theory and classroom practice.
[100] Nunan, D. (2010). *Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages: An Introduction*. Routledge.
[101] Savignon, S. J., & Wang, C. (2003). Communicative language teaching in EFL contexts: Learner attitudes and perceptions. *IRAL — International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 41*(3), 223–249.
[102] Savignon, S. J., & Wang, C. (2003).

practices, beliefs, and experiences.[103] These interrelated factors highlight that the communicative approach requires both teachers and learners to engage as co-constructors of meaning, with teaching and learning viewed as interactive, contextually situated processes.

6. The Evolution of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT): From Theory to Today's Classroom

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) emerged in the 1970s as a response to the shortcomings of traditional language-teaching approaches such as the Grammar-Translation and Audiolingual Methods, which relied heavily on rote learning, grammar drills, and repetition.[104] Inspired by Hymes' notion of communicative competence, CLT redefined language learning as the development of learners' ability to use language for social interaction rather than merely the acquisition of grammatical knowledge.[105] Foundational theories such as Halliday's Systemic Functional Linguistics and Wilkins' notional-functional syllabus helped establish the theoretical underpinnings of communicative pedagogy.[106] This shift toward a learner-centered and meaning-focused approach became one of the most influential transformations in the history of English language teaching.[107]

At its core, CLT emphasizes communicative competence alongside linguistic competence, aiming to balance fluency and accuracy in communication.[108] Learners are encouraged to use the target language in meaningful contexts through authentic communicative tasks, discussions, and role-plays that simulate real-life situations.[109] The framework evolved

[103] Butler YG. The Implementation of Communicative and Task-Based Language Teaching in the Asia-Pacific Region. Annual Review of Applied Linguistics. 2011;31:36-57. doi:10.1017/S0267190511000122

[104] Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2014).

[105] ymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics: Selected readings* (pp. 269–293). Penguin.

[106] Wilkins, D. A. (1976). *Notional syllabuses.* Oxford University Press.

[107] Larsen-Freeman, D., & Anderson, M. (2011). *Techniques and principles in language teaching* (3rd ed.). Oxford University Press.

[108] Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. Applied Linguistics, 1(1), 1–47. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/I.1.1

[109] Long, M. H. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. Ritchie & T. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 413–468). Academic Press.

into Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), which prioritizes task completion as the main vehicle for language acquisition.[110] In recent years, digital platforms such as Zoom and Google Meet have expanded opportunities for real-time interaction, reinforcing CLT's goal of authentic communication in technologically mediated environments. [111] These innovations demonstrate CLT's adaptability, integrating traditional interactional principles with contemporary digital pedagogies.

Despite its global influence, CLT implementation often faces contextual challenges, particularly in examination-driven or non-Western educational settings. Teachers frequently encounter constraints such as large class sizes, limited time, and pressure to prioritize grammar-focused assessments.[112] Early models of CLT were criticized for neglecting explicit grammar instruction and for providing insufficient assessment guidance.[113] Furthermore, effective implementation requires teachers to possess strong language proficiency and pedagogical autonomy to design authentic communicative tasks. [114] As Brown and Abeywickrama argue, coherent assessment frameworks aligned with communicative goals are crucial for successful practice.[115]

Recent developments show that CLT continues to evolve through integration with other methodologies such as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and project-based learning, both of which encourage meaningful communication through subject-specific and collaborative tasks. [116] The advent of artificial intelligence and adaptive

[110] Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching.* Oxford University Press.

[111] Meskill, C., & Anthony, N. (2015). *Teaching languages online.* Multilingual Matters; Godwin-Jones, R. (2018). Using mobile technology to develop language skills and cultural understanding. *Language Learning & Technology, 22*(3), 3–20.

[112] Butler, Y. G. (2011). The implementation of communicative and task-based language teaching in the Asia-Pacific region. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 31*, 36–57.

[113] Swan, M. (1985). A critical look at the communicative approach (1). *ELT Journal, 39*(1), 2–12; Richards, J. C. (2006). *Communicative language teaching today.* Cambridge University Press.

[114] Bax, S. (2003). The end of CLT: A context approach to language teaching. *ELT Journal, 57*(3), 278–287.

[115] Brown, H. D., & Abeywickrama, P. (2010). *Language assessment: Principles and classroom practices* (2nd ed.). Pearson Education.

[116] Coyle, D., Hood, P., & Marsh, D. (2010). *CLIL: Content and language integrated learning.* Cambridge University Press; Stoller, F. L. (2006). Establishing a theoretical foundation for project-based learning in

learning technologies has further enhanced communicative learning by providing personalized feedback and real-time interaction.[117] Moreover, contemporary scholars emphasize that modern CLT must foster pragmatic and intercultural competence to prepare learners for global communication.[118] Synthesizing these developments, the future of CLT lies in its adaptability—uniting technology, cultural awareness, and reflective pedagogy while maintaining its central tenet: language as purposeful, meaningful communication.[119]

C. Communicative Competence

The concept of communicative proficiency in English language teaching emerged when British applied linguists began to emphasize language as a means of real communication rather than as a mere collection of grammatical rules. This pedagogical shift reflected a growing awareness that language learning should focus on meaning and interaction rather than on structural accuracy alone.[120] According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), this change was partly a response to Noam Chomsky's influential theory of linguistic competence, which posits that native speakers possess an innate system of grammatical knowledge enabling them to generate well-formed sentences. [121] Chomsky's distinction between competence (the mental representation of grammatical rules) and performance (the actual use of language in real communication) provided an important theoretical foundation for language teaching reform.

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second and foreign language education. In G. H. Beckett & P. C. Miller (Eds.), *Project-based second and foreign language education* (pp. 19–40). Information Age Publishing.

[117] Li, Z., & Hegelheimer, V. (2013). Mobile-assisted grammar exercises: Effects on self-editing in L2 writing. *Language Learning & Technology, 17*(3), 135–156; Beatty, K. (2010). *Teaching and researching computer-assisted language learning* (2nd ed.). Routledge.

[118] Celce-Murcia, M. (2008). Rethinking the role of communicative competence in language teaching. In E. Alcón-Soler & P. Safont Jordà (Eds.), *Intercultural language use and language learning* (pp. 41–57). Springer; Kasper, G., & Rose, K. R. (2002). *Pragmatic development in a second language.* Blackwell.

[119] Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2014). *Approaches and methods in language teaching* (3rd ed.). Cambridge University Press.

[120] Yassi, A. H., & Kaharuddin, K. (2015). *Sociolinguistics: An introduction to language and society.* Makassar: Aksara Timur.

[121] Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax.* MIT Press.

