USING INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY (ICT) TO ENHANCE LANGUAGE TEACHING & LEARNING: AN INTERVIEW WITH DR. A. GUMAWANG JATI

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In recent years, information and communication technology (ICT) has become embedded and affected the every aspect of our lives. Rapid development of ICT has changed our language teaching pedagogy at all levels. Teachers, curriculum developers, researchers have been constantly striving to find techniques to use some form of it to both assist and enhance language learning. What is more exciting is that studies have demonstrated positive effects that ICT brings towards students' learning motivation (Chenoweth, Ushida & Murday, 2006; Stepp-Greany, 2002), students' personal needs and learning styles (Gimenez, 2000), students' language mastery (Stepp-Greany, 2002), effective teaching and learning process (Al-Jarf, 2004), etc. Although these studies have shown that ICT has the potential important role in supporting and enhancing language learning, the use of ICT should never be the goal in and of itself. The responsibility for language instruction should be in the hands of qualified teachers who have the knowledge and expertise to manage and to make the best use of it to accomplish learning objectives.

This interview highlights the issue of bringing ICT into the English language classrooms. Dr. A. Gumawang Jati, a senior lecturer at Faculty of Arts and Design, Bandung Institute of Technology (ITB) who specializes in the area of Technology and Education, was interviewed to share his experiences and in-

sights on how ICT could be effectively used to support the language development process.

1. Pak Jati, could you briefly describe your academic and professional background and what sparked your interest in the issues of ICT and language teaching/learning?

   I finished my S1 degree from English Department IKIP Sanata Dharma in 1987. Then in 1988, I got a scholarship to continue my study at the University of Warwick. At that time I saw the rapid development of computer as a tool for almost anything, so I decided to work on Computer Assisted Language Learning **(**CALL) as my final project. Upon the completion of my study, I went back to Indonesia and started teaching English to pre-departure course at ITB. I learned a lot from the work – designing a course, selecting teaching and learning materials and deciding the appropriate methods especially for adult learners. Then when I was the head of ITB Language Center, I started converting some self-study materials in the Self Access Centre into digital in a Local Area Network (LAN) and slowly putting them into the Language Centre website. In December 2002, I started learning Moodle 1.0 (now Moodle 2.6). I was amazed by its platform which resembles classroom. That was one of the enlightening moments in my life because I started to realize that ICT would be very beneficial for my teaching.

2. What is ICT and how important is it in the curriculum of language teaching and learning?

   ICT refers to technologies that provide access to information through telecommunications. It is similar to Information Technology (IT), but focuses primarily on communication technologies. This includes the Internet, wireless networks, cell phones, and other communication mediums. ICT has become so essential in language learning. Its utilization in education has contributed to the improvement of language learning. In my opinion, ICT should be integrated in the curriculum to facilitate students and teachers in language teaching and learning process.

3. What are the advantages and the disadvantages of the implementation of ICT in the process of language teaching and learning?

There are some advantages. First, both teachers and students of English can have quick and affordable access to the most up-to-date sources and information. Many focused exercises can be found on the net for free and software can be bought via Internet or in any store and some are free. Students can practice speaking in English with *Siri* in their iPad or iPhone or *Assistant* in their android devices. With the wide range of teaching and learning materials available for free in the Internet, teacher can select the ones that fit better to the students' needs according to their age, level, and abilities. There are also many discussion groups for professional development, interactive reading books for students, sound recordings for both teachers and students. I believe that ICT promotes student achievement because this tool allows them to progress at their pace and needs. With good access to sources of information, learners are also able to enhance their learning and creativity. Furthermore, the Internet also provides an easy and fast access to the current and authentic materials in the language being studied, which is motivating for language learners. Such authentic materials include, for instance, online newspapers, webcasts, podcasts, newsrooms, video clips or even video sharing websites such as *YouTube*. Another motivating language learning opportunity using ICT is provided by chat rooms and virtual environments such as *Second Life* which enable learners to practice the written and spoken language, without the fear of making mistakes.

There are some potential disadvantages of using ICT for language teaching. It is expensive for the first investment (computers, Internet connection, servers, employment of ICT personels, etc). It is also expensive in running ICT training for teachers (and administrative staff). Thus, teachers often have minimum exposure and experience in the use of ICT in English Language Teaching (ELT). Due to these potential problems, some institutions do not have the will to integrate ICT into their school system.

4. Would you please give us one or two examples on how to integrate ICT in language classrooms?

A good example is to apply offline activities for *Cartoon Story Maker (CSM)*. With *CSM* it is possible to make 2D screen-based cartoon stories to illustrate conversations and dialogues. Stories can include an unlimited number of frames and are viewed frame by frame. Each frame can include images, text bubbles, and voice recordings. Stories are then saved as HTML page (webpage) or printed. Completed stories can also be loaded back into the *CSM* and edited.

With this application, students can:

- create dialogues with their own text or voice recordings to demonstrate proficiency,
- create using digital photos of themselves acting out a situation and add either text or voice recordings to the photos, and
- search the web for culturally authentic images and import them into the *CSM* as backgrounds to a story.

By using *CSM*, teachers can:

- provide a script or storyboard which students use to create a story,
- create partially completed stories which students can then open and complete,
- provide text only and students must add their own matching voice recordings, and
- provide questions to which students generate appropriate answers in the story.

5. How have your students responded to the use of ICT in language learning?

I first introduced blogging to my *Technical Writing* students in 2005. The students loved it for some reasons, e.g. free website, purposeful readers, etc. Their complaints were mostly related to the slow Internet access (see http://elt-gumawang.blogspot.com/2005/12/students-comment-technical-wrt.html for further description). So far I have integrated ICT in all classes that I teach. Students' response to ICT is always positive.

6. How have teachers and school administrators responded?

The biggest challenge in promoting the use of ICT is dealing with the institution. Some school leaders want to integrate ICT into teaching and

learning merely for the sake of keeping up with technological and educational advancement. Some institutions do not have the will to integrate ICT into their school system at all. Some school leaders do not understand and believe in the benefits of ICT for their learners. Some school administrators or teachers who are new to the integration of ICT in the ELT curriculum are usually "trapped" into the sophisticated software and they just simply convert the teaching and learning materials into digital without considering the learning process. Designing digital materials is actually a very complex process. The complete procedures can be read at http://issuu.com/gumawang/docs/ online_mat_dev.

7. What arguments do you think would be the most convincing in persuading reluctant school administrators or teachers about the benefits of ICT in language classrooms?

In the near future (it actually has started), everything that can be put into digital will be digitalized. With smart-phone generation, almost everything from computer will be put into the smart phone including learning languages. You can see it now at *Play Store*. Many scholars even have stated that it is now the time to move from CALL and to focus more on MALU (Mobile Assisted Language Use). I think in the future, our students will learn theories and read articles at home. The classroom would be a place for discussion and practice. This is what Flip Classroom is about. I understand this might be a problem for Indonesia since most of the English teachers are not ICT literate.

8. How would you help teachers to overcome their difficulties or reluctance using ICT in their language classrooms?

The only way I see now is by giving trainings. I always start with "eye opener" of what the education world will look like in the next decade. Then I introduce them to practical free software for language learning such as *Hotpotatoes*, *Cartoon Story Maker*, etc. I relate those applications into classroom activities and language learning theory.

9. How about Teacher Education or Teacher Training programs? How can teacher preparation program help our student-teachers to acknowledge and respond to the role of ICT in language classrooms?

   I think the teacher education program should have a CALL subject, which cover at least:
   - The history of CALL
   - How we learn a language
   - Teaching and learning using CALL (including how to evaluate available commonly used software for education)
   - Digital Learning and Teaching Materials (Principles of Digital Material Development, Evaluating some digital available materials, Creating digital materials for teaching and learning)
   - Bloom's Digital Taxonomy
   - 21st Century Skills
   - 3D tools
   - Animation and comic strips
   - Audio editing
   - Online collaboration
   - Online storage and sharing
   - Social networking
   - Learning management platform

10. If you are chosen as the coordinator for the implementation of ICT in a school with limited facilities and located in a remote area, what will be your first plan of action upon starting work?

    First I will install the access to the Internet, which is possible in even remote areas with mobile network. Then I will train teachers on how to use email and Facebook for educational purposes. Next I will introduce them to some free website resources and encourage them to adapt those free materials for classroom activities. I will also create simple school blog for teachers and students. The whole process might need at least 3 years.

11. Could you suggest some research areas or topics related to ICT in language classrooms that ELT scholars could explore?

    There are many issues that still need further observations. Some of the plausible topics or areas are:
    - Impact of ICTs on learning and achievement Monitoring and evaluation issues
    - Equity issues: gender, special needs and marginalized groups
    - Current implementations of ICTs in education: teaching, learning, content, curriculum, and tools
    - ICT in Education Policy issues

12. Is there any final thought or suggestions about the use of ICT in language classrooms that you would like to leave us with?

    I believe implementing ICT in the school will also improve the quality of teaching and learning when the schools do it right. It is very important that education systems develop e-content materials and do not merely digitalize the printed materials and conventional classroom interactions. If there is no e-content developed it is like building roads without cars on the road. ICT is not about purchasing computers for schools but upgrading skills and knowledge of teachers and administrators.

13. Thank you very much for sharing your expertise and experiences, Pak Jati. I am sure our readers will enjoy reading your insightful ideas. All the best for your future professional projects.

    Thank you Bu Flora and TEFLIN Journal for inviting me to share my ideas and experiences. I hope our readers will get inspired and see ICT as an important tool in language education. If TEFLIN Journal readers would like to know more about this topic, please do not hesitate to contact me at gumawang.jati@gmail.com or visit my websites.

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MOTIVATION AND CONFIDENCE OF INDONESIAN TEACHERS TO USE ENGLISH AS A MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION

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Abstract: This research paper investigates the motivation and confidence of Indonesian teachers of non-English to learn English and to use it as a medium of instruction resulting from their participation in a blended learning course. The purpose of the English learning for this particular group of teachers was to enable them to create English-speaking teaching and learning environment. Such environment is perceived as necessary to enhance English language learning and acquisition in some Indonesian vocational schools. The levels of motivation and confidence have been an issue because they potentially either contribute to or hinder English language learners to learn and use English for interactions. This qualitative research was undertaken using an interpretive research paradigm and a case study approach. Qualitative research data were collected from multiple sources such as in-depth interviews, observation notes, online interaction script, and reflective journals of the participants. Quantitative data were collected through surveys to add meaning to the qualitative data. The research revealed varying increase in the levels of motivation and confidence of the participants. Transformation of extrinsic to intrinsic motivations appeared to occur. Contributing factors to the increase of the motivation and confidence are discussed in this paper.

Keywords: motivation, confidence, blended-learning, transformation

Motivation has been acknowledged as an important element for success in the second or foreign language learning by researchers (Dörnyei, 2003; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991; Lucas et al., 2010; Ushioda, 2001, 2011). Motivation is defined as “a theoretical construct used to explain the initiation, direction, intensi-

ty, persistence, and quality of behaviour, especially goal-directed behaviour" (Brophy, 2010). Researchers stated that motivation is a critical issue in both blended learning course (Dzakiria, Mustafa, & Bakar, 2006) and full e-learning course (Craig & Perraton, 2003). Previous research (Woltering, Herrler, Spitzer, & Spreckelsen, 2009) showed that learners' motivation to solve case in blended learning mode increased because learners found blended learning mode realistic, descriptive, and very practical. Learners also appreciated the flexibility offered in blended learning course. However, the research undertaken by Woltering et al. (2009) also showed that few learners were not satisfied with the blended learning approach and caused low motivation. Unfortunately, there was no further study to investigate what caused the dissatisfaction of the learners and decreased the motivation. Brock (2003) suggests motivation to learning as one of three competence dimensions to consider in designing online learning. The other two competence dimensions were basic literacy and computer literacy (Brock, 2003). Similarly, Craig & Perraton (2003) mentioned that "motivation is a critical factor in ensuring that opportunities for continuing professional development are in fact used" (p.108). This statement was relevant to the situation of this research context. I perceived that motivation played an important role for teacher participants to decide their participation in the blended learning course.

In their research, Craig and Perraton (2003) discussed several ideas related to teachers' motivation to participate in online learning for professional development. One of the ideas they discussed was about the relevance of the learning material, especially in the context of teacher professional development (Craig & Perraton, 2003). Teachers need to understand what they are going to learn in the blended learning course, and that it has to be relevant to their teaching job as emphasized in the principles of adult learning. This idea was one of the important things to consider in the design of the present research. The need of the Indonesian teachers was English language communication skills to use for classroom instruction, and therefore, classroom expressions in English language were the main content of the blended learning course.

Another idea discussed in previous research to increase teachers' motivation to participate in online learning was to provide incentives or rewards to teachers participating in the online learning (Craig & Perraton, 2003). To some

extent, I perceived that this idea was good and potential to increase teachers' motivation. The secure, permanent status of teachers was another factor discussed in relation to teachers' motivation to participate in a professional development course. In China, this permanent status of teachers known as "iron rice bowl" (Craig & Perraton, 2003; Paine & Fang, 2006) made teachers reluctant to participate in professional development. Therefore, China has challenged that status by introducing teacher contracts. This means that teachers are regularly inspected and evaluated, and possible to be fired if not satisfactorily meet the requirement. With the status of teachers as secure government employees, teachers are safely staying in a comfort zone simply by doing their regular teaching jobs. The state of teachers' permanent employment also exists in Indonesian context, especially in public schools. Slightly different from China that adopted teacher contracts for reward and punishment policy, the government of Indonesia applied certification program to encourage teachers to participate in professional development courses. According to the law number 14/2005 about teachers and lecturers, certification is a formal recognition to teachers as professional teachers and thus receive additional financial income (President of Republic of Indonesia, 2005).