However, Dell Hymes challenged Chomsky's limited focus on grammar, arguing that linguistic competence alone could not account for effective communication. Hymes (1972) introduced the broader concept of communicative competence, encompassing not only grammatical ability but also sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic skills that enable speakers to use language appropriately across contexts. [122] In this view, an effective communicator adapts language use according to social norms, cultural expectations, and communicative goals. Thus, communicative competence integrates all four major language skills—listening, speaking, reading, and writing—combining productive and receptive abilities to enable meaningful interaction within authentic communicative situations.[123]

1. Communicative Competence in the Communicative Approach

In the Communicative Approach, communicative competence refers to the ability to use linguistic knowledge to engage in meaningful, contextually appropriate communication. Grammatical competence remains a foundational component, since sentence structure and syntax enable clarity and accuracy. Richards (2010, p. 48) emphasizes that learners must demonstrate several key indicators of communicative proficiency:

1. The ability to use language for a range of communicative purposes and functions.
2. Awareness of appropriate language use according to context, participants, and setting.
3. Understanding of various text types and genres.
4. The use of communication strategies to sustain interaction and overcome breakdowns.

These competencies correspond with the framework developed by Richards and Rodgers (2010, pp. 64–65), who describe the Communicative Approach as grounded in four essential principles:

[122] Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics: Selected readings* (pp. 269–293). Penguin Books.
[123] Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching* (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press

1. Language is fundamentally a system for expressing meaning.
2. Interaction and communication are the central functions of language.
3. Language structures should be taught in relation to their communicative purpose.
4. Discourse serves as the primary unit of analysis, representing how meaning and function operate in real communication.

Together, these ideas affirm that communicative language teaching prioritizes the functional and situational use of language over mere grammatical accuracy.

2. CLT and Communicative Competence

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is fundamentally designed to develop learners' communicative competence, emphasizing their ability to use language effectively and appropriately in real-life contexts. The concept of competence originated in Noam Chomsky's linguistic theory, which focused on the innate grammatical knowledge that enables speakers to produce and understand sentences within their language. [124] However, Dell Hymes (1972) expanded this notion by introducing the concept of communicative competence, arguing that successful language use requires not only grammatical accuracy but also sociocultural appropriateness.[125] Building upon Hymes' framework, Canale and Swain (1980) further refined the concept, defining communicative competence as the underlying systems of knowledge and skills required for communication in social interaction. [126] They proposed four interrelated components:

1. Grammatical competence involves mastery of linguistic elements such as phonology, vocabulary, orthography, and syntax.

2. Sociolinguistic competence which entails understanding social norms, cultural context, and appropriateness of expression.

[124] Chomsky, N. (1965).

[125] Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics: Selected readings* (pp. 269–293). Penguin Books.

[126] Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics, 1*(1), 1–47. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/I.1.1

3. Discourse competence refers to the ability to organize ideas cohesively and coherently across spoken and written texts.

4. Strategic competence, or the use of strategies to compensate for communication breakdowns and maintain interaction.

Bachman (as cited in Sreehari, 2012) later broadened this model, grouping communicative competence into organizational competence—which includes grammatical and discourse knowledge—and pragmatic competence, encompassing sociolinguistic and illocutionary aspects of communication. Similarly, Kiato and Kiato (as cited in Sreehari, 2012, p. 20) noted that communicative competence essentially refers to the ability to use language appropriately and effectively, both receptively (understanding) and productively (speaking or writing), in authentic situations.

Richards (2010, p. 3) further clarified that communicative competence involves knowing:

1. How to use language for various purposes and communicative functions.

2. How to adapt language use according to social context, formality, and audience.

3. How to produce and comprehend different text types such as dialogues, reports, or narratives.

4. How to maintain effective communication even with limited linguistic resources by employing compensatory strategies.

3. The Integration of the CLT Approach into Communicative Competence

In contemporary English language teaching practice, scholars and practitioners increasingly emphasize integrating a "CLT approach" into communicative language teaching to enhance motivation and reduce learners' anxiety.[127] The inclusion of interactive, enjoyable activities such

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[127] Shelly, A., & Thomas, K. (2023). Enhancing speaking proficiency through gamified tasks in EFL classrooms. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 14*(2), 212-221. https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1402.10

as role-plays, storytelling, games, and digital projects helps students internalize communicative skills more effectively. In this way, a CLT-based communicative learning environment can cultivate creativity, collaboration, and confidence, transforming the classroom into an emotionally positive space for authentic interaction. Gene Roy and Pratima Mitra's purported 2025 work suggests that CLT-oriented communicative tasks promote learner engagement and real-world communication, echoing Stephen Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis (1982), which asserts that language acquisition is more efficient when learners are motivated, less anxious, and confident. [128] Contemporary empirical research likewise confirms that combining communicative competence with enjoyable activities leads to significant improvements in students' speaking fluency, vocabulary, and participation. For example, role-play and information-gap games encourage spontaneous speech and problem-solving, while storytelling and project-based tasks stimulate contextualized language use. Therefore, the CLT approach within CLT reinforces the development of communicative competence by integrating linguistic knowledge, sociocultural awareness, and emotional engagement into a holistic learning experience.

D. Speaking in English as a Foreign Language (EFL)

Speaking is one of the core skills in English language learning. It is particularly crucial for senior high school students, as it enables them to communicate effectively in academic discussions, social interactions, and future professional contexts. In English as a Foreign Language (EFL) settings, such as Indonesia, speaking proficiency is often considered the most challenging skill to develop, as learners have limited opportunities to use English outside the classroom. [129] Many students struggle with fluency and confidence due to insufficient practice, fear of making mistakes, and teacher-centered approaches that

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[128] Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Pergamon Press.

[129] ichards, J. C. (2008). *Teaching listening and speaking: From theory to practice.* Cambridge University Press.

emphasize grammar and vocabulary memorization.[130] As a result, students may perform well in written tasks but often struggle with spontaneous oral communication in real-life situations.

To overcome these challenges, teaching strategies must prioritize communicative competence rather than purely grammatical accuracy. Hymes[131] introduced the concept of communicative competence, emphasizing the ability to use language appropriately in various social contexts. Similarly, Brown highlights that effective speaking instruction must balance fluency, accuracy, and complexity.[132] Fluency involves speaking smoothly and naturally; accuracy focuses on correct grammar and vocabulary use; and complexity reflects the richness of the language structures employed. For senior high school students, integrating these three dimensions in classroom activities is essential for fostering both confidence and proficiency.

Affective factors also play a central role in the development of speaking. According to Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis,[133] students with high motivation, low anxiety, and positive self-esteem acquire language more successfully. In Indonesian high school classrooms, students often hesitate to speak because of fear of making errors and negative peer judgment. Therefore, creating a safe and supportive learning atmosphere is vital. When students feel comfortable and encouraged, their willingness to participate in speaking activities significantly increases.