In addition to the job security and reward and punishment reasons, Brock (2003) added some other reasons that motivated participation in online learning, such as eagerness to develop new skill, striving for a personal learning goal, and joining friends in a common event. I noticed that most of the motivations discussed are more extrinsic rather than intrinsic motivation. This seems to commonly happen to adult learners because of their working circumstances.

Confidence in using the target language for communication is also seen as an important role in the success of second or foreign language learning. Confidence is seen as an element of emotion (Barbalet, 1998), emotional reaction to prior experience (MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément, & Noels, 1998), an element of affective factors (Mahn & John-Steiner, 2002), and an integral part of practical actions (Roth, 2007). It is confidence that influence individuals to behave the way they do. Considerable researches (Clement, Dornyei, & Noels, 1994; MacIntyre et al., 1998; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; Mahn & John-Steiner, 2002; Ware, 2004; Wu, Yen, & Marek, 2011) investigated confidence in the second language area. Research suggests that confidence is closely related to the willingness to communicate (WTC) in second language. In a study about

heuristic model of variables influencing willingness to communicate, confidence is categorized as state communicative self-confidence and second language (L2) self-confidence. These two categories are positioned in two layers: situated antecedents and motivational propensities respectively (MacIntyre et al., 1998). Within the layer of situated antecedents, state communicative self-confidence together with the desire to communicate with a specific person is positioned as immediate precursors of WTC at a given moment in time. On the other hand, within the motivational propensities, L2 self-confidence, together with interpersonal motivation and intergroup motivation, is positioned as stable, enduring influences to WTC. However, the two categories of confidence have underlying commonalities as confidence constructs: language anxiety and self-evaluation. Language anxiety refers to emotional reaction to prior experiences whereas self-evaluation refers to self-perceived competence to effectively use the second language.

To increase the self-confidence of the learners, researchers suggest that several conditions need to be created in a blended learning environment. A blended learning approach to prepare postgraduate students as graduate teaching assistants in Singapore (McClure, 2007) was reported as having been effective to increase self-confidence because it "encouraged self-reflection and self-evaluation, supported collaborative learning and problem solving skills, and facilitated tasks requiring analysis and evaluation of real life teaching situations" (p. 660). It was argued that supportive relationship between the international students and course coordinator increased the self-confidence of international students to teach in English. Similarly, Collis & Jung (2003) stated that in order to increase the confidence, teachers participating in professional activities and learning through ICT need to feel that they are supported (Collis & Jung, 2003). One way to obtain that support is through the learning community created in the blended learning approach. From building a sense of professional community in the blended learning approach, teachers as learners in the blended learning course learn from their peers and obtain supports. Another condition was also suggested that person-centred in blended learning paradigm increased self-confidence of the learners (Motschnig-Pitrik & Mallich, 2004). Reflecting from the previous research related to increasing confidence in a blended learning approach, I perceived that a carefully-designed blended learning course helps to increase the confidence of the learners.

This research examines if learning English using a blended learning approach had impacts on the change of motivation and confidence of Indonesian teachers of non-English in learning English and using it as a medium of instruction. Even though rewards and punishment, that were claimed as crucial factors to trigger motivation (Craig & Perraton, 2003; Paine & Fang, 2006), were absent in the blended learning course, the teacher participants reported that their motivation and confidence had increased. Transformation of extrinsic to intrinsic motivation appeared to occur. All participants reported that their integrative or intrinsic motivation had become strong and very strong after the blended learning course. For some participants, the level of instrumental orientation or extrinsic motivation was simultaneously lowered and weakened.

I perceive that using English as a medium of instruction by teachers of non-English is an effort to create an English-speaking environment at school. An English speaking environment was considered necessary to enhance the English language communication skills of students because students had very limited contact hours for English. To create the English-speaking environment, the Indonesian government once made a policy for selected schools to use English as a medium of instruction in mathematics, science, and vocational training courses. To enable the teachers of these subjects to use English language in the classroom, an English language training course using a blended learning approach was offered.

METHOD

This interpretive qualitative research used a case study method. Sixteen teachers of mathematics, science, and vocational training courses from three different schools participated in the research. A four-month English language learning course was offered to the participants using a blended learning approach: a combination of face-to-face tutorials and online learning interactions. Facebook and Edmodo were used as the platform for the online learning interaction. In addition to my role as a researcher, I also served as the learning facilitator in the blended learning course.

In the face-to-face tutorials, participants discussed and practised English expressions commonly used in the classroom within their own school environment. Relevant reading and grammatical knowledge was also discussed when

necessary. The participants also undertook microteaching sessions through which they practised to use English as a medium of instruction and received constructive feedback from peers as well as from me as the learning facilitator. In the online interactions, all participants from three different schools socially interacted and discussed content-related issues. To enhance the English learning and acquisition, teacher participants were encouraged to use English in the online interaction.

After the four-month learning, I observed individual participants in their classroom while using English as a medium of instruction. The forty-five minute class observation was undertaken twice over two months. However, three out of the sixteen participants were also observed in their classroom during the first week of the blended learning course. This observation was the initiative of the three participants because they needed feedback on their English.

The data were obtained through observation notes, recorded interviews, participants' reflective journals, and the online interaction scripts. The qualitative data were analysed by using Braun and Clarke's (2006) thematic analysis and content analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Nvivo 10 was used to categorize the data during the data analysis process. To complement the data, pre-and post-surveys were also undertaken and analysed descriptively. Fifteen statements in the survey (Appendix 1) were given to participants as a pre-and post-survey. The survey included statements about confidence (1-4), motivation (5-12), and the amount of English used by the participants in their teaching (13-15). Within the statements regarding motivation, two statements (statements 5 and 9) were categorized into intrinsic motivation and five statements (statements 6, 7, 8, 10, and 11) were categorized into extrinsic motivation. One statement (statement 12) was categorized as neutral (amotivation) which indicated no or lack of interest in learning English (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Vallerand, 1997).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Findings

The research indicated that participation in the blended learning course increased the level of motivation and confidence of teacher participants to learn

and use English as a medium of instruction. The following section describes the changes in motivation as well as in confidence that were experienced by the teacher participants and discusses some factors that contributed to these changes.

Changes in Motivation

During the interview sessions, the motivation of participants was categorized into four levels: (1) very unmotivated, (2) unmotivated, (3) motivated, and 4 very motivated. The interview data indicated that the level of motivation of all participants changed in different ranges. Six out of the sixteen participants mentioned that their level of motivation had changed from (2) unmotivated to (4) very motivated; five participants from (2) unmotivated to (3) motivated; four participants from (3) motivated to (4) very motivated; and one participant from (1) very unmotivated to (3) motivated. No participant exhibited a large movement from (1) very unmotivated to (4) very motivated. However, there was an indication of fluctuating levels of motivation during their participation in the blended learning. The absence or lack of support from the school management and the positive response from students were reported as having contributed to the fluctuating motivation.

> Using English in a class is a part of school program but there is no feedback from the school management. For me sometimes I am motivated because the students give me good responses. (Interview: P1)

Data from surveys, though slightly different, confirmed the positive changes in the participants' motivation: a change from negative to positive domain. This implies that these participants were initially less motivated but became more motivated after their participation in the blended learning course. Some other participants remained in the positive domain: "agreeing" and "strongly agreeing" in their responses to some statements.

As the surveys asked participants to respond by agreeing or disagreeing to statements about different motivations in the survey, I converted the options 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree) into qualitative descriptions to describe the levels and meaning of the integrative motivation as indicated in Table 1.

Table 1. Conversion Table to Describe the Levels of Integrative Motivation

No.	Options	Levels of motivation	Meaning
1	Strongly disagree	Very weak	Very unmotivated
2	Disagree	Weak	Unmotivated
3	Agree	Strong	Motivated
4	Strongly disagree	Very strong	Very motivated

To better understand the finding, it is necessary to look at the changes in the intrinsic (integrative) and extrinsic (instrumental) motivations of the teachers. The two integrative-motivation statements indicated that all participants were positioned in the positive domain (4 = very strong and 3 = strong) of the intrinsic motivation at the end of the blended learning course as shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Number of Responses to Integrative Motivation

Motivation changes	S5	S9
Remain very strong (4)	7	6
Remain strong (3)	2	5
From strong (3) to very strong (4)	5	4
From very weak (1) to strong (3)	2	1
Total	16	16

For statement 5, seven participants remained very strong (4), and two participants remained strong (3). Five participants reported the change from 3 (strong) to 4 (very strong), and two participants from 1 (very weak) to 3 (strong). For statement 9, six participants remained very strong (4), five participants remained strong (3), four participants changed from strong (3) to very strong (4), and one participant from very weak (1) to strong (3). Thus, after the blended learning course, all participants perceived that they had strong and very strong integrative motivation even though some of them started with self-reported weak and very weak motivation. Figure 1 shows the aggregated data on the participants' perceived change in integrative motivation.

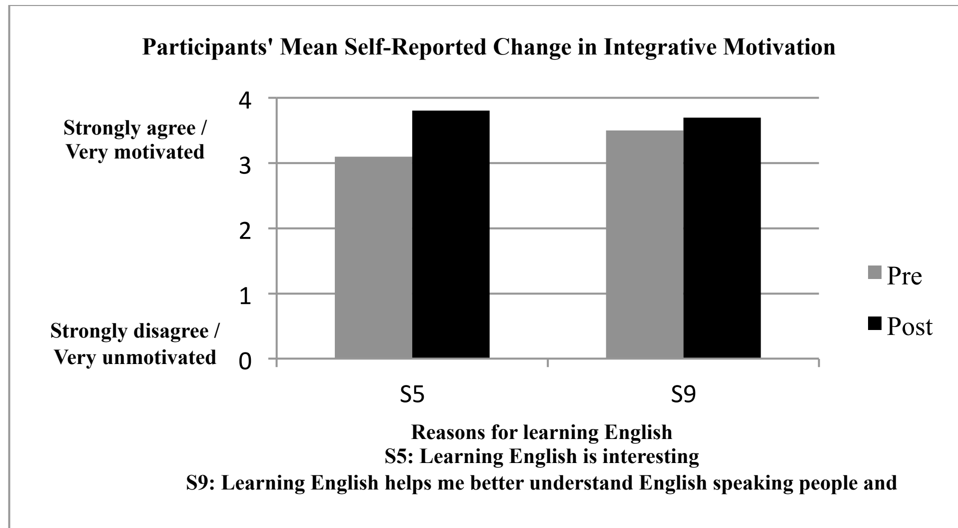

Figure 1. The Mean Self-Reported Change in Integrative Motivation

Changes also occurred in the instrumental motivation as shown in Figure 2.

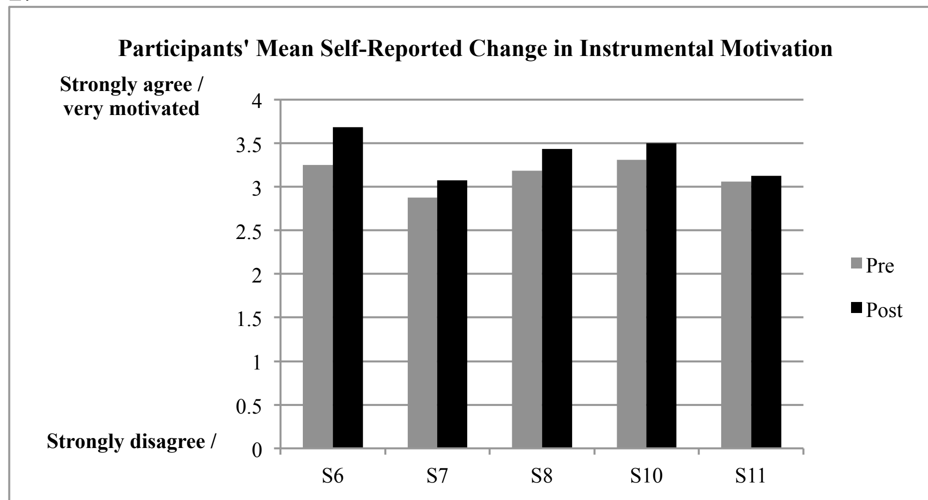

Figure 2. The Mean Self-Reported Change in Instrumental Motivation

The aggregated data as in Figure 2 shows very little change in the instrumental motivation because the sixteen participants reported different categories of responses: some participants remained very strong (4) and strong (3) some remained weak, some changed to stronger levels of motivation, and some others changed toward lower levels of motivation such as from very strong (4) to strong (3) and from strong (3) to weak (2). The change of instrumental motivation to weaker levels of motivation signalled the significance of the participation in the blended learning course. This implies that the level of instrumental orientation was lowered and weakened whereas, at the same time, the level of integrative or intrinsic motivation is higher and strengthened. I perceived the self-reported changes in integrative and instrumental motivation as noticeable.

Concerning the response to the amotivation to learn English (statement 12), five participants reported that they initially had no or little interest in learning English but gradually became interested. This means that there was a change from amotivated to motivated as highlighted in Table 3. The other eleven participants who remained in 1 (very weak) and 2 (weak) indicated that they did not agree with statement number 12, instead, they remained to have interest to learn English.

Table 3. Number of Responses to Amotivation Statement

Motivation changes	No of participants
Remain very weak (1)	9
Remain weak (2)	2
*From strong (3) to very weak (1)	3
*From weak (2) to very weak (1)	2
Total	16

* Changes to opposite (weaker) motivation

Changes in Confidence

Information from across the dataset confirmed that participation in the blended learning course was associated with the change of teacher participants' confidence in using English as a medium of instruction. The confidence of all participants increased in different ranges. For example, interview data indicated that eight out of sixteen participants had changed from (2) unconfident to (3) confident; three participants from (1) very unconfident to (3) confident; three

participants from (2) unconfident to (4) very confident, and two participants from (3) confident to (4) very confident.