Research in Indonesian senior high schools has consistently shown that interactive and enjoyable speaking activities—such as role-plays, debates, storytelling, interviews, and group discussions—boost both student motivation and oral performance. [134] These activities provide authentic opportunities for communication, making English more relevant to students' lives while reducing

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[130] Pérez-Jorge, D., Barragán-Medero, F., & Rodríguez-Jiménez, M. C. (2020). Developing communicative competence through speaking activities in EFL classrooms. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research, 19*(6), 159–177. https://doi.org/10.26803/ijlter.19.6.9

[131] Hymes, D., Pride, J. B., & Holmes, J. (1972). On communicative competence. Sociolinguistics. *Eds. Pride, JB y J. Holmes*, 269-293.

[132] Brown, H. D. (2007). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (5th ed.). Pearson Education.

[133] Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition.* Pergamon Press.

[134] Islam, F., & Musdalifah. (2022). The implementation of speaking activities to improve students' motivation and performance in EFL classrooms. *Journal of English Language Teaching and Education, 5*(1), 45–55.

language anxiety. Similarly, integrating authentic media such as films, videos, and digital tools has been found to enhance speaking outcomes when paired with engaging teaching methods.[135]

Developing speaking proficiency in senior high school EFL contexts goes beyond traditional grammar-based instruction; it requires creating lively, communicative, and supportive classroom environments that offer students meaningful opportunities to practise speaking confidently. Teachers in such settings should adopt a facilitator role, designing interaction-rich tasks that balance fluency, accuracy, and complexity. For instance, role-plays, debates, and interactive storytelling have been shown to increase student engagement and oral performance in Indonesian secondary schools.[136] Other effective activities include games and information-gap tasks, which promote spontaneous speech and peer collaboration in low-anxiety contexts.[137] For example, a study found that interactive storytelling significantly improved EFL learners' speaking performance and classroom engagement.[138] By lowering affective barriers through tasks such as paired discussions, digital storytelling, and peer interviews, students are more likely to view English not merely as an academic subject but as a practical tool for real-world communication. The activities help to practice speaking English. Some activities that can improve speaking ability, namely:

1. Role Play – Students act out real-life situations or imagined scenarios to enhance fluency and confidence. Role-play helps learners practice authentic communication and improve their social interaction skills in English.[139]

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[135] Rustam, M., Rahman, S., & Rukmini, D. (2024). Integrating digital media in EFL classrooms to improve speaking proficiency. *International Journal of Language Education, 8*(2), 210–225.

[136] Tarmin, A. M., & Aeni, N. (2024). EFL teacher's tactics in teaching speaking at senior high school. *Jadila: Journal of Development and Innovation in Language and Literature Education, 4*(3), 146-160. https://doi.org/10.52760/jadila.v4i3.783

[137] Fikroni, M. R. (2019). EFL students' speaking activities: The significance of games in classroom context. *Journal of Language Intelligence and Culture, 1*(1), 70-81. https://doi.org/10.35719/jlic.v1i01.4

[138] Marzuki, M., Prayogo, J. A., & Wahyudi, A. (2024). Improving the EFL learners' speaking ability through interactive storytelling. *Dinamika Ilmu, 16*(1). https://doi.org/10.21093/di.v16i1.307

[139] Huang, C. (2008). Role play for ESL/EFL children in the English classroom. *The Internet TESL Journal, 14*(2). http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Huang-RolePlay.html

2. Storytelling – Learners retell or create stories using their own words, which fosters creativity, vocabulary enrichment, and narrative coherence.[140]

3. Debate – Students engage in structured argumentation to express opinions, defend viewpoints, and develop critical thinking and persuasive speaking abilities.[141]

4. Discussion – Group discussions encourage students to share ideas, negotiate meaning, and develop interactive competence in a collaborative environment.[142]

5. Interview – Conducting peer or guest interviews gives students opportunities to practice formulating questions and giving spontaneous responses.[143]

6. Speech or Presentation – Delivering short speeches or presentations enhances students' confidence, organization, and pronunciation accuracy.[144]

7. Information-Gap Activities – Students exchange missing information to complete a task, promoting authentic communication and listening comprehension.[145]

8. Think–Pair–Share – Learners first think individually, then discuss in pairs, and finally share with the class, which builds confidence and reflective thinking.[146]

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[140] Zuhriyah, M. (2017). Storytelling to improve students' speaking skill. *English Education: Journal of English Teaching and Research, 2*(1), 122–132.

[141] Halvorsen, A. (2005). Incorporating critical thinking skills development into ESL/EFL courses. *The Internet TESL Journal, 11*(3). http://iteslj.org

[142] Wahyurianto, A. (2018). The effect of discussion technique on students' speaking ability. *English Education Journal, 8*(2), 18–25.*

[143] Nunan, D. (2015). *Teaching English to speakers of other languages: An introduction.* Routledge.

[144] Angraini, D. (2016). *Improving students' speaking ability through speech activity.* Universitas Islam Negeri Raden Fatah Palembang.

[145] Littlewood, W. (2007). Communicative and task-based language teaching in East Asian classrooms. *Language Teaching, 40*(3), 243–249. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444807004363

[146] Lyman, F. (1981). The responsive classroom discussion: The inclusion of all students. In A. S. Anderson (Ed.), *Mainstreaming digest* (pp. 109–113). University of Maryland Press.

9. Games (Speaking Games) – CLT activities such as "20 Questions" or "Describe and Draw" reduce anxiety and motivate learners to speak more freely.[147]

10. Digital Storytelling / Online Discussion – Using multimedia platforms or digital storytelling tools encourages authentic communication through technology.[148]

1. Purpose of speaking

It is argued that the purpose of speaking can be either transactional or interactional. There are clear differences between the spoken language used in both types of discourse. In transactional discourse, language primarily conveys information, making it message-oriented rather than listener-oriented. [149] In this type of communication, accuracy, coherence, and confirmation of understanding are essential to ensure the message is effectively delivered. Examples of transactional language use include news broadcasts, descriptions, narrations, and instructions. [150] In contrast, interactional discourse focuses on maintaining social relationships rather than transmitting information. This type of communication, sometimes referred to as the interpersonal use of language, plays a significant social role in "oiling the wheels of social interaction." [151] Examples of interactional speaking include greetings, small talk, and compliments, which serve to build rapport and strengthen social bonds rather than to exchange factual information.

2. Speaking genres

The genre theory assumes that different speech events result in different 13 types of texts, which are distinct in terms of their overall structure and kinds of grammatical items typically associated with them. Carter and

[147] Fikroni, M. R. (2019). EFL students' speaking activities: The significance of games in classroom context. *Journal of Language Intelligence and Culture, 1*(1), 70–81. https://doi.org/10.35719/jlic.v1i01.4

[148] Robin, B. R. (2016). The power of digital storytelling to support teaching and learning. *Digital Education Review, 30*, 17–29.

[149] Nunan, D. (2019).

[150] Richards, J. C. (2010).

[151] Yule, G. (2019). *The study of language* (7th ed.). Cambridge University Press.

McCarthy (2017, p. 67) classify speaking extracts in terms of genres as follows:

- Narrative: A series of everyday anecdotes told with active listener participation.

- Identifying: Extracts in which people talk about themselves, their biography, where they live, their jobs, their likes and dislikes.

- Language-in-action: Data recorded while people are doing things such as cooking, packing, moving furniture… etc.

- Comment-elaboration: People giving casual opinions and commenting on things, other people, events and so on.

- Debate and argument: Data, in which people take up positions, pursue arguments and expound on their opinions.

- Decision-making and negotiating outcomes: Data illustrating ways in which people work towards decisions/consensus or negotiate their way through problems towards solutions. It is recognized that no speech genre can be entirely discrete; for example, narratives can be embedded within other main generic categories. Furthermore, speaking genres overlap with language functions explained before.

E. Environment Analysis

Environmental analysis (Tessmer, 1990) involves examining factors that will strongly influence decisions about the course's goals, what to include, and how to teach and assess it. These factors can arise from the learners, the teachers, and the teaching and learning situation.[152]

Environmental analysis is also called "situation analysis" (Richards, 2001) or "constraints analysis".[153] A constraint can be positive in curriculum design. For example, a constraint could be that the teachers are all highly trained, able, and willing to create their own class activities. It would have a major effect on curriculum design, as much of the format and presentation work could be left to the teachers. In some models of curriculum design, environment analysis is included in needs analysis.

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[152] Tessmer, M. (1990). *Analyzing the instructional setting: A guide for course designers* (pp. 57-61). Educational Technology Publications.
[153] Richards, J. C. (2001). *Curriculum development in language teaching.* Cambridge University Press.

Environmental analysis is an important part of curriculum design because, at its most basic level, it ensures the course is usable. For example, if teachers' training is very low and not taken into account, it might happen that they are unable to handle the course activities. Similarly, if the course material is too expensive or requires technology or copying facilities that are unavailable, the course may be unusable. Many factors could affect curriculum design, so as part of the procedure of environmental analysis, the curriculum designer should
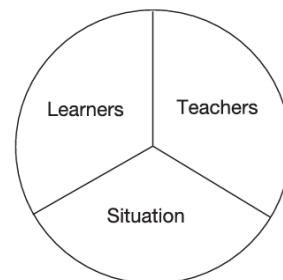

Figure 1.1 Factors in environment analysis.

decide which factors are the most important. The importance of a factor depends on:

- whether the course will still be useful if the factor is not taken into account
- how large and pervasive the effect of the factor is on the course.

1. Environment Constraints

Table 2.1 lists a range of environmental constraints. When designing a course, the table can serve as a checklist to help identify the few that will receive the most attention in a particular piece of curriculum design. Columns 1 and 2 list some constraints. Column 3 outlines some effects on curriculum design. There are numerous other possible effects. In the table, the constraints are presented as questions that curriculum designers can ask. Normally, they would be framed as descriptive statements. For example, the first listed constraint could be expressed as "The learners are interested in a limited range of topics".

Table 2.1 Environment constraints and effects[154]

General constraints	Particular constraints	Effects on curriculum design
The learners How old are they?	Are the learners interested in a wide range of topics? Can the learners do all kinds of learning activities?	take account of learners' interests Use appropriate activities
What do they know?	Do they share a (first) language? Can their first language be used to help learning? What previous learning have they done?	Use teacher-centred activities. Use some translation. Use first language pre-reading activities. Use reading input
Do they need English for a special purpose?	Will they use English for a wide range of purposes? Do they expect to learn certain things from the course? Do they have expectations about what the course will be like?	Set general-purpose goals, including expected material. Allow learners to negotiate the course's structure.
Do they have preferred ways of learning?	Learning English? Do they have to learn English? Can they attend class regularly?	Use highly motivating activities. Include relevant topics, recycle activities. Use a spiral curriculum.
The teachers Are they trained?	Can they prepare some of their own material? Can they handle group work and individualised learning?	Provide ready-made activities. Use group-work activities.
Are they confident in their use of English?	Can they provide good models? Can they produce their own spoken or written material? Can they correct spoken or written work?	Provide taped materials Provide a complete set of course material Use activities that do not require feedback
Do they have time for preparation and marking?	Can the course include homework? Can the course include work which has to be marked?	Provide homework activities Provide answer keys

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[154] Nation, I. S. P., & Macalister, J. (2010). *Language curriculum design.* Routledge.

The situation Is there a suitable classroom?	Can the arrangement of the desks be changed for group work? Is the blackboard big enough and easily seen?	Use group work activities Use material that does not require the students to have a course book
Is there enough time?	Can the learners reach the goals in the available time? Is the course intensive? Can the learners give all their time to the course?	Set staged goals Provide plenty of material Set limited goals
Are there enough resources?	Can material be photocopied? Can each learner have a copy of the course book? Is there plenty of supplementary material? Are tape recorders etc available?	Provide individualised material Use teacher-focused material Match the content to available supplementary material Develop audio and video taped material
Is it worth developing the course?	Do learners meet English outside class? Will the course be run several times?	Provide contact with a large amount of English in class Put time into preparing the course

Sometimes it is necessary to consider broader aspects of the situation when conducting an environmental analysis. There may, for example, be institutional or government policies requiring the use of the target language in schools (Liu et al., 2004), or there may be negative attitudes towards the target language among learners in post-colonial societies (Asmah, 1992). Dubin and Olshtain (1986) suggest a useful way of thinking about the wider environment (Figure 2.2) that can have implications for language curriculum design.[155] For example, the language curriculum in a situation where:

- the target language is recognised as one of a country's official languages (the political and national context)
- there are relatively few native speakers (the language setting)
- there are relatively few opportunities to use the language outside the classroom (patterns of language use in society)

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

- majority-language speakers doubt the target language has contemporary relevance (group and individual attitudes)

will differ greatly from that in a situation where:

- the target language is recognised as one of a country's official languages
- there are relatively few native speakers
- there are many opportunities to use the target language outside the classroom
- the target language provides employment and educational opportunities.