Data from surveys also confirmed that changes in the level of confidence had occurred. The four confidence-related statements included confidence using English in different contexts: in daily conversation with friends (S1), in daily informal conversation with students (S2), for classroom managment only (such as greetings, managing question and answer, providing feedback, and closing) (S3), and for content delivery (S4). Each statement included six options that ranged from 1 to 6 with 1 being highly unsure and 6 highly confident. The aggregated self-report data for statements 1 to 4 are shown in Figure 3.

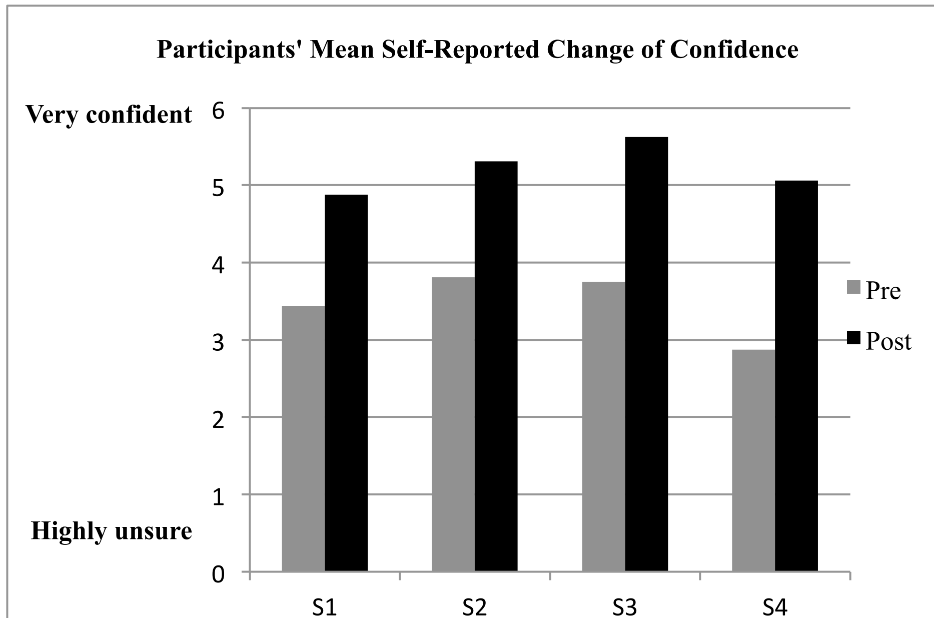

Figure 3. Participants' Mean of Self-Reported Change in Confidence

Factors Impacting on Changes in Motivation and Confidence

Participants reported some internal and external factors that had impacts to the change of their motivation and confidence. External factors included positive response from students, feedback from peers, the environment in the

blended learning course, and the school's policy. Internal factors included the awareness of participants on the significance of having good English proficiency and on the responsibility to help students.

Positive response from students was reported as having affected the change on the level of motivation and confidence. Four participants reported that positive responses from students contributed to the increase of their confidence. The online interaction script as well as my observation notes confirmed this report. When teachers used English instead of Indonesian for classroom instruction, they reported that students were more focused to listen and tried to understand.

> I feel very motivated to use English in the classroom because my students become more active to use English, too. They are also trying to give greeting and answer my classroom by using English. … It made me very confident to use English in the classroom. (Interview: P4)

> I tried to teach by using more English today at X grade, and they gave me very good responses. Surprisingly, they can understand all of my instructions and they tried to answer me in English too. I gave them one exercise in English, and they could understand it with no translation. How happy I am. (Online interaction)

Another teacher was of the view that using English in the classroom was a way to motivate students to improve their English.

> After the program, I think, I can rate it three, motivated, because if we speak English frequently, and we want to motivate the students, we must be highly motivated to speak English. If I learn English, my students will be motivated too. (Interview: P3)

Motivation also came from peers. For example, one participant reported that he became motivated to learn when he observed other participants speaking in English.

> I can see my friends using their good English, and I hope I can motivate myself. .. so I can learn from my friends and comment in the group Facebook. (Interview: P15)

The opportunity to learn together with friends in the blended learning course was also seen as a supporting factor to increasing motivation. This is consistent with what Brophy (2010) said that sharing the same belief "we are all learning together" contributed to create a learning cohort (Brophy, 2010) and thus increased motivation.

Feedback from peers contributed to the increased confidence in using English in the classroom. The feedback was obtained from peers when the participants developed a lesson plan, when they undertook teaching practices in the micro teaching sessions, and when they posted problems in online interaction. For example, P1 reported that feedback from peers made her more confident. The data from online interaction also supported this report.

> "Before this study, we had a program using English in the class. At that time I had good confidence. But after that, there was no feedback. I became unconfident again. And then, after following this study, I got lots of experiences, I got lots of interactions, discussions, a lot of feedback, and I see my students' response, now I am very confident". (Interview: P1)

> "I presented my material about multimeter in micro teaching class today (it is a challenge for me), and I tried my best to make a good presentation, and thanks to all my friends who became my audience today. From now on I'm more confident to speak in English". (Online interactions).

All participants reported that their learning experiences in the blended learning course had provided them with more positive perspectives about using English as a medium of instruction, and thus made their confidence to use it in the classroom greater. The learning experience included the collaboration with peers and the teaching practices.

> Joining this program made me practise using English in the classroom and I feel my motivation increased. (Interview: P6)

> Ya, more motivation because of my first experience teaching in English in the classroom. I can give the students something in the classroom. (Interview: P16)

> I think English is very important, not only for me but also for my students. I try using English step by step like eee… for greetings, give motivation for my

> students, and then I try using English for explaining my materials together with my students. I know that eerr..my students in the future need to using English for ee…for working in the office, and..for social life, so English in the classroom is important.(Interview: P4)

> Related to this confidence, once when we had discussion online, there's a comment that it's OK if we make some mistakes in grammar because we are still learning English as a foreign language. So, it doesn't matter if we make some mistakes as long as we can understand each other. (Interview: P1)

> I think because we join the program, so our vocabulary improved, our practice improved, our English improved, our experience improved, …our knowledge of English improved, so our confidence is very high now. (Interview: P9)

Internal factors included the awareness of participants: being aware of the significance of having good English proficiency, and of the responsibility to help students in their English language learning.

> But I keep making them feel that using English in the classroom is not just about the policy, it's more like how we practise our English. When we learn something, it is never useless. (Interview: P1)

> …because I realize that English is very important for us. We can get more knowledge from English. (Interview: P6)

> It is good to start using English in the classroom. It is the responsibility of all teachers to create English speaking environment in the classroom. (Online interaction)

> I think it is not wrong if we speak English, even only me who is speaking English, only me and my students, I just try to speak English to improve my skill in speaking English. (Interview: P3)

Discussion

The two forms of awareness (the significance of having good English communication skills and the responsibility to help students in their English learning) were perceived as internal factors that contributed to the increased

motivation of participants. These two forms of awareness are categorized as internal regulation or self-regulation (Wertsch, 2008), intrapsychological function (Vygotsky, 1978), intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985), and integrative orientation (Gardner, 1985). It is then necessary to investigate what made the participants became aware of the two conditions.

The changes of extrinsic-motivation to weaker levels and the intrinsic-motivation to stronger levels signalled the significance of participation in the blended learning course. As mentioned earlier that positive feedback, communication, or rewards as social-contextual events promotes the feeling of being competent and enhance intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Vallerand, 1997). The social-contextual events including the positive feedback that the participants received in the blended learning course was perceived as having been powerful to make the teachers feel more competent, and thus changed their perspectives and made them become intrinsically motivated. The participants' social interactions in the blended learning course appeared to be powerful to transform their other regulation (extrinsic motivation) into self-regulation (intrinsic motivation).

Previous researches suggest that extrinsic motivation that is also known as instrumental motivation is potentially transformed to intrinsic or integrative motivation through an intervention. For example, researchers (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Dweck, 2008; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Vallerand, 1997; Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 2008; Yovetich & Rusbult, 1994) signalled the possibility of transforming of extrinsic motivation into intrinsic motivation. The transformation process involves internalization and integration. Firstly, Wertcsh (2008), adopting Vygotsky's (1978) concept of egocentric speech, claimed that the external regulation or interpsychologial function is likely to be transformed into internal or self-regulation or intrapsychological function. Wertsch (2008) suggested that interactions at external level involve some degree of self-regulation. I presume that this self-regulation plays an important role to transform the extrinsic motivation into intrinsic motivation. Wertsch (2008) reported the analogy of such transformation following Vygotsky's (1978) perspective on egocentric speech that reflects a new functional capacity for speech – self-regulation – and that it gradually becomes internalized (goes underground) as inner speech. Secondly, Vallerand (1997) suggested that positive feedback has potential to make learners feel more competent, and in turn, the feeling of being competent is also po-

tential to make the learner intrinsically motivated. Vallerand (1997) illustrated an example about this. When a learner receives positive feedback, he or she will feel more competent. When the learner feels more competent, the more likely he or she will be intrinsically motivated. Thirdly, in his study of personality, Dweck (2008) claimed that intervention brought about important changes to personality and adaptive functioning. It was argued that socialization process and experience in a small intervention was potentially shaping self-theories and mental representations (Dweck, 2008). Similarly, McGroarty (2001) also argued that the role of the social context of the learning activities contributed to the contextualization of language learning motivation (McGroarty, 2001). Fourthly, Deci and Ryan (1985) introduced internalization and integration of values and behavioural regulations in their self-determination theory (SDT). This concept of internalization and integration of values and behavioural regulations signalled the transformability of extrinsic motivation into intrinsic motivation. Lastly, another study was conducted by Yovetich and Rusbult (1994) about accommodative behaviour in close relationship. They reported that the motivation of students who participated in the study was transformable (Yovetich & Rusbult, 1994). This study confirmed that instrumental or extrinsic motivation is transformable into intrinsic motivation.

The confidence of teacher participants to use English as a medium of instruction was reported to have increased after their participation in the blended learning course. Because confidence is subjective, it may be judged differently by different people (Bowman, 2014). It was the teacher participants who experienced the changes of confidence and therefore, the self-reported data were very important to my research. However, self-reported data alone were not sufficient. Data from other sources were required to validate the self-reported data. For this data triangulation, my research observation notes were notable and consistent with the teacher participants' own perceptions of their changed confidence. Even though confidence is intangible, the level of nervousness that was observable indicated the level of confidence. I assumed that the lower the level of nervousness, the higher the level of confidence was. My observation notes showed that teacher participants were less nervous in using English in the classroom during the second observation. Some examples of behaviours that indicated the nervousness were the shaking body, speech, and gestures. Thus,

the self-reported data and my observation notes confirmed the increase of participants' confidence.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

One of the more significant findings to emerge from this research is that the participation in the blended learning course appeared to increase the level of motivation and confidence of teacher participants to learn and use English as a medium of instruction. External and internal factors contributed to the change in the levels of motivation and confidence. Participation in the blended learning course appeared to have been powerful to transform the extrinsic motivation to intrinsic motivations of the teacher participants. It was shown that the social-contextual interactions in the blended learning course trigger the intrinsic motivation and confidence of the teachers. Thus, blended learning approach enabled Indonesian teachers of non-English to support an English-speaking atmosphere at school. The English-speaking environment enhanced the English learning and acquisition of students and teachers.

The findings of this study have a number of important implications for future practice, especially for language policy at schools. Teachers of non-English are more likely to support English-speaking environment at school provided that they are given opportunities to sustain their English learning. The online-learning interaction offered in a blended learning approach supports the efforts to sustain the English learning. The blend of face-to-face and online learning appeared to be more effective for teacher development courses in Indonesia, especially because Indonesian teachers are distributed in different islands due to the geographical conditions.

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IMPROVING THE GRAMMATICAL ACCURACY OF THE SPOKEN ENGLISH OF INDONESIAN INTERNATIONAL KINDERGARTEN STUDENTS

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Abstract: The need to improve the spoken English of kindergarten students in an international preschool in Surabaya prompted this Classroom Action Research (CAR). It involved the implementation of Form-Focused Instruction (FFI) strategy coupled with Corrective Feedback (CF) in Grammar lessons. Four grammar topics were selected, namely Regular Plural form, Subject Pronoun, Auxiliary Verbs Do/Does, and Irregular Past Tense Verbs as they were deemed to be the morpho-syntax which children acquire early in life based on the order of acquisition in Second Language Acquisition. The results showed that FFI and CF contributed to the improvement of the spoken grammar in varying degrees, depending on the academic performance, personality, and specific linguistic traits of the students. Students with high academic achievement could generally apply the grammar points taught after the FFI lessons in their daily speech. Students who were rather talkative were sensitive to the CF and could provide self-repair when prompted. Those with lower academic performance generally did not benefit much from the FFI lessons nor the CF.

Keywords: form-focused instruction, corrective feedback, grammatical accuracy, kindergarten, teaching English to young learners.

The rising trend in the use of English as the medium of instruction in Indonesia has spurred the growth of international and national plus schools. This is paralleled with the boom of international pre-school, one of which being the school in this study, which hereinafter shall be referred to as Pre-school X. English is the medium of instruction in all the lessons and other daily school activities in this school. In the past years, the school principal received feedback from primary school teachers and parents of Pre-school X alumni, who commented that Pre-school X students are quite fluent in speaking English, but with 'chaotic' grammar. In response to that, the school has incorporated a new subject called Grammar to be taught to the Kindergarten 2 (K2) students since October 2012. In this subject, simple grammatical items were introduced by the Grammar teacher using explicit instruction, games, and written exercise. However, it was observed that although the students seemed to have mastered the forms taught during Grammar classroom exercises, the same students still showed slips of those forms in spontaneous speech. Therefore, explicit Grammar instruction alone, in the way that has been given since October 2012, might not suffice for improving the accuracy of the children's spontaneous talks.