F. Needs Analysis

Several schools consider a needs analysis helpful for analysing a further topic. It is defined as a fundamental, significant establishment development in academic affairs. Therefore, as the notion has a wide definition, some scholars have tried to present their visions. Bosher & Smalkowski explained that the definition is focused on language needs and the development of curriculum analysis for language programs. [156] Meanwhile, Yalden stated that needs analysis is the correlation between learners' wants and learners' needs. [157] Moreover, Brindly combines the definitions of two significant terms, such as ―objective needs‖ and ―subjective needs‖. He developed the students' aims into the learning outcomes' objectives as the basis. Additionally, Brown defines needs analysis as the combination of students' personal data and the objective of target linguistics.[158]

1. Purpose of Need Analysis

Needs Analysis is a significant tool to understand students' needs and develop the implementation of educational policies. Nunan in Juan (2016, p.10) states that the information obtained from NA can be delivered through the following purposes:

[156] Bosher, S., & Smalkoski, K. (2002). *From needs analysis to curriculum development: Designing a course in health-care communication for immigrant students in the USA. English for Specific Purposes, 21*(1), 59–79. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(01)00002-3

[157] Yalden, J. (1987). *Principles of course design for language teaching.* Cambridge University Press.

[158] Brown, J. D. (1995). *The elements of language curriculum: A systematic approach to program development.* Heinle & Heinle. (as cited in Al-Hamlan, S. (2011). *A needs analysis approach to EFL syllabus development for second-year students at the College of Science and Arts in Unaizah, Qassim University, Saudi Arabia* [Doctoral dissertation, University of Essex]).

a. It is used to set the objective of the course and to direct the selection of contents.

b. It is used to adjust the syllabus and methodology to fill the gap between the teachers' and learners' expected teaching and learning approaches.

Meanwhile, Richards (2010, p.2) considers Needs Analysis as ‗significant establishment'of general language courses and in language curriculum planning. As Needs Analysis can be employed for the following:

a. It provides immense input for the language program. Richards (2010, p.2)

b. It covers for significant language needs in a language program. Richards (2010, p.2)

c. It covers improvement in pedagogy and assessment Tarone & Yule (2010, p.10)

All in all, through the definition of NA notions and purposes, it shows that Needs Analysis can be used for an extensive range of purposes. Furthermore, it can serve as an assessment for a program improvement.

2. Types of Needs Analysis

As various linguists have different views of the types of NA, Nunan refers to two types of NA that have been used by syllabus designers, as cited in Haque (2014, p. 3). They are:

a. Learner analysis: a type of NA that delivers information about the learner.

b. Task analysis: a type of NA that delivers information about the expected learner tasks.

Equally, Richeterich defines two other types of NA, as cited in Haque (2014, p. 3).

a. Subjective Need Analysis: it provides learners with information about their perceptions, goals, and priorities.

b. Objective Need Analysis: it delivers learners' factual information about their biographical details, including age, nationality, and home language.

3. The Approach to Need Analysis

There are several components to developing an investigation into language planning, teaching, and learning. The following namely:

a. Target Situation Analysis (TSA)

The development of Needs Analysis was firmly established in the mid-1970s. It was was mainly concerned with linguistic and register analysis. Dudley-Evans and St. John (2016, p. 12) suggested that the scope of it centers on grammar and vocabulary. In addition to the publication of Munby's Communicative Syllabus Design (2018, p. 13), a needs analysis was developed to place the learner's purposes in a central position. Therefore, it was called as target which broaden into the term of Target Situation Analysis (TSA). It was first used by Chambers in 1980. He claimed that TSA is the communication in the target situation. Meanwhile, Munby (2018, p.20) explained that Communicative Needs Processor (CNP) was the organization of variables that affected the communication. Munby's variables model is based on the following elements:

1) Participants: identification of the learners' identity information of age, sex, competencies of target language. nationality and

2) Communication Needs Processor: identification of the learners' communication needs based on socio cultural and stylistic variables.

3) Profile of Needs: identification of the data result established through the processing of data in the CNP;

4) The Language Skills Selector: identification of the specific language skills data result in CNP.

5) The Linguistic Encoder: identification of contextual approach.

6) The Communicative Competence Specification: identification of the learners' communicative competence.

From the components above, it can be concluded that the Munby model of the Communication Needs Processor (CNP) is a significant tool for providing a needs analysis profile. Therefore, there are eight parameters for the approach to needs analysis. There are:

1) Purposive domain: the aim of target language setting at the end of the course.

2) Setting: the environment where English will be used.

3) Interaction: the learners' relationship prediction.

4) Instrumentality: the medium of the language learning.

5) Dialect: the learners' production of their spatial, temporal, or social aspect.

6) Communicative event: the production of learners' communication and interaction.

7) Communicative key: the learners' manner in the communicative event.

8) Target level: the learners' level of linguistic skills achievements at the end of the course.

The purpose of Munby's CNP is to determine the learners' target level in the learning program. According to Hutchinson and Waters (2010, p.35) the result of Munby's model is to acquire the learners' profile of the target situation. In addition, Robinson cited in Nur'aeni (2016, p.16) stated that Munby's model provides the learners' comprehensive data banks and target performance.

As many researchers in the scope of target situation needs analysis acquired Munby's CNP. Hutchinson and Waters (2010, p.35) complement the model with a comprehensive target situation analysis framework. It consists a list of questions for the learners'. The questions refer to the learners' learning process of target.

Table 2.2 These questions of Environment Analysis

No	Questions	Parameters
1.	What is the purpose of learning the language? a. To study; b. To work; c. For training d. For a combination of studying, working and training; e. For	Munby's purposive domain

	some other purposes, e.g. social status, examination preparation, job promotion	
2.	How will the learners' use the language? a. Medium: listening, speaking, writing, reading. b. Channel: dialogue, video, conference, etc. c. Discourse: publication, academic text, lectures, etc.	Munby's instrumentality
3.	What will cover the content areas? a. Subjects: biology, politics, education, etc; b. Level: teacher, staff, under-graduate, etc	Munby's Communicative event
4.	Where will the learners use the language? a. Physical setting: hospital, school, company; b. Human context : groups, conversation; c. Linguistic context: abroad, rural areas.	Munby's Setting (physical and psychological)
5.	When will the learners use the language? a. Regularly with the course; b. Frequently with the course.	

Jordan (2016, p.21) claimed that Target Situation Analysis which focuses on the learner's needs and target level performance is renowned as Munby's influential approach and model. But Dudley-Evans and St. John (2016, p.21) argued that the drawback in this model is that he did not provide detailed lists of how to prioritize micro functions in his CNP or any of the affective factors which today are recognized as important. Thus, West (2016, p.22) summarized the drawbacks in four major points:[159]

> 1) Complexity: the instrument system of Munby's model is inflexible, complex, and time-consuming.

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[159] West R. Needs analysis in language teaching. Language Teaching. 1994;27(1):1-19. doi:10.1017/S0261444800007527

2) Learner-centered: the learners' data collection only identify data about the learner rather than from the learner.

3) Constraints: in Munby's model constraints should be analysed after the needs analysis procedure. In contrast, many researchers urges that constraints should be done at the beginning of the needs analysis process.

4) Language: the lack in the Munby's system is not subsequent to convert the learner profile into a language syllabus.

Furthermore, Hutchinson and Waters (2018, p.23) stated that writing micro details of the learners' is less efficient. It only focuses on one viewpoint, in the analysis but neglects the user-institutions and other things. Meanwhile, there is no distinction between necessities, wants, and learning needs. In addition, Hutchinson and Waters (2018, p.23) overlook three types important aspect in needs analysis, which are:

1) Necessities: Necessities are concerned in learners' communicative competent in which they will be able to use the language effectively in the particular field.

2) Wants: Wants are concerned in learners' wants for successful future language learning and teaching.

3) Lacks: Lacks are concerned with the gap of learners' necessities and wants.

b. Situational Analysis

A particular curriculum planning that carries out contexts or situations in language program is the situational analysis defined by Richards (2010, p.90). Furthermore, Richards states that the factors that are analysed in situational analysis are the potential impact and obstacles that happens through the needs analysis

4. Procedure for Conducting Need Analysis

Needs analysis serves as the fundamental point in language curriculum development. In terms of gathering information of what the learners' desire,

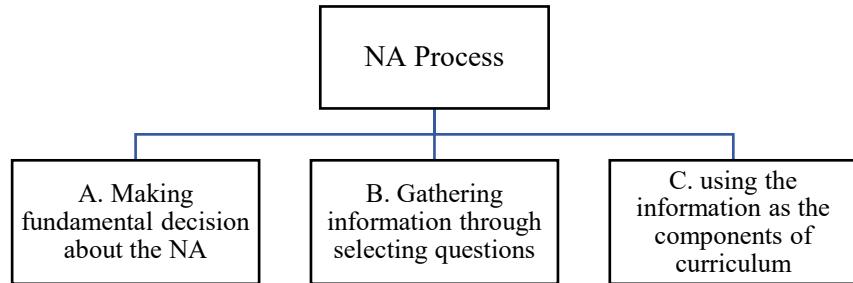require and constraints, Brown (2010, pp.62-64) administers the concept into the systematic chart as follows:

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                    ┌──────────────────┐
                    │    NA Process    │
                    └──────────────────┘
          ┌────────────────┼────────────────┐
┌──────────────────┐ ┌──────────────────┐ ┌──────────────────┐
│   A. Making      │ │  B. Gathering    │ │   C. using the   │
│ fundamental      │ │ information      │ │ information as   │
│ decision         │ │ through          │ │ the components   │
│ about the NA     │ │ selecting        │ │ of curriculum    │
│                  │ │ questions        │ │                  │
└──────────────────┘ └──────────────────┘ └──────────────────┘
```

Figure 1.2 *The needs analysis framework (Brown, 2010)*

From the systematic chart above, as cited in Brown (2010, pp.62-64) there are explanations of each steps as follows :

a. Making fundamental decision about the needs analysis

The first step in making fundamental decision is doing four steps in determining the people who will be involved in the analysis, they are:

a. Target group: the people whom the information will be gathered.

b. Audience: the people whom the analysis will be acted upon.

c. Need Analysts: the people whom the analysis will be responsible to.

d. Resource Group: the people whom the information will be served as the resources to the target group.

The next step is considering four philosophies in gathering the type of information that will be used in need analysis, as stated by Stuffflebeam as cited in Brown (2010, p.38):

a. Disrepancy philosophy: the differences between student's current performance and future desired goals.

b. Democratic philosophy: the desired views of the majority chosen group in the process of language.

c. Analytic philosophy: the views that acquired from the research and reports of learners' learning processes.

d. Diagnostic philosophy: the requirement of language performance elements.

b. Gathering information through selecting questions

   After considering decisions, delimitating questions and selecting appropriate instruments are the important step in gathering information. The first process is involved in having five questions categories as cited in Rossett in Yassi and Kaharuddin (2018, p.40):

1. Selecting types of questions

   a. Identifying problems questions: the questions are addressed to find problems in target groups

   b. Priority questions the questions are addressed to find the major skills in learning goals.

   c. Ability questions: the questions are addressed to measure the target groups abilities.

   d. Attitude questions: the questions are addressed to reveal the target groups' views and response towards the program.

   e. Solution questions: the questions are addressed to obtain resolution and understanding of problems.

   The second process is using appropiate instruments as Brown (2010, p.45) stated six categories of instrumentation, as follows:

a. existing information: the procedure to obtain information through literary sources.

b. tests: the procedure to assess the ability in the target groups, namely proficiency, placement, diagnosis

c. observations: the procedure of perceiving the target groups behaviour

d. interviews: the procedure of asking responses and views in the target groups.

e. meetings: the procedure of discussion with the target groups to reach agreement for the learning program.

f. questionnaire: the procedure of providing sequence of questions to the target groups.

c. Using the information as the components of curriculum

In this final process, the information gathered will be used to set goals and objectives for the language program tests, materials, teaching activities, and evaluation strategies as components of the curriculum or syllabus.

G. Syllabus

Syllabus and curriculum are two major points in the learning process. Nunan, as cited in Al-Hamlan (2011, p. 22), stated that there are fundamental perceptions of this term. According to Candlin, as cited in Al-Hamlan (2011, p. 23), curriculum consists of language learning, learning purpose, experience, and evaluation, which are covered through the roles and relationships of teachers and learners in more general terms. However, the syllabus consists of classroom documents and records, rather than the syllabus itself. With a broader scope, Nunan and Candlin, as cited in Basta (2011, p. 3), stated that curriculum is a teaching methodology that consists of major processes in planning, implementation, evaluation, management, and administration.

1. The objective of the syllabus

    Hutchinson and Water, as cited in Lolita (2009, p. 14), stated that the syllabus serves as the highlight of knowledge into organized units that ensure proficiency through teaching materials and will be evaluated at the end of the term. Meanwhile, Hutchinson and Water in Savitri (2009, p. 31) also state that the syllabus serves its main purpose as a source of students' formal information, including an array of policies, procedures, course content, and equipment in the language program.

2. Components of the syllabus

    The syllabus contains specific, operational statements of teaching and learning elements. Each series of planned elements leads defined objectives. Dubin as cited in Songhori (2011, p.22) stated that syllabus is detailed and operational. The lists are contained of selected and ordered specific objectives which can be explained like this:

Table 2.3 Components of Language Syllabus (adapted from Nunan,2010)

Language Component in the Syllabus	Remarks
Situations	Things to be dealt with
Activities	Things to be engaged in (learners)
Functions	Things to be fulfilled by learners
General notions	Things to be handled by learners
Specific notions	Things to be handled by learners
Forms	Things that learners will be able to use
Skills	Things that learners will be able to perform (level)
Topics	Scope to be covered and Topics learners' activities

Therefore, Ur (2012, p. 20) categorized the characteristics of a syllabus:

1. It consists a complete list of content points (words, structures and topics and process items (tasks and methods)
2. It consists of organized points
3. It has clear objectives
4. It is accessible and understandable as public document
5. It indicates time schedule
6. It indicates particular methodology
7. It has recommended materials

3. Approach and Types of Syllabus

Various approaches and types of language syllabus design can be used by the syllabus designer as the following table below cited in International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences by Alduais 2012, Vol.2 No.11.

Table 2.4 Major approaches to Language Syllabus Design (Adapted from Alduais, 2012)

Approach	Characteristics	Possible Types	Planning Approach
Product oriented syllabuses	Grammatical focused learning, unintegrated linguistic items and	Grammatical syllabuses, functional	less analytical

	skills learning processes, language is learned gradually.	notional syllabuses	
Process oriented syllabuses	Tasks focused learning, linguistic items and skills are learned gradually.	Procedural syllabuses, task-based syllabuses, content syllabuses	less synthetical and natural

Meanwhile Richards (2010, p.21) categorized syllabus into two points as follow:

1. A priori syllabuses This is the common syllabus used in school and applied in comprehensive teaching.
2. A posteriori syllabuses This is the common syllabus used in the English course. It is developed from the evaluation into preferred topics and content.

4. Types of CLT Syllabus Richards categorized several syllabus types of CLT (2012, p.27-28), as follows:

   1. Functional syllabus:

      This syllabus is commonly used for speaking and listening courses and is applied to learners' communicative competence in English. Several topics will be developed to help learners master various communication situations.

   2. Situational Syllabus

      Situational syllabus refers to the context in which learners are expected to use communicative acts. The context typically occurred in the airport, hotel, hospital, etc.

3. Topical or Content-Based Syllabus

   The syllabus is designed around themes and topics to facilitate the four skills. The themes typically covers religion, architecture, ecology, etc.

4. Skills-Based Syllabus

   This syllabus focuses in the four skills of English and organized into specific skills. For instance, recognizing keywords, topics, speakers' attitudes, speech, and identifying key information in a text.

5. Competency-Based Syllabus

   This syllabus focuses on specific competencies to be obtained in particular situations and activities. The foundations of major skills, knowledge, and attitudes are obtained through performance and activities in the social survival and work language programs.

6. Task Based Syllabus

   It is the kind of syllabus that integrates activities, grammar, and tasks that encourage learners to engage in meaningful communication. Richards (2012, p.27-28), categorized the two types of task based syllabus, as follows;

   a. Pedagogical Tasks

      It covers the learning process and strategies that are developed based on SLA theory. It consists of namely jigsaw, information gap, problem-solving tasks, etc.

   b. Real World Tasks

      It covers real-world context tasks to prepare learners for real-world contexts.

7. Text Based Syllabus

   It is a syllabus that led the learners to identify text and discourse in a specific context.

8. An Integrated Syllabus

It is a syllabus that organizes different types of syllabus elements in each level.

5. Communicative Competence and the CLT Approach as Foundations for Syllabus Design in ELT

In the context of English Language Teaching (ELT), the design of a syllabus should aim not only to transmit linguistic knowledge but also to develop communicative competence, enabling learners to use language effectively in authentic contexts. Learning English as a foreign language encompasses four main skills—listening, reading, writing, and speaking—but speaking is often regarded as the most essential indicator of communicative ability. As Richards (2012) points out, speaking proficiency development occupies a large portion of learners' goals in acquiring English because it directly reflects their ability to engage in real-life communication. In line with this, Ellis (2010) distinguishes between declarative knowledge—the understanding of grammar, vocabulary, and linguistic forms—and procedural knowledge, which involves the ability to apply those forms in communication. Thus, speaking competence integrates both dimensions: knowledge about the language and the ability to use it effectively.

Building upon this foundation, Shumin (2010) emphasizes that the development of speaking skills in a foreign language goes beyond mastering grammatical and semantic rules; it requires an understanding of contextual and authentic language use. Learners must be able to interact appropriately in social situations, adjusting their language according to function, register, and audience. This aligns with Yassi and Kaharuddin's (2015) view that speaking competence involves both functional and social dimensions of language, meaning that communicative competence is achieved when learners can express meaning accurately and appropriately in various sociolinguistic contexts. Hence, the goal of ELT syllabus design should be to cultivate

grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence, as originally conceptualized by Hymes (1972) and further developed by Canale and Swain (1980).