Literature review revealed that Form-Focused Instruction (FFI) for Grammar teaching is gaining ground. FFI approach was found to be more effective than merely isolated grammar instruction or communicative tasks without drawing the attention on grammar (Spada & Lightbown, 1994). It is also supported by cognitive theories like that of McLaughlin's (1987), which purported that FFI promotes the restructuring process in the L2 learning, in which the learners' interlanguage grammar is restructured as their attention is drawn to the form in the input. This is achieved through conscious attention to forms as advocated by the FFI approach (Gass, 2003; Nassaji, 1999; Schmidt, 1990). With regard to young learners, Ellis (2002), from his review of a number of studies, surmised that FFI was successful in the acquisition of implicit knowledge involving children in both oral and written production. He also found that FFI seemed to work best for simple morphological and formulaic structure with extended treatment, or complex syntactic features with opportunities for exposure outside the FFI lessons (Ellis, 2002).

In addition to the FFI lessons, a more personalized grammar instruction was implemented in this study by applying Corrective Feedback (CF). Indeed, feedback treatment is in reality part of FFI and is the spontaneous feature of FFI instruction in contrast to the planned lessons (Brown, 2007). FFI and Corrective Feedback (CF) have found support in renowned researchers of young

learners such as Spada and Lightbown (1993) who postulated that the two, integrated in activities with communicative focus, have the potential to support the acquisition of second language in both the short and long term (Hussein, 2004).

In broad terms, CF can be classified as ‘recast’ (the teacher repeats what the student has said by replacing the error with the correct form) and ‘prompts’ (the correct form is not supplied by the teacher but is elicited from the learners). ‘Prompts’ as one type of feedback, for example, receives its theoretical foundation in the interaction hypothesis (Long, 1996; Pica 1994), which purports that language acquisition occurs as learners negotiate meaning when faced with incomprehensibility. On the whole, it appears that error treatment helps the language learners principally by drawing the learners’ attention on the gap between their production and the standard of the target language, thus moving them forward in their interlanguage stage (Edmondson, 1985). Previous studies on CF reported that the younger the learners, the more they will benefit from CF (Lyster & Saito, 2010). For young learners, some proposed that ‘recast’ was effective (Mackey & Oliver, 2002), while others argued that it is too subtle for children and recommended the ‘prompt’ type of feedback (clarification, metalinguistic, elicitation, and repetition) instead (Lyster, 2001, 2004). Lyster (2002) also found that recast is more beneficial for correcting unknown linguistic form while prompts is helpful to elicit forms that students are familiar with (Lyster, 2004). Concerning other variables affecting the application of CF, Lyster (1998) suggested that prompt might be preferable for grammatical and lexical error as compared to recast. Several studies also concurred on the advantages of using prompt rather than recast for less proficient language learners (Hampl, 2011).

METHOD

The participants of this study were eleven students aged 5-6 years old at K2 level of one intact class called Lavender Class of Pre-school X. For ease of analysis, the students were managed into four groups based on selected traits which were deemed to be relevant to this study. Group A consisted of four students who were academically excellent as active English speakers except for one, with sufficient exposure to English outside of school. The two students in group B were also active English speakers, although their academic performance and English exposure outside of school were less than those of group A.

Group C students, made up of Ben and Mike (pseudonyms only), stand out from the rest due to their particularly talkative nature. Lastly, there were three students in group D who, in spite of their fairly talkative nature, were rather poor in terms of their academic performance and English exposure outside school.

The Grammar teacher of the K2 classes acted as the collaborator in this study, and was provided with the FFI materials, techniques, and CF methods of teaching Grammar as required for this research. One of the researchers assumed the role of the observer to perceive students' grammatical accuracy from their speech, and also interacted with the students in and outside of lesson time in order to provide CF to the students or to elicit some speech production.

As the main objective of this study is to describe some interventions used by the teacher in order to improve a particular linguistic aspect of the students in a classroom, Classroom Action Research (CAR) was deemed to be the most appropriate methodology. This study was carried out in four phases of activities within three cycles; namely, Planning, Action, Observation, and Reflection. During the Planning phase, the focus of grammatical aspect was decided on (1) pluralization; (2) personal pronouns; (3) auxiliary do/does; and (4) irregular past tense verb as they seemed to correspond to both the needs of the students and the timing for their acquisition (Pienemann, 1998, 2005). Consequently, instructional materials were prepared for each of the grammatical aspects, as follows: (1) Pluralization: One Banana Two Bananas video-song from YouTube and Fruits and Stationary exercises (self-developed); (2) Personal pronouns: I am Hungry video-song from YouTube and Card drill (Nixon and Tomlinson, 2003); (3) Auxiliary do/does: Do You Like Broccoli Ice Cream video-song from YouTube and A Question of Taste (Nixon and Tomlinson, 2003); and (4) Irregular past forms: My Last Weekend story (self-developed). Those materials were incorporated within a lesson plan that was modeled after Batstone's (1994) procedure, namely noticing, structuring, and proceduralizing. During the teacher's training, the Grammar teacher was briefed on FFI techniques and the prepared materials, as well as the different types and usage of CF for this study.

The Action phase consisted of the FFI Grammar instruction and the CF application when needed. While the provision of CF was an on-going process, the FFI lessons were implemented in three cycles as follows: (1) Cycle one (8-19 April 2013) focused on the use of regular plural form (-s and –es). The lessons were divided into two sessions; one for the 'noticing' and 'structuring'

phase, another for the 'proceduralizing' phase; (2) Cycle two (29 April – 10 May 2013) dealt with subject pronoun and simple present tense (the usage of do/does) in two sessions, one for each grammar aspect; and (3) Cycle three (13 – 24 May 2013) concentrated on the use of irregular past tense form (went, saw, met, drank, went) in one session.

In the Observation Phase, the students' English speeches were observed and noted with occasional supplements of video/audio recording in order to obtain some permanent records. Hence, the primary data were collected through observation and recording, with the aid of field notes and video/audio equipments respectively. For a quick check on the grammatical aspects acquired and not acquired for each student, an observation checklist was also employed. This checklist was also useful to see if any particular student was lacking speech samples for certain grammatical topics, so that some purposeful elicitation could be done. Moreover, document analysis, as secondary data, was also carried out through examining the students' Grammar worksheets. Other secondary data include audio-recording of the interviews with the Grammar teacher and the researcher's journals.

Data collection process ran from April to June 2013 for a period of 10 weeks, or one term as is referred to in the school's academic calendar. All of the five FFI lessons were taped with the video camera, and a few other selected lessons were recorded using the audio recorder. At the end of each FFI lesson, a short journal serving a reflection and description of the lesson just carried out was written, and the Grammar teacher was interviewed for her opinion of it. Besides, results from the worksheets were analyzed briefly to gauge the assimilation of grammatical points taught. Samples of the students' speech containing both positive and negative samples of the grammatical points just taught were recorded in the observation sheet daily, together with the CF given whenever applicable. At the end of each cycle, all the data gathered were analyzed in a summarized manner, in order to find out any points that can contribute to the next cycle. Uncertainties in the data were cross-checked with the Grammar teacher when possible. The schedule of the data collection phase for the entire cycle is tabulated in Table 1.

Finally, in the Reflection Phase, the data gathered were analyzed for aspects that could contribute to the next cycle and/or to the research as a whole. The video/audio recordings, as well as hand-written notes, were first transcribed in digital form using Microsoft Word® and Excel®. Next stage is the data reduction process (Miles and Huberman, 1984) in which the transcribed

data were paraphrased, summarized, organized, and categorized to facilitate noticing of patterns that might emerge. In this study, organizing the data per grammatical topics, and further divided them for each student, was deemed to be the most effective and informative. This was followed by data analysis; a closely-knit process that continuously follows the data (Richards, 2003). Certain themes, patterns, and issues that emerged from the data collection process were noted and reflected upon. Primarily, samples of students' utterances before and after the FFI lessons were compared in order to find out if any improvement has resulted, and what could be the cause of such success or failure.

Table 1. Schedule of Data Collection

No	Data	Instrument	Month														
			April					May					June				
		Week	1	2	3	4	5	8	9	10	11	12	15	16	17	18	19
1	FFI and other lessons	Video recording	✓		✓			✓		✓		✓					
2	Students' speech and teachers' feedback	Observation – field note	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
		Audio recording		✓		✓	✓		✓		✓	✓	✓	✓			
3	Students' written work	Document analysis	✓		✓			✓		✓		✓					
4	Grammar teachers' opinion	Interview	✓		✓			✓		✓		✓					
5	Researcher's journal	Journal-keeping	✓		✓			✓		✓		✓					

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Findings

For the purpose of giving some numerical assessment, a rudimentary scoring system was devised in which, for each grammatical form taught, an average of the class' improvement of that grammatical form was computed. From the various data gathered, mainly the students' speech samples before and after the lesson and the worksheet result, each student was given a score from (1) to (4).

The score is based on the following analytical rating rubric tabulated in Table 2.

Table 2. Scoring Rubric for the Students' Grammatical Improvement

Score	4	3	2	1
Traits	Responsive during lesson	Attentive during lesson	Attentive during lesson	Inattentive during lesson
	Worksheet done perfectly	Worksheet done quite perfectly	Worksheet done quite perfectly	Mistakes in worksheet
	No/insignificant errors in speech samples after lesson	Very few errors in speech samples after lesson	Mixture of erroneous and correct speech samples	Mainly erroneous speech samples

For each topic, the students' improvement was calculated based on their scores and was computed using a formula (Figure 1) to have percentage for their performances. For example, if the total score was 27 and there were samples from 10 students, the percentage would be 27/40 x 100% = 68%.

$$\frac{Sum\ of\ the\ scores\ for\ all\ students\ for\ a\ topic}{4 \times (total\ number\ of\ students)}$$

Figure 1. Formula to Calculate Students' Improvement

For plural form, only one student showed notable improvement after the FFI plural lesson. Five other students were able to employ the plural form in their daily speech most of the time and were sensitive to correction. Most of the time, the rest of the students were still unable to apply the plural form yet in their daily conversation or did not show sign of comprehension of the form. With all these, the rudimentary score given to the students' improvement in this topic was set at 61%, or that each student reached an average score of 2.45. Despite the low score, the FFI plural lesson managed to effect the most changes in the students in that more students exhibited greater awareness of the plural form even though they did not manage to master it perfectly. The students' speech samples showed that five students displayed the changes from not knowing anything about the plural concept to being able to provide repair upon correction. In the interview, the Grammar teacher herself was quite impressed with how the students were made more conscious of the plural forms after only few lessons. It could be postulated that, since the regular plural structure was

taught in two lessons, it is possible that this fact contributed to the success in promoting that awareness. Chuang (2009) pointed out that FFI instructions facilitate the change in the learners' interlanguage system by storing the intake in the 'analytic rule-based system', due to the noticing of the new rule being taught. Perhaps, due to the more extensive coverage of the plural form, more changes in the interlanguage system of the students were accounted for. In this way, this study then seemed to support the observation made by Ellis (2002) that the success of FFI instruction in children depends on the target structure and the extent of instruction in which FFI appeared to work best for simple morphological and formulaic structure with extended treatment.

For subject pronouns, more students appeared to be able to use them, especially 'she', correctly. Two students seemed to have mastered it, four still made mistakes occasionally but were sensitive to correction, three did not show consistency in their speech, and only one student did not appear to comprehend the concept of grammatical gender. Overall, the score for this topic was 68%, or an average score of 2.7 per student.

The analysis for the auxiliary do/does topic yielded a score of 63% (2.5 for each student). During the analysis, although three students showed good mastery of the usage in their daily speech and two were deemed to be fairly good, the students' mastery of the auxiliary 'does/doesn't' proved to be difficult for the rest of the students. Two students who were particularly talkative persistently made mistakes in the use of 'does/doesn't'. The rest of the students did not show sign of comprehending the concept.

Lastly, the result for the Irregular Past Tense Verbs lesson was quite promising. Generally speaking, it looked as if all students basically understood that different forms of verb is required when speaking about something in the past, even the students who were not-so-academically inclined and did not seem to get other grammar points. The rest of the students could by-and-large applied the usage of irregular past tense form when telling stories, with five students perceived to have mastered it quite well. The assessment for the students' performances yielded 80% or a score of 3.2 on average. This success could be attributable to the fact that the past tense form was also reinforced by the teachers through positive modeling in other lessons apart from Grammar. Another reason could be the overt marking of the 'root changes' (e.g., go-went) involved in the irregular past tense forms (Hakuta, 1976) which the students detected in their teachers' input during the lessons. Since children will acquire earlier the input with more overt morphological markers (Slobin, 1971), they

will find it easier to master irregular past tense verbs than, say, the suffixing of –s in plural nouns.

The document analysis helped to confirm the findings. For example, the result of the plural form worksheets revealed that the students were struggling to grasp the plural concept as indicated in Table 3.

Table 3. The Students' Results of the Plural Form Worksheets

Mistakes on the addition of 's/es' (fruits)	No mistake (without guidance)	No mistake (with guidance)	One mistake	Two or more mistakes
Number of students	1	4	3	1

On the other hand, the result from the auxiliary do/does worksheets showed that most of the students seemed to comprehend the concept, at least in writing, as depicted in Table 4.

Table 4. The Students' Results of the Auxiliary do/does Worksheets

Mistakes on the do/does	No mistakes	Mistakes in 'don't'	Mistakes in 'does'	Incomplete work
Number of Students	7	1	1	1

To reflect on how the FFI lessons could have contributed to the students' improvement (or the lack of it) in their spoken English, the secondary data were used to supplement the primary. In the interview with the Grammar teacher, she was asked about what feature of the FFI lessons contributed most to the students' learning, she stated that it was the use of the video. In her own words, she said, "The visualization of the video really helped the students to be engaged with the grammar point. It makes the students easier to catch or to get the point taught at that time."

In the plural lesson, she endorsed the use of realia to support learning, such as the use of plastic fruits for the students to describe in plural form. She saw then that the students were really excited since they could "see the real object". As she herself commented,

> "Every single one of them wanted to answer the question, without them realizing that it's a drill. That's a practice, right? I think it's really good."

For the irregular past tense verb topic, the teacher was in agreement with the researcher that the use of 'My Last Weekend' story as the noticing media was successful since it is a familiar occurrence to the students. Overall, she commented the following:

> "I think they have improved their ability to use past simple, especially when they were talking about what happened before, and they really like ... to show me that they have got it, that they have understood the past simple, saying like, 'Miss, I went here, I saw him, I saw her, I did this, I did that...' I think it was really successful..."

Discussion

Hence, based on the data related to grammatical improvement analysis supported by the supplementary data, the following discussion points were reached. Generally, it can be said that the lessons inspired by FFI strategy have benefited the students in group A in the four grammatical features imparted. The speech samples taken from them after the FFI lessons were mostly acceptable. However, given that the students in group A are so-to-speak bright students, it is not easy to pinpoint specifically how FFI lessons could have contributed to the improvement of their spoken English. It can be postulated that the key might lie in the 'noticing' part of the lessons (songs with graphic enhancement) which was absent when the Grammar teacher taught the same grammatical forms previously. Another feature of FFI lessons that was absent was the 'proceduralizing' stage wherein the students applied the structures learned in a freer production sort of activities.

Students of group B have also improved somewhat in their spoken English of the four topics after the FFI lessons. Just like those of Group A, these Group B students might also be helped by similar features of the FFI lessons that were absent in the previous activities, non-FFI lessons. However, perhaps because academically they are not as brilliant as those in group A, coupled with the fact that they have little English exposure outside of school, they did not show as stable improvements as group A students.

Student Mike of group C generally excels academically but, unlike students in group A, he had particular difficulties with Plural form and the auxiliary Do/Does, employing 'do/don't' persistently for female singular pronoun. The Grammar teacher commented that he seemed to understand the lesson and

the video recording showed him to be participating actively. This learning, however, was not transferred to speaking. It appeared then, that the FFI lessons, at least the Plural and Auxiliary Do/Does lessons, did not influence much improvement in him. It can be postulated that the reason lies in both/either the lessons which were not carried out in the way that would have helped him, and/or the student himself. Paradis (2005), when comparing ESL children and monolingual children with Specific Language Impairment (SLI), found that both exhibited the same commission errors by the use of ‘do’ when the context required ‘does’, although no explanation of the reason was given. It could only be conjectured that Mike, perhaps not unlike those SLI children, has a special difficulty with the bi-syllabic form of ‘doesn’t’ and the whole paradigm of subject-verb agreement that he subconsciously avoided the use of ‘doesn’t’ and ‘does’.

In the same way, student Ben also struggled with specific grammar forms, namely plural form and grammatical gender difference. It was noted that he was absent in one of the plural form lessons, and he had to be helped in doing the worksheet of the Subject Pronoun lesson. He also seemed to have difficulties saying ‘she’ for females. Just like student Mike, the reason for this might be extrinsic (the FFI lessons, the CF) and/or intrinsic. For the latter, perhaps personally he is not developmentally ready for the concept of grammatical gender distinction, which made him rather impervious to both the FFI lessons and CF. Ellis and Sheen (2006) classified it as one of the Learners’ Factors variable that mediates the effectiveness of CF. It should also be noted that he is the youngest student in class. The absence of the equivalent form in the L1 (Bahasa Indonesia uses the same word ‘dia’ as pronoun for both male and female third person singular) might have added to his struggle.

Finally, the FFI lessons seemed to have only limited impact on students in group D. They hardly paid attention during the lessons, and mostly had to be guided when answering and completing their worksheets. Thus, there was not much change in their non-standard spoken English before and after the FFI lessons. Nevertheless, it could be said that the songs and the realia used in those lessons helped to get their attention and heighten their awareness of the target forms. Apart from this, the FFI lessons might not have helped them much since their cognitive ability is perhaps still developing so they were not ready yet for those structures.

When it comes to CF, overall the plural form was where most CF was given in the most varied form including metalinguistic feedback and elicitation.

For subject pronoun, the speech samples taken from the students that showed both positive and negative usage of subject pronoun were not that many. It might indirectly prove that the majority of the students could employ subject pronouns correctly, since they did not sufficiently call the attention of the researcher for their speech samples to be recorded. On the contrary, there were many speech samples collected for the use of auxiliary do/does. This was perhaps because student Mike, who was a particularly talkative student, made a lot of mistakes of this type as was discussed previously. The speech samples collected on irregular past tense verbs were rather encouraging; there were signs that the students grasped the lesson well and could apply it almost immediately in their daily conversation. Consequently, the samples of CF given on this topic were few and far between.

For students in group D, it was observed generally that CF did not have significant contribution to the spoken English of those students. They might not be very perceptive towards correction as they do not notice the gap between their speech production and the target language, since they have not grasped the target language in the first place. On the choice of CF, they were given mostly recast since it was thought that they were not able to produce their own repair. However, Ammar and Spada (2006) found that students who did not perform well in the pretest responded better with prompt than recast. Similarly, Hampl (2011) also noted that the teacher in her study preferred the use of metalinguistic feedback (a type of prompt) for students who were not highly proficient in the L2, since they were still thinking in terms of language rules (Hampl, 2011). Hence, since this study ultimately showed that the recast did not bring about significant improvement for those students, it might provide an indirect support to those reported by Ammar and Spada (2006) and Hampl (2011).

Next, it was noted that CF seems to make a positive contribution to students in group C, namely Mike and Ben; there were samples in which they were corrected on one aspect before, and they did not repeat the same mistake on the same aspect. It can be conjectured that, since both of them are rather talkative, CF has a positive impact on them since they have many chances to do 'trial and error'; making hypothesis about the language aspect learned, and testing it through usage in conversation. The feedback given would have confirmed that their hypothesis was incorrect, and the absence of it might be construed as correct hypothesis. This outcome could also be a corroboration of the result reported by Havranek and Cesnik (2001), who found that learners who

enjoy speaking English benefit more from CF. In a rudimentary way, this is a further support for Long's interaction hypothesis, who stated that linguistic rules are developed through conversation and interactive communication (Brown, 2007).

Similarly, CF also appeared to have contributed to some improvement in the spoken English of the students in group B. There were records in which both students did not repeat the same mistakes after CF were given. Just like group C, it could also be said that they largely benefit from CF due to their rather talkative nature, coupled with their fairly good academic performance, which help them to both notice the gap in their oral performance and make repairs upon correction.

Lastly, there was hardly a need for CF to be given for students in group A as they were, in broad terms, able to apply what they had learned in the lessons in their spontaneous speech. They were all generally sensitive to the corrections and were able to self-correct. It was also noted that one of them made an improvement in the use of the auxiliary 'does' after being corrected, even before both the FFI lesson on that topic were given. Just like in the case of FFI lessons, it is not easy to pinpoint how CF could have benefited the students in group A. It could be said in general that they did not need the CF since the FFI lessons alone were sufficient for their learning of the forms taught.

Figure 2 depicts the graph showing the frequency of each CF in percentage form and the rate of uptake/repair for each type of feedback.

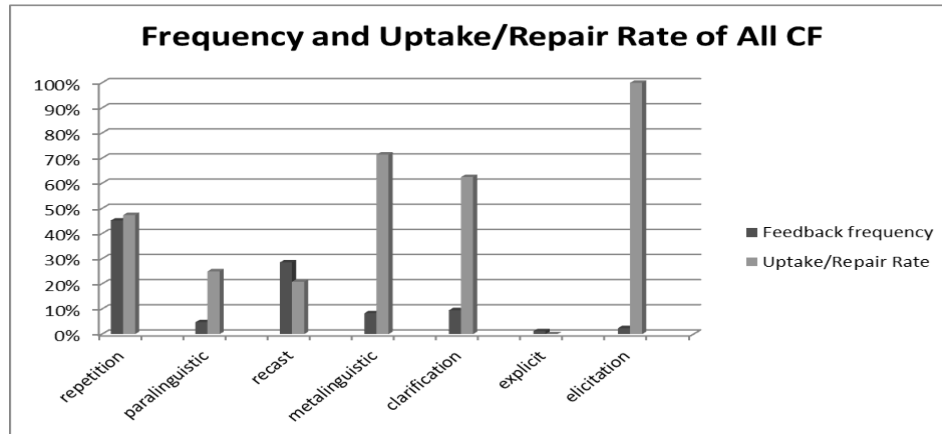

Figure 2. Frequencies and Uptake/Repair Rate of All CF

Despite the lower rate of uptake for repetition in this study (47%) compared to that of Lyster and Ranta's 80% (1997), it was felt that the prompt type of feedback (including elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification, etc.) should still be used in preference over recast as a means for facilitating language learning process. There were records in which students were corrected on specific grammatical points using repetition, and they subsequently could use the correct form spontaneously. This seemed to be consistent with Lyster's argument that the prompt type of feedback is generally more effective than recast in pushing the learners to notice the error, restructure their erroneous output, and store this in their long-term memory (Lyster, 2004). From the point of view of the acquisition principles, prompts are beneficial in transforming mere declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge as the learners gain better mastery over already known forms (Lyster, 2004). The choice of prompts over recast was also based on Lyster's previous finding (Lyster, 1998) that prompt resulted in more immediate repair for grammatical errors, which was the focus of this study. Lastly, the advantage of prompt over recast as reflected in this study is also consistent with the result reported by Lyster wherein FFI lessons with prompt outperformed that with recast in oral tasks' immediate posttest. Moreover, the results of this study suggest that prompt facilitates the retrieval of grammatical rules in the short-term memory (Lyster, 2004).

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

With regard to the contribution of FFI strategy in the effort to improve the accuracy of the kindergarten students' spoken English, the analysis revealed that FFI strategy improvement in greater or lesser degree depends on the (English) language proficiency of the students and their general academic performance, with some exceptions noted in two students. Similarly, the implementation of CF influences the students' academic performance (with the same exceptions for the two students) although this study indicates that the more talkative students seemed to benefit more from CF. The Irregular Past Tense topic was the most 'successfully' improved, which could be attributed to the use of the storytelling, the 'Disappearing Words' drill, and the positive modeling. Although the result for the Regular Plural form seemed dismal, it was deemed to result in most awareness in the students due to extensive treatment of the topic and the use of a catchy song as the 'noticing' media.

Researchers in the TEYL fields might want to pursue the same subject with studies of more experimental nature, in order to give a quantitative support to this study. Alternatively, a similar CAR type of research under this theme could also be carried out for other aspects of acquisition (e.g. lexical, semantical, phonological) or other grammatical topics such as prepositions and articles.

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VOICES OF PRE-SERVICE ENGLISH TEACHERS: REFLECTING MOTIVATIONS DURING PRACTICUM LEARNING

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Abstract: After Dewey (1933) and Schön (1983, 1987), education scholars began to look further at the concepts of reflection for learning. Following these concepts, there have been plenty of studies on reflection, particularly those discussing teachers' classroom experiences and their endeavour to develop professional skills. However, educational practitioners in Indonesia (as in the rest of the world) often criticise preservice teachers' (PSTs) lack of content knowledge, which they claim should be 'prioritised' during a teacher education course. Such pressing situations may have made it difficult to model or experience reflective practice. Against these odds, this research paper addresses issues related to the identity and professional development of thirteen English PSTs during their campus and school-based practicum in an Indonesian university. This study collected empirical data through PSTs' reflective journals, questionnaires, individual interviews, focus group discussion, and autobiography. The study examines problems encountered by PSTs, namely their motivations to become teachers. This study signifies that teacher education needs to provide more reflective dialogues to shape PSTs' identity and professionalism.

Keywords: pre-service teachers (PSTs), motivation, reflective practice, practicum, identity

In this paper, I report and discuss how thirteen preservice teachers (PSTs) in Guru University in Indonesia describe themselves in relation to their professional identity through reflective practice during their campus-based practicum. The view of professional identity in this study can be likened to "stories" of our life, stories which we repeatedly tell to others and to ourselves regarding who

we are. These stories reflect what we believe, feel, as well as our standpoint in the teaching discourse. As Connelly and Clandinin (1998, 2000) advocate, our identities constitute the stories we live by, or what they rather call an "ontology of experiences" (Clandinin, 2007, p. 40) wherein one lived experience is enriched by the other experience, and is going on to lead to further experiences. This notion brings forward an idea that within the context of becoming a teacher, Volkmann and Anderson (1998) view professional identity as an interplay state of disequilibrium and equilibrium, and what Beijaard, et al. (2004) refer to as an ongoing process of integrating self as a person within the profession of becoming and being a teacher (c.f. Chong & Low, 2009; Schepens, Aelterman, & Vlerick, 2009). The on-going process of shaping professional identity often requires teachers to interpret and reinterpret their experiences through continuous reflection and is "continually being informed, formed, and reformed as individuals develop over time and through interaction with others" (Cooper & Olson, 1996, p. 80). Therefore, it is obvious that the role of reflection in shaping PSTs' identity in this study is crucial, especially in the stage of becoming a teacher.

If the term reflection is traced back from its root, it has actually been around in education for almost 100 years since Dewey (1933), whose concept is subsequently developed by Schön (1983, 1987). In educational contexts, the idea from Dewey and Schön centers around the values of reflection, in that teachers need to stop and think of their actions by considering the values of practices and theories which underline their actions. This is to ensure that teachers, particularly novice teachers, engage themselves for continual learning. In this study, PSTs' reflections focus on how they perceive and make meaning of education, and they show (consciously or unconsciously) how their understandings of education are mediated by various cultural traditions drawn from their family, from social and political dynamics, as well as from their own experience of learning in schools (cf. Alsup, 2006). It is for this reason that during their practicum, PSTs need to be equipped with reflective skills, as Walkington (2005) clearly underlines: "reflective practice is promoted as crucial and its development is the responsibility of all teacher educators—both at university and in the schools" (p. 53). Meanwhile, the method of suggesting reflection for PSTs has been quite varied, such as individual reflection through

writing reflective journals; creating an artefact such as collage (McDermott, 2002); and PST's reflection facilitated by a mentor, or social reflection which is done by peers in a group. However, the most common one used generally by teacher educators is the structured and guided questions to facilitate the students' reflection (e.g., Johns & Marlin, 2010; Nolan, 2008).

Through PSTs' reflections, this study attempts to answer one main research question, namely, how do pre-service English teachers describe themselves, their emerging professional identities, and their professional learning? While my study reveals some findings related to the influential aspects of PSTs' professional identity, such as the role of their religions and beliefs on becoming teachers, I limit the discussion in this paper on their motivations to become teachers by studying in the English Education Study Program (EESP).

METHOD

In order to answer the above question, I generated data using a number of methods, namely reflective journals, individual interviews, focus group discussions, and some autobiographical writing by the Pre-Service Teachers (PSTs). The PSTs were required to write in their reflective journals every week as part of Practice Teaching 1 course (PT1), which is essentially a microteaching class. The reflective journals contained descriptions of and reflections about their professional identity and learning. Some guidelines for these reflections were provided as reference for the PSTs (see 'Guiding Questions for PSTs' Weekly Reflection', in Appendix 1), but students were told these were not intended to be prescriptive. This means that they could discuss their experiences beyond the frames that the questions suggested, should it be necessary.

Next, to help me make meaning of the language and the ideas in the PSTs' reflections, I used the Bakhtinian notion of "double-voiced discourse" as explained by Morson and Emerson (1990, p. 150). I was interested in the often subtle differences between explicit and more refracted meanings, and how these combined together in the PSTs' narrative reflection of their experiences, where any single word can be seen as *half someone else's* and thus the process of meaning making in research requires the researcher to be aware of and sensitive to the ways words and voices dialogically interconnect. Subsequently, based on my reading of these PSTs' reflections, I carried out an individual in-

terview with each PST in a classroom in Guru University. In conducting these interviews I drew on Mishler's (1991) idea of the interview as authentic social discourse, and this was helpful in understanding how my shared cultural context (as researcher and lecturer within this university) impacted upon each and every interview. Integral in this idea is viewing an interview as a natural conversation rather than an objective, positivistic type of a question-and-answer event. In this way, I attempted to establish dialogue with PSTs and draw out their understandings of their professional learning experiences, including any awareness of the theories that underpin these experiences and the practices that enact these theories.

At the end of the PT1 subject, the PSTs were invited to write an extended reflective autobiographical entry using the guiding questions provided (see Appendix 2). From this autobiographical writing, I sought to understand the different dimensions of the PSTs' educational experiences and the influence of key people around them in these experiences, including those from their childhood who they felt had influenced them to eventually enroll in the EESP. In representing these experiences, I have tried to make explicit my awareness that all these processes of writing about people's lives interact with each other and contribute to the act of "life making" (Bruner, 2004, p. 692) through the written word. Also at the end of the semester, I conducted a focus group discussion with the PSTs, where participants were free to speak in Indonesian and/or English as they were comfortable to do so.

As I mentioned in the early part of this paper, there were 13 PSTs participating in the study. To protect their privacy and to ensure that I abided by the ethical purposes of the research for the participants, I use pseudonyms to ensure their anonymity as can be seen in Appendix 3. The demographic information in that table shows the diversity of PSTs who agreed to participate in this study. The number of students who are enrolled in a PT1 class at Guru University is usually around 25 students. However, there were only 13 PSTs enrolled in the course since most PSTs who were required to take the course based on their academic year had taken it in the previous semester. The ratio of five females to eight males is fairly representative of the usual gender ratios in such classes in Indonesian faculties of education, from my experience. I include data in the column headed "initial aspiration" to show the variety of vocational aspirations the students had before entering into their teacher education

course. It is worth noting that only two PSTs (Endang and Kresna) said explicitly that they had always wanted to pursue a career as an English teacher. The fact that so many PSTs in due course entered the EESP and struggled to make meaning of their identity may be related to the fact that their decision to pursue a teaching career was not one they expected to be making.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

In this section, I discuss some aspects that are influential to the development of PSTs' motivation to undertake study in the EESP in the first place. A number of educational researchers agree that PSTs' initial motivations to become a teacher are crucial since these can inform their decision to remain in or leave the profession (Bruinsma & Jansen, 2010; Chong & Low, 2009; Richardson & Watt, 2006), and in the course of pre-service study these motivations can provide a useful point of reference when the PSTs are reflecting on aspects of their emerging professional identify. What often emerges in their reflections is a growing awareness of the nature and role of culture and educational background in their sense of themselves as potential educators; indeed, much research has shown how these factors powerfully shape the ways in which PSTs across the world negotiate, construct and/or sometimes resist their pre-service teaching lived experiences.

Becoming a Teacher: A Realistic Aspiration or Realising the Hopes of Others?

As evident in the table presented in Appendix 3, the motivations of two PSTs, namely Endang and Kresna, to study in the EESP were more clearly established, compared to other PSTs. These two students had always wanted to be English teachers. However, other PSTs who had not always yearned to be teachers, explained to me that their interest in becoming a teacher was more likely to be because of their concern for education quality in their community.

Endang's decision to enrol in the EESP course was based not only on her liking the study of English, but also because she saw that making teaching her career would be a realistic option. Endang learnt from her sister that teachers were relatively well-paid in Indonesia, and that the Indonesia government was

increasingly seeing the role of teachers as important (cf. Jalal et al., 2009). In her autobiographical piece, she wrote that she did not regret choosing the EESP, especially since "after graduating from the English Education, we can get a job as a teacher more easily than that of English Letters Study Program. Therefore, I chose English Education" (Endang, Autobiography). Endang appeared to have more determination from the start to be a teacher compared to the other PSTs.

Such determination was also evident in Kresna's expression when I asked about his aspiration. At one moment, Kresna gave the impression that he saw becoming a teacher as the only imaginable direction for him, as he explained in his interview with me: "Teaching skills are the only skills I have. What else can I do?" (Kresna, Interview 1). And yet at other times, he revealed that his interest in teaching also had something to do with his concern for his family, that is to say, because the teaching profession gave him more time to spend with his family. This family reason for choosing teaching as a career is common in other places across the world, such as in Australia (Richardson & Watt, 2006; Sinclair, 2008; Williams & Forgasz, 2009).

Nevertheless, some PSTs who did not seem to me to be *fully* committed to teaching at the time of the data collection mentioned that they were aware of a desperate need for quality teachers in their communities, and that this awareness had made them think again of themselves as a social being, in effect a citizen in these communities. Over time, for some PSTs, this awareness seemed to spark their motivation to become a teacher in the future. This is evident in Amanah's experiences, where reflections on such things motivated her to make inquiries as to whether or not she wished to become a teacher. When I prompted Amanah in our interview to explain this a little further, and asked whether she felt she was wholeheartedly willing to undergo the process to be educated as a teacher, she responded positively by referring to her social background. She said that she was concerned that children in her community did not receive a good education in their schools. Therefore, she felt moved to open up her house to those children and to teach them English. This gave her a sense of deep satisfaction in her heart which she explained after teaching them, "I found excitement becoming a teacher" (Amanah, Interview 1). Or, as it became clearer the longer I talked with her, she began to feel *slightly interested* to become a teacher. Amanah herself said later that she was not sure about her own 'grain'

of interest in teaching, whether this came from a real motivation to be a teacher, or whether this was just a flash of enjoyment that came from talking in front of people. She admitted that she liked being the centre of attention. Amanah's experience, however, is authentic and representative of many others in two main respects: (1) becoming a teacher (or ultimately not to become a teacher) involves a long process; and (2) sometimes students enrolled in teacher education courses come to the end of their degree with still a degree of uncertainty as to whether they wanted to be a teacher or not.

Meanwhile, Shinta and Bram developed their motivation to be a teacher after they saw the poor practices of education in their own communities, which they felt resulted in students' low motivation for learning. For example, Shinta was moved to become a teacher because she observed an urgent need of teachers in her surroundings, prompting her to question herself, "Who will teach those students in my hometown if I myself do not want to be their teacher?" (Shinta, Interview 2). This inner voice served as a strong encouragement for her to continue studying in the EESP regardless of the difficulties she admitted having in the education study program. Meanwhile for Bram, although he said he did not want to become a teacher during the period of data collection, he acknowledged that he might change his mind one day. The faint possibility of his changing his mind primarily emanated from his concern for education in contemporary Indonesia. In his experience, many students in Indonesia did not have a high motivation for learning and, for him, this was a serious drawback of the Indonesian education system, as he explained:

> If we asked all students from primary to senior high school level, how many of them truly liked English as a subject, only a few of them would possibly say they liked it. Consequently, I might want to become a teacher after I graduate. Although I do not *want* to become a teacher [at the moment], one day I may decide to become one, entirely because I feel I have responsibilities to make students who lack motivation to love English. (Bram, Interview 1)

The thought of social and educational problems appeared to be the main encouragement for some PSTs to mull over their path of life as a teacher. However, often this encouragement was obstructed by what Shinta described as the 'fear' of teaching. She often imagined what it would be like if she was not ac-

cepted by her students, whereas being accepted by students was the most fundamental need for her as a teacher.

All PSTs expressed that their decision to study in the EESP was based on their love of the English language and mostly their decision to study teaching was supported by recommendations from people around them, such as friends, parents, teachers, or relatives. However, the fact that the EESP had led them to become a teacher had presented some of them with a difficult dilemma. Anton is a good example of this dilemma. He said in a focus group interview that, like so many of the PSTs who were participating in this study, he had no intention to become a teacher at all since he was only interested in the English language. Education as a discipline did not interest him. He recounted how he had attempted to convince himself that he would participate in the teacher education process although he still found that learning in the EESP was very hard. Having said that, he consoled himself by saying that after graduating, he would still be in a position to freely choose which path of life he wanted to pursue. Another student, Johan, agreed with Anton:

> My motivation to study in the EESP is definitely not from the education aspect to be a teacher, but from the English language itself. In comparison to Maths, English is the only subject I have been good at since junior and senior high school. However, I realise I am now already in semester 9. I have to undergo this process wholeheartedly. (Johan, FGD 1)

Some PSTs went so far as to say that the process of studying the "*mata kuliah pendidikan* [education subjects]" in this English Education course made them depressed. Such was the case for Dewa, who explicitly linked his lack of interest in studying to this EESP course. He entered the EESP due to his mother's determination regardless of the fact that he was already accepted into an Information Technology Study Program. The Information Technology program had been his first choice of university courses. But without his knowledge or consent, his mother re-registered him for a test in the EESP. He remarked in an interview with me, somewhat despondently, that he sometimes could not believe that he had ended up studying in the EESP.

> Sometimes I want to rebel. Why should I become an educator? I am aware that I am now in the EESP, in a teacher education course. However, sometimes I also

> feel that it is not me. It is as if I have become somebody else. I try to accept this and I have to force myself to slowly undergo the process. But to be honest, I can only undergo the process slowly in comparison to my friends. (Dewa, Interview 1)

Although the social, cultural, and educational backgrounds of the PSTs I interviewed were quite diverse, it seems that most have come to the EESP with one characteristic in common, a high interest in improving their English uncomfortably coupled with a low motivation to become an English teacher. Most PSTs expressed that their motivation to enrol in the EESP was either encouraged by their relatives such as parents or through seeing the EESP graduates as role models whom they thought lead a 'good life'.

Some PSTs admitted that their knowledge of the various duties of a teacher had made the teaching profession unattractive to them. To explore these sorts of views further, I also asked a question during a focus group discussion: "If the salary received by a teacher and another profession (unidentified) were the same, which profession would you choose?" The answers were somewhat mixed, as for instance in Andre's response: "I prefer not teaching, but still, I want to teach as not the main job because I do not like the study job [i.e., preparing materials and lesson plans]" (Andre, FGD 1). It was obvious in Andre's statement that teaching was somewhat interesting to him but not as a primary job. From his educational experiences, being a teacher is not challenging because most teachers seem to repeat the same lesson plans, year after year. For Andre, such a job was boring, "just repeating and repeating, nothing new. And I thought that is how teachers teach in Indonesia" (Andre, FGD 1). For Andre, success was not defined narrowly by the ability of a person to earn money, but from "the fulfillment of our desire and passion" (Andre, FGD 1). And based on his observations, the work of teachers did not inspire any passion in him. Although teaching was not his main aspiration, Andre described himself as a person who liked teaching because he felt that he had capabilities to be a good English teacher. However, he perceived that he needed to create new challenges for himself. For Andre, the teaching profession lacked dynamism and while the profession provided a secure job, the income was limited and the work was tedious. In short, it seemed that the prospect of being a teacher was strongly connected in Andre's mind with formality and restrictions. In fact, this was a

common perception amongst PST participants in this study. Their approach to their teacher education course (in the EESP) was consistent with what Manara (2012) describes in her study of Indonesian teacher educators as just a "bus stop" (p. 188), at which they would be able to jump off later for another non-teaching career. They saw the EESP as a means to an end, and the end was not necessarily teaching.

Critical Reviews on PSTs' Motivations

I believe that the vocational motivations of the PSTs in this study could be classified into two broad categories: namely intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. A student who showed intrinsic motivation to become a teacher usually spoke about the inherent values of a rewarding career or the job satisfaction of a teacher (Smethem, 2007), while those who seemed driven by extrinsic motivation tended to speak about incentives, job security and status, more time for families or "personal utility values" (Richardson & Watt, 2006, p. 38). According to Bruinsma and Jansen (2010), continuous extrinsic motivation can influence teachers to stay or to leave the profession, depending on whether the extrinsic motivation is adaptive or maladaptive. Bruinsma and Jansen (2010) go on to explain that adaptive motivation can facilitate long-term and effective engagement in teaching, such as the prospect of making a good professional career in teaching. In contrast, maladaptive motivation "promotes superficial engagement" (Bruinsma & Jansen, 2010, p. 185), for example when PSTs enter teacher education because *their parents* think that becoming a teacher is a good career for their son or daughter or because the students could not gain entry into their first choice of study. According to Bruinsma and Jansen's (2010) study, PSTs with low teacher self-efficacy usually have developed extrinsic maladaptive motives from early in their higher education study.

For this study of PSTs in education, I choose to define self-efficacy as referring to teachers' beliefs in their ability to "invest in teaching, the goals they set, their persistence when things do not go smoothly and their resilience in the face of setbacks" (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007, p. 944). Such a definition already suggests ways in which PSTs' motivation and self-efficacy are interrelated: i.e., low motivation of a PST would arguably correlate with low or under-developed self-efficacy since efficacy is "a motivational construct"

(Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001, p. 946). In Tschannen-Moran and Hoy's (2007) argument, it follows that low self-efficacy is quite common for novice teachers; these researchers see low self-efficacy as almost inevitable because the teachers are still inexperienced. Being inexperienced teachers, they may have low belief in what they are capable of when dealing with the problems and challenges in their teaching practice. Nevertheless, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy's (2007) research findings which claim a correlation between low self-efficacy beliefs and inexperienced teachers can suggest a somewhat slippery conclusion if read without understanding the whole research context.

The notion of *being* inexperienced teachers in relation with self-efficacy can be interpreted differently as far as my experience as a teacher educator is concerned. Some PSTs can show that they are actively engaged in their learning and practice to become a teacher, and their level of engagement is not diminished by their consciousness that they still have a lot to learn from their practices. If this perspective can be accepted, their active engagement and willingness to learn from their teaching experiences in the classroom and from other educational spaces can actually be representative of a highly developed sense of self-efficacy.

Looking into the PSTs' experiences, Endang's and Kresna's descriptions of their motivations suggest that their interest in a teaching career is characterised by a number of adaptive extrinsic motivation factors. In contrast, Dewa's motivation can be categorised as maladaptive extrinsic forms. The earlier intrinsic form of motivation as seen in Endang and Kresna includes their self-perceptions of their ability to teach well (to do the job well), their appreciation of the job security that teaching in Indonesia offers as well as the recent increases in teacher remuneration, and family reasons. Based on my conversation with Endang and Kresna alone, I sensed that there was a greater chance that they would stay in the profession as they described themselves being more determined to become a teacher than to enter other professions or do other work. In contrast, Dewa's decision to enrol in the EESP was driven by his wishes to please his parents when his first choice of study did not get approval from them (maladaptive extrinsic motivation). From my conversation with him, it was evident that he was struggling to understand his own identity as an educator; his learning experiences in teacher education also revealed the same stories. From his narratives, Dewa's experiences in some ways were similar to Jamie's in

Britzman's (2003) *Practice Makes Practice:* "Being there, but not being who you are" (p. 102). If Jamie did not feel she could be a good teacher as she attempted to construct a teacher identity as expected by the traditional roles of teachers, Dewa felt the same way but perhaps more deeply. Being a teacher just did not excite him. Unless he had some more positive experiences in teacher education in the future which might encourage him to take up further challenges to become a teacher, it was quite likely that Dewa would not stay in the teaching profession after he graduated.

Meanwhile for Amanah, Bram, and Shinta, their 'slight' interest in teaching was apparently driven by what might be called intrinsic sources of motivation – that is, their aspiration to improve the current practices and conditions of education. Day (2004) would say they were identifying a strong connection with the "moral purpose" of teaching (p. 126). This type of motivation generally can engender more commitment to teaching than those motivated by pragmatic reasons (Chong & Low, 2009). 'Moral purpose' has been claimed as positively affecting teachers' satisfaction in their professional work and tending to increase the likelihood of their remaining in the profession (Smethem, 2007). However, as Smethem maintains, the marketisation of education and the intensification of teachers' work in schools, in contrast, work together to increase the attrition rate of existing teachers and to diminish the resolve of new teachers to remain in the profession. In my extended conversation with those PSTs (Amanah, Bram, and Shinta), they showed they were aware of those challenges, particularly some aspects of the teachers' demanding workload. In the same vein, Russell, McPherson, and Martin (2001) warn that "when initial idealism and unchallenged images of self-as-teacher meet the daily demands of students, curriculum, and the social culture of the school, beginners often report an inability to cope with many essential elements of the job" (p. 41). In turn, this inability can engender self-doubt in themselves as prospective teachers. Likewise, PSTs may feel that they actually like the idea of contributing to the education of Indonesian students and to make valuable changes in the lives of the next generation of Indonesians. However, when they come to consider the day-by-day work and duties of teachers, this seems to dampen their enthusiasm for becoming a teacher (cf. MacGregor, 2009). Although such workload of a teacher has been realised early during PSTs' teacher education, it would seem that this aspect is not fully reflected as parts of their step-by-step professional develop-

ment, that is to say, viewing teachers' (administrative) duties more positively as an integral aspect on becoming teachers.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

I have shown in this paper that the motivation of many PSTs as they enter the teaching profession in Indonesia is likely to undergo a number of shifts and changes, influenced by numerous factors, such as the their views and beliefs on becoming teachers, the values of which are influenced by their social, educational, and family background. This includes their concern to improve the education quality in their societies. Although the willingness of most PSTs to become teachers is tentative (at best), they also spoke encouragingly about their willingness to participate in the process of becoming a teacher.

Nevertheless, I must say that based on the results of this study, it can be quite disheartening to realise that most participants seem to lack any intrinsic motivation to study in their teacher education courses, considering that they were entering the final stages of their final year of study. It does not bode well for their chances of developing the motivation and/or self-efficacy that they will require if they are to endure the difficulties they will encounter in their initial years of teaching. As evident in the description above, some PSTs did appear to have some interest in becoming a teacher, and yet they spoke and wrote as if they wanted to avoid becoming a professional teacher in an Indonesian school. It is interesting to note that in so many of their reflections on becoming a teacher, there was a lively tension between wanting and not wanting to be a teacher, depending on the way they perceived the work (and duties) of a teacher.

With the growing pragmatism in teacher education nowadays, such as infusing more technical skills to be teachers than the deeper conceptual knowledge on critical pedagogy to PSTs, the time allocated for reflecting, particularly on PSTs' motivation to become teachers, often becomes peripheral, or if at all, implemented as a mere pro-forma. This phenomenon poses a serious challenge for teacher education institutions. Perhaps it is not just a matter of teaching reflective practice more effectively. It may be that these institutions need to enroll PSTs who are genuinely motivated to enter a teaching profession

or to offer more inspiring learning programs which can stimulate PSTs' motivation to take up the challenges on becoming a teacher.

Nevertheless, since vetting prospective students' motivations for entering a teacher education degree prior to their enrolment is not a common practice – although at the time of writing this paper the Indonesian Government in 2015 is indeed considering scanning prospective students' motivations and personality types for enrolling in a teaching degree through *Pendidikan Profesi Guru* (PPG) – for the moment, the focus for university mentors, supervising teachers and whole teacher education institutions is to develop curriculum, pedagogy and mentoring programs which can enhance PSTs' motivations for their work as teachers. This can include building more dialogues through more effective reflective practices and through a more sustained focus on students' developing professional identity and professional learning.

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APPENDIX 1: GUIDING QUESTIONS FOR PSTS' WEEKLY REFLECTION

1. In what ways was this lesson successful? Why or why not?
2. What were the main strengths and/or weaknesses of the lesson?
3. Did the students learn what they were intended to learn?
4. Did the lesson address the students' needs?
5. Was the lesson at an appropriate level of difficulty?
6. Were all students involved in the lesson?
7. Did the lesson arouse students' interest in the subject matter?
8. Did I do sufficient preparation for the lesson?
9. Do I need to re-teach any aspect of the lesson?
10. What would be a suitable follow-up to the lesson?
11. Should I have employed alternative teaching strategies?
12. Will I teach the material in the same way (or differently) next time?

APPENDIX 2: GUIDING QUESTIONS FOR WRITING PSTS' AUTO-BIOGRAPHY

1. Could you describe how your immediate family (e.g. parents, brothers, or sisters) have contributed to your attitudes to and values on education?
2. Could you describe your education background?
3. Did you like your primary and secondary schools? Why or why not?
4. Who were your favourite teachers?
5. What were your favourite subjects in school?
6. Why do you want to be an English teacher?
7. Why do you think English is an important language?
8. What experiences of your professional learning are most valuable for you in your journey to become an English teacher?

9.	What particular aspects of being a good teacher do you believe you need to improve?

APPENDIX 3: DESCRIPTIONS OF PSTS AS PARTICIPANTS

No	Name	Gender	University Entrance	Age	Initial Aspiration
1.	Andre	M	2006	22	Businessperson/ artist
2.	Amanah	F	2007	21	Reporter
3.	Jelita	F	2007	21	Police
4.	Dewa	M	2007	21	Computer engineer
5.	Bram	M	2005	23	Book writer
6.	Anton	M	2007	21	Editor in a publishing company
7.	Andi	M	2006	22	Editor in a publishing company
8.	Joko	M	2006	22	Pharmacist
9.	Johan	M	2006	22	Any profession (except teaching)
10.	Endang	F	2007	21	English teacher
11.	Tari	F	2007	21	General practitioner
12.	Kresna	M	2004	24	English teacher
13.	Shinta	F	2007	21	businessperson

STRATEGIES OF LEARNING SPEAKING SKILL BY INDONESIAN LEARNERS OF ENGLISH AND THEIR CONTRIBUTION TO SPEAKING PROFICIENCY

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Abstract: This paper was a subset report of a research project on skill-based English learning strategies by Indonesian EFL learners. It focusses on the attempts to reveal: (1) the differences in the use of strategies of learning speaking skill by male and female learners, and (2) the contribution of strategies of learning speaking skill on the learners' speaking proficiency. The data from 595 second year senior high school students from eleven schools in East Java, Indonesia were collected using a 70 item questionnaire of Oral Communication Learning Strategy (OCLS) and a 10 item self-assessment of speaking proficiency. The statistical analysis revealed that gender provided significant effects on the intensity of use of six types of strategies of learning speaking skill – interactional-maintenance, self-evaluation, fluency-oriented, time gaining, compensation, and interpersonal strategies – with female learners reporting higher intensity of use. A further analysis found that four strategy types – interactional-maintenance, self-improvement, compensation, and memory strategies – greatly contribute to the speaking proficiency. These findings imply that strategies-based instruction, covering the four most influential strategies, needs to be integrated explicitly in the speaking class to help learners, particularly male learners, cope with problems in learning speaking skill.

Keywords: learning strategies, speaking skill, gender, proficiency

Learning strategies have been worldwide issues in English language teaching and have drawn considerable attention from scholars in the last few decades. It is proven by dozens of studies which have been carried out to get deep insight into many aspects of learning strategies, particularly when Oxford (1990) came up with a questionnaire to assess language learning strategies called Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). It has been translated into many languages and used in many different countries around the world. Some of the studies try to profile the use of strategies by different groups of learners of English such as Indonesian (Lengkanawati, 1997), French (Merrifield, 1996), Taiwanese (Lan & Oxford, 2003), Japanese (Mochizuki, 1999), and Singaporean (Wharton, 2000). Some others pose learning strategies as predictors of learning success (Mistar, 2011a; Thomson & Rubin, 1996), and still some others pose learning strategies as criterion variables predicted from a number of other variables such as gender, proficiency level, motivation, personality, and language aptitude (Oxford & Ehrman, 1995; Huda, 1998).

In recent years, the focus of the studies has shifted to a narrower scope that is on the strategies in developing a specific language skill, such as speaking, writing, reading, and listening. In the area of speaking skill, some studies use theories of learning strategies as their theoretical bases and they use Oxford's SILL as the key instrument. Cabaysa and Baetiong (2010), for example, demonstrated that Filipino students prefer metacognitive, social/ affective, and compensation strategies in speaking class. Meanwhile, achievement in school, attitudes towards speaking English, tasks at hand, topics of discourse and teacher's techniques are considered to be influential factors to strategy choice. In Indonesian context, Umamah (2008) and Novitasari (2009) found students with higher speaking proficiency use social strategies more frequently than students with lower speaking proficiency. On the contrary, Wahyuni (2013) reported that the correlation between overall speaking strategy use and speaking proficiency is not significant, though positive. However, the effect of gender on strategy preference is found significant on affective strategies.

Other studies use communication strategies as their theoretical bases. Nakatani (2006), for example, studied the relationship between English proficiency and the use of communication strategies among EFL learners in Japan and found that learners with higher proficiency reported more use of social-affective, fluency-maintaining, and negotiation-for-meaning strategies than did learners with middle and lower proficiency level. Moriam (2005), who investigated Japanese and Bangladeshi university students, found that Bangladeshi

employ cognitive and interpersonal strategies more than Japanese, and that gender difference of both groups provides insignificant effect of the use of speaking strategies, except that cognitive strategies used by Japanese females are found to be higher than those by the male. Another influential research (Khan, 2010) found that among Spanish university students task characteristics are more influential to the use of speaking strategies than proficiency. A more specific research was done by Monjezi (2014), who examined the effects of gender and proficiency on the compliments and compliment responses made by Iranian learners. Supporting most of research results, this investigation indicates that gender and proficiency have a significant impact on spoken production.

The findings of the studies as reviewed above indicate that the effect of gender on the choice of speaking strategies is not yet conclusive and that the correlation between speaking strategies and speaking proficiency is not yet clear. Thus, further investigation on the matter needs to be carried out. It is for these purposes that the present study was carried out. However, instead of using either learning strategies or communication strategies as a theoretical foundation, the present study used both. The identification of the strategies of learning speaking skill, the intensity of use, and the difference in the strategy use by successful and less successful learners have been reported elsewhere (Mistar, Zuhairi & Umamah, 2014). Thus, the present paper focuses on finding the answer to the questions: 1) does gender difference affect the use of strategies of learning speaking skill, and 2) does the use of strategies contribute to speaking skill?

METHOD

The research problems of the present study contained comparative and correlational elements. The former is in the form of a comparison between female and male learners in their use of strategies of learning speaking skill and the latter is in the form of the correlation between the students' use of strategies and their speaking skill. Thus, the study employed both ex-post facto and correlation designs. The ex-post facto design was used for finding the answer to the first research problem and the correlation design was used to get the answer to the second research question.

In fact 743 second year students coming from eleven senior high schools from eleven regencies in East Java, Indonesia participated in the research pro-

ject. The schools were selected on the basis of accessibility and ease of bureaucracy. However, as the female learners outnumbered the male learners very highly, the number of female learners was substantially reduced so that the data from 595 students consisting of 328 (55%) female and 267 (45%) male were analyzed for the present report of the study. At the time of data collection, the students had been learning English in their formal schooling for nearly five years. This is so because in Indonesian schooling system English starts to be officially taught as a compulsory school subject to students in the junior high school level which lasts for three years. The goal of English teaching is to develop the communicative competence of the students as indicated in the ability to use English as a means of communication. As such, the four macro skills of English including speaking, listening, writing, and reading are taught equally in an integrative mode around specific genres.

The subjects were requested to complete a questionnaire of Oral Communication Learning Strategy (OCLS) derived from learning strategy items (Oxford, 1990) and communication strategy items (Khan, 2010; Lopez, 2011; Nakatani, 2006). The questionnaire is of Likert-type, requiring the subjects to respond to each item using a 5-point scale ranging from 1, which means *never or almost never true of me*, to 5, which means *always or almost always true of me*. Originally 85 items were prepared; however, based on the result of construct validity analysis only 70 items were found to contribute validly to the assessment of strategies to learn speaking skill. The analysis of its reliability using Cronbach Alpha method yielded an index of .928, indicating that the data collected by this instrument is very highly reliable. Upon the use of factor analysis, the items were classified into eleven strategy categories, including cognitive interaction maintenance, self-improvement, self-evaluation, fluency-oriented, metacognitive planning, time gaining, resources-based, compensation, interpersonal, affective, and memory strategis (Mistar, Zuhairi & Umamah, 2014).

In addition to the questionnaire, a 10 item self-assessment of speaking skill was also used. In this case, the subjects were exposed to 10 speaking acts such as *I can tell the plot of a film that I watch in English* and *I can tell my future ambitions in life in English*. Then, they were asked to assess how well they were able to perform each speaking act and provide a response on a 1 to 5 range, with 1 meaning *not at all, 2 with much difficulty, 3 with some difficulty, 4 with very little difficulty*, and 5 *easily*. Self-assessment is considered reliable

and valid as it correlates significantly with actual language proficiency (Bachman & Palmer, 1989; Mistar, 2011b).

The data analysis was carried out statistically using SPSS 20. Firstly, independent samples t-tests were performed to compare the use of the eleven strategy categories by female and male learners. Secondly, a standard multiple regression analysis was performed to measure the relationship between the use of these eleven strategy categories and the students' perceived speaking skill as well as to assess the significance of each of the eleven predictors of speaking skill.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Findings

Question 1: Does gender difference affect the use of strategies of learning speaking skill?

The results of the statistical analysis of the comparison in the use of strategies of learning speaking skill by female and male learners are summarized in Table 1. As the table shows, out of eleven strategy categories, eight categories were found to be used more frequently by female learners and the other three were used more frequently by male learners. Female learners were found to use self-evaluation strategies the most frequently (M=3.45), while male learners reported resources-based strategies as the most frequently used strategies (M=3.47).

A further analysis on the significance of the difference in the use of each strategy category, however, reveals that among the eight strategy categories reported being used more frequently by female learners, only six were used at significantly different intensity, including cognitive interaction maintenance strategies ($p<.020$), self-evaluation strategies ($p<.005$), fluency oriented strategies ($p<.015$), time gaining strategies ($p<.012$), compensation strategies ($p<.045$), and interpersonal strategies ($p<.002$). The intensity of use of the other two strategy categories, however, were found to be insignificantly different, including self-improvement strategies ($p<.370$) and metacognitive planning strategies ($p<.139$). Meanwhile, among the three strategy categories which were reported to be used with higher intensity by male learners, none was found to be

significant with p values being less than .727, .295, and .865 for resources-based, affective, and memory strategies respectively.

Table 1. The Difference in the Use of Strategies of Learning Speaking Skill by Female Learners (N=328) and Male Learners (N=267)

Strategy Categories	Gender	Mean (s.d)	Mean Differ-ence	t-value*)
Overall Strategies	Female	3.19 (.53)	.09	2.023 (p<.044)
	Male	3.10 (.50)		
Cognitive Interaction Maintenance Strat.	Female	3.35 (.64)	.12	2.327 (p<.020)
	Male	3.23 (.59)		
Self-Improvement Strategies	Female	2.83 (.65)	.05	.897 (p<.370)
	Male	2.78 (.63)		
Self-Evaluation Strategies	Female	3.45 (.67)	.16	2.809 (p<.005)
	Male	3.29 (.67)		
Fluency-Oriented Strategies	Female	2.96 (.81)	.15	2.441 (p<.015)
	Male	2.81 (.73)		
Metacognitive Planning Strategies	Female	3.16 (.74)	.09	1.480 (p<.139)
	Male	3.07 (.66)		
Time Gaining Strategies	Female	3.32 (.71)	.14	2.516 (p<.012)
	Male	3.18 (.69)		
Resources-Based Strategies	Female	3.44 (.75)	-.03	-.350 (p<.727)
	Male	3.47 (.78)		
Compensation Strategies	Female	3.36 (.80)	.13	2.010 (p<.045)
	Male	3.23 (.74)		
Interpersonal Strategies	Female	3.41 (.81)	.20	3.076 (p<.002)
	Male	3.21 (.77)		
Affective Strategies	Female	2.92 (.78)	-.07	-1.048 (p<.295)
	Male	2.99 (.67)		
Memory Strategies	Female	2.85 (.74)	-.01	-.170 (p<.865)
	Male	2.86 (.69)		

*) two-tailed test

Question 2: Does the use of strategies of learning speaking contribute to speaking skill?

To assess the contribution of the eleven strategy categories to speaking skill, a standard regression analysis was performed and the result is presented in Table 2. As the table shows, the multiple correlation coefficient (Multiple R) is .348 with the adjusted R Square being .104, indicating that 10.4% of the students' speaking skill variance are attributable to their strategies of learning speaking. The explained proportion of variance of speaking skill was found to be significant since the analysis found an F-value 7.290 (p<.000).

A further analysis of the relative importance of each of the eleven types of strategies revealed that four strategy types significantly affected the students' speaking skill. In this regard, cognitive interaction maintenance strategies, self-improvement strategies, and compensation strategies provided positive contribution with t-values being 2.772 (p<.006), 2.080 (p<.038), and 2.451 (p<.015) respectively. Meanwhile, memory strategies contributed negatively with a t-value being -2.266 (p<.024).

Table 2. Regression Analysis of the Predictability of Speaking Skill from Learning Strategies

Dependent Variable: Speaking Skill					
Multiple R	.348	Analysis of Variance			
R Square	.121		d.f.	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Adjusted R Square	.104	Regression	11	2752.115	250.192
Standard Error	5.858	Residual	583	20007.572	34.318
		Total	584	22759.687	
		F = 7.290	Significance F = .000		

Coefficients					
Predictor Variables	B	SE	Beta	t	Sig. t
Cognitive Interaction Maintenance Strategies	2.024	.730	.204	2.774	.006
Self-Improvement Strategies	1.401	.674	.145	2.080	.038
Self-Evaluation Strategies	-1.102	.586	-.120	- 1.882	.060
Fluency-Oriented Strategies	.670	.471	.085	1.422	.156
Metacognitive Planning Strategies	-.133	.504	-.015	-.263	.793

Time Gaining Strategies	.133	.485	.015	.275	.783
Resources-Based Strategies	.218	.378	.027	.575	.565
Compensation Strategies	.992	.405	.124	2.451	.015
Interpersonal Strategies	-.172	.378	-.022	-.454	.650
Affective Strategies	.316	.424	.038	.744	.457
Memory Strategies	-1.037	.458	-.120	- 2.266	.024
Constant	20.420	1.540			

Discussion

Generally speaking, the present study confirms that gender difference brings about differences in the strategy use and that the contribution of learning strategies to speaking skill is significant. Though some studies fail to prove that female and male learners use different strategies in their second or foreign language learning (Cabaysa & Baetiong, 2010; Lunt, 2000; Moriam, 2005; Wahyuni, 2013), the majority of studies supports the significant effect of gender on strategy use. Kaylani's (1996) finding also revealed that females used more strategies than males did. In her study involving 255 high school students in Jordan, she found that female learners used significantly more memory, cognitive, compensation, and affective strategies than did male learners. Furthermore, in a study with Turkish learners of English Aslan (2009) reported that female learners used direct strategies, including memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies and indirect, including metacognitive, affective, and social strategies more frequently than did male learners. In a more recent study of speaking strategies, Monjezi (2014) also reported the significant effect of gender on the compliments and compliment responses made by Iranian learners. In this case, the researcher revealed that there is significant gender difference in making and responding compliments, and female students reported to have more various compliments and responses than their male counterparts.

In the studies that fail to provide evidence of the effect of gender on overall strategy use, parts of the findings still support the significant effect of gender. Moriam (2005), for example, reported that, even though the use of overall learning strategies was not affected by gender difference, Japanese female learners were found to use cognitive strategies more frequently than did male learners. In addition, Wahyuni (2013) came up with a conclusion that among

Indonesian learners of English gender difference affects the use of affective strategies, with female learners reporting higher use.

When comparisons were made in the use of each strategy type, the present study found that females reported higher use of eight strategy types. However, significant differences were found in the use of six strategy categories, including cognitive interaction maintenance strategies, self-evaluation strategies, fluency-oriented strategies, time gaining strategies, compensation strategies, and interpersonal strategies with female learners reporting higher use. In this case, the strongest difference appeared in the use of interpersonal strategies ($p<.002$) covering two items: telling the speaking partner if they do not understand and asking to repeat or explain in different ways what they do not understand. It implies that female learners are more expressive and open in expressing their difficulty in learning speaking. The reason for this might be explained by Kimura (1999), who noted that females do better than males in verbal memory and verbal fluency.

That female learners self-evaluate better and are more fluency oriented may stand as an explanation for the superiority of females over males in their English proficiency. Aslan (2009), for example, reported that female learners in a Turkish university outperformed male learners in their English learning. Yan (2009) also found that Chinese female learners excelled male learners in their language learning.

The insignificant difference in the use of self-improvement strategies implies that the two groups of students share almost the same strategies at the same level of frequency. Both groups seem to have been aware of the paramount importance of English as a global language, though they find it hard to create opportunities to use it in real communication since English is a foreign language in Indonesia. The mean scores of the use of self-improvement strategies are just 2.83 and 2.78 in a 1-5 scale by female group and male group respectively.

Regarding the contribution of learning strategies to speaking proficiency, this study uncovered that the overall learning strategies provided significant contribution to speaking proficiency, though the variance of the students' speaking skill accounted for by their learning strategies is just 10.4%. Even though some studies failed to provide evidence of the relationship between strategy use and general English proficiency (Lengkanawati, 1997) or between strategy use and speaking performance (Wahyuni, 2013), most studies using either correlation design or experimental design support the significant role of

strategy use. Djiwandono (1998), for example, studied the correlation between the use of learning strategies in terms of consistency, diversity, and purposefulness, and oral communication proficiency of students in an Indonesian university and found that the two variables were significantly correlated with the diversity of strategy use being the most significant predictor. Cohen, Weaver, and Li (1996) carried an experiment to study the effect of strategy-based instruction on speaking a foreign language and reported that the experimental group, the one who underwent training sessions on how to use speaking strategies, performed better in the speaking task 'City Description' than the control group. Similarly, Dodour and Robbins (1996) found that Egyptian learners of English who got strategy instruction gained significantly better speaking ability than did learners without strategy instruction. More specifically, Lam (2010) revealed that the effect of communication strategy training on the learners' speaking performance was stronger among students with low proficiency than among students with high proficiency.

When the relative importance of each strategy type was analyzed using regression analysis, cognitive interaction maintenance strategies, self-improvement strategies, and compensation strategies were found to provide positive contribution to speaking skill, with the first strategy type being the most significant predictor. On the other hand, memory strategies were found to contribute negatively, in the sense that memorization may distract the development of speaking skill. These findings indicate that not all learning strategies positively contribute to learning success in speaking skill; consequently, it is essential for teachers to encourage particularly male learners to use the appropriate strategies to attain success in learning English speaking by explicitly incorporating strategies-based instruction (SBI) covering the three influential strategies in the classroom. Cohen (2000) points out that strategies-based instruction offers students with benefits such as directing them to accomplish task efficiently, promoting autonomous learning outside the classroom, and building confidence in learning and using the target language. In speaking context, some studies (Cohen, 2000; Cohen, Weaver, & Li, 1996; Nakatani, 2006) have highlighted the significantly positive effect of integrating strategies-based instruction on the improvement of students' oral performance.

Thus, training programs of strategies of learning speaking skill will lead to greater use of the strategies, and the intensive use of strategies of learning speaking skill will in turn lead to better speaking skill. The training programs

are particularly important for male learners as they use strategies