However, in recent years, educators have increasingly recognized that traditional communicative syllabi—although effective in promoting interaction—often lack affective engagement and intrinsic motivation. The inclusion of the CLT Approach within Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has been proposed as a way to make communicative learning more meaningful, enjoyable, and sustainable. The CLT Approach integrates elements such as game-based learning, role-plays, storytelling, digital media, and collaborative projects, which align with the principles of communicative competence but add a stronger affective and motivational dimension (Roy & Mitra, 2025). This integration enhances both the declarative and procedural aspects of speaking competence by fostering a learning environment that reduces anxiety and encourages risk-taking in communication—a concept supported by Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis (1982) and Humanistic Learning Theory (Rogers, 1969).

Recent studies (2020–2025) demonstrate that CLT-based communicative learning environments significantly improve students' speaking proficiency and motivation. Hamdani et al. (2025) found that incorporating enjoyable communicative tasks—such as role-playing and vocabulary games—helped students internalize new vocabulary and improve fluency while maintaining enthusiasm for learning. Likewise, Solangi et al. (2025) observed that students exposed to game-like CLT activities were more engaged and less anxious when speaking English. These findings align with Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory (1978), which posits that language development is mediated through social interaction and collaborative activity. When communicative tasks are presented in CLT, interactive formats, learners operate within

their Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), benefiting from peer collaboration and contextualized practice.

In practical terms, integrating the CLT Approach into syllabus design for a speaking course means organizing content around interactive, learner-centered tasks that prioritize meaningful communication. Activities such as information-gap games, problem-solving discussions, storytelling, and digital projects can serve as communicative tasks that enhance both fluency and engagement. For instance, Sumardi (2025) demonstrated that combining extensive reading with storytelling activities improved students' spontaneous speaking and narrative competence, while also making lessons more enjoyable and participatory. Similarly, project-based activities such as English Fairs or vlog creation projects, as recommended by Roy and Mitra (2025), develop not only speaking fluency but also creativity, collaboration, and digital literacy—key elements of 21st-century communicative competence.

Thus, a syllabus designed within the framework of Communicative Competence, combined with the CLT Approach, represents a balanced, learner-centered model for English instruction. It ensures that students acquire linguistic accuracy through authentic language use while fostering intrinsic motivation through CLT and emotionally engaging learning experiences. This dual focus aligns with the modern ELT paradigm, which views affective engagement and communicative functionality as equally essential to language development. For senior high school students who often experience high levels of anxiety when speaking English, such a syllabus design provides a more holistic and supportive pathway toward achieving fluency and confidence in real-life communication.

6. Syllabus Evaluation

The syllabus evaluation rubric was developed by integrating the theoretical frameworks of several leading experts in language

curriculum design—Brown (2001), Nation and Macalister (2010), Richards (2013), and Nunan (2004). These scholars emphasize that an effective syllabus must align learning objectives, materials, activities, and assessments with communicative goals and learner needs. In particular, Brown (2001) highlights the importance of pedagogical principles and classroom practicality, while Nation and Macalister (2010) focus on the balance between meaning-focused input, language-focused learning, and fluency development. Richards (2013) underscores the significance of coherence between curriculum aims, instructional strategies, and assessment procedures, whereas Nunan (2004) promotes the integration of task-based and learner-centered principles within Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). By synthesizing these theoretical perspectives, the rubric ensures that the syllabus evaluation process measures not only content validity and organization but also its effectiveness in fostering communicative competence and learner engagement.

H. Review of Previous Research

A substantial body of research over the past decade has examined the interrelationships among English Language Teaching (ELT), Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), speaking skills, syllabus design, and affective-based learning approaches in the context of senior high school and EFL education. These studies collectively demonstrate a paradigm shift from traditional teacher-centered instruction toward communicative, learner-centered, and emotionally engaging methodologies that enhance both linguistic competence and learner motivation.[160]

Several studies have specifically explored the development of communicative competence as a foundation for syllabus design. Richards (2012)[161] emphasized that speaking proficiency is the most visible marker of language mastery because it enables learners to establish social relationships and express meaning in real-life communication. Ellis (2010) similarly highlighted the

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[160] Brown, H. D. (2007). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (5th ed.). Pearson Education.
[161] Richards, J. C. (2012). *Language teaching and learning in the 21st century*. Cambridge University Press.

importance of integrating declarative knowledge (grammar, vocabulary) with procedural knowledge (language use strategies) in communicative teaching.[162] In a related line, Shumin (2010) argued that effective speaking instruction must extend beyond grammatical accuracy to include pragmatic and contextual competence, enabling learners to use authentic language appropriately. [163] These findings collectively underline the need for syllabi that balance linguistic form and communicative function, preparing learners for social interaction in authentic situations.

Empirical research has confirmed the benefits of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) framework in improving learners' speaking performance. Yassi and Kaharuddin (2015) found that students taught through CLT developed both grammatical and sociolinguistic competence, enabling them to communicate meaningfully and appropriately. More recent studies, such as Hamdani et al. (2025), have applied CLT strategies—particularly role-plays, information-gap activities, and games—in Indonesian senior high schools and found substantial improvements in vocabulary acquisition, fluency, and classroom engagement. The researchers concluded that CLT creates a student-centered, interactive learning environment that motivates learners to practice English naturally and confidently. These findings support integrating CLT principles into modern syllabus design, especially in speaking-focused supplementary courses.

Meanwhile, several studies have addressed syllabus design in ELT, particularly for speaking-oriented courses. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) established the significance of needs analysis in designing effective syllabi that respond to learners' communicative goals. More recent evidence supports this principle in modern contexts. For example, Yana (2021) conducted a needs analysis for speaking materials in Indonesian high schools and found that students favored interactive, technology-integrated, and game-based speaking activities. Likewise, Susilawati (2024) developed a contextualized, communicative syllabus that

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[162] Ellis, R. (2010). *Task-based language learning and teaching*. Oxford University Press.
[163] humin, K. (2002). Factors to consider: Developing adult EFL students' speaking abilities. In J. C. Richards & W. A. Renandya (Eds.), *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice* (pp. 204–211). Cambridge University Press.

embedded local sociocultural content and interactive speaking tasks. Her findings showed that the syllabus enhanced learners' engagement and contextual awareness, supporting the role of contextual relevance in communicative syllabus design.

Furthermore, another study highlighted that the English Club serves as a joyful extracurricular activity that fosters a CLT and comfortable atmosphere, encouraging students to practice speaking English more actively (Mashudi et al., 2023). The researchers found that the informal and supportive nature of English Club meetings helped reduce students' speaking anxiety, allowing them to express ideas more freely without fear of making mistakes. [164] The use of interactive techniques—such as games, storytelling, debates, and role-plays—was reported to stimulate enthusiasm and strengthen learners' confidence in using English for real communication. These activities also provided authentic opportunities for students to apply linguistic knowledge from classroom lessons to meaningful contexts, bridging the gap between theory and practice. In addition, the English Club's peer-collaborative environment encouraged mutual support among students, promoting learner autonomy and social interaction—key aspects of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Thus, the English Club serves not only as a venue for extracurricular enjoyment but also as an effective pedagogical space for improving students' communicative competence, fluency, and motivation to learn English.

Finally, studies have highlighted the growing role of technology in promoting CLT and communicative learning environments. Chen (2025) discussed the integration of AI-assisted and digital tools—such as interactive video platforms and online speaking tasks—in ELT classrooms, concluding that such tools foster learner autonomy and motivation while maintaining meaningful teacher guidance. Similarly, Roy and Mitra (2025) emphasized that technology-supported CLT learning cultivates 21st-century skills like creativity and collaboration, complementing the communicative goals of ELT.

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[164] Mashudi, A., Indah, R. N., & Syaifulloh, B. (2023). *Syllabus design of English club: Fostering joyful extracurricular for tenth graders. JOLLT Journal of Languages and Language Teaching, 11*(2), 297-307. https://doi.org/10.33394/jollt.v11i2.7211

In conclusion, prior research consistently supports integrating Communicative Competence Theory and the CLT as complementary foundations for syllabus design in speaking courses. The reviewed studies reveal that combining communicative methodology with CLT, affective, and technology-enhanced elements produces measurable improvements in learners' speaking proficiency, engagement, and confidence. These findings justify the development of a CLT-based speaking-English syllabus for senior high school students as a pedagogically sound and psychologically supportive framework for enhancing English-speaking performance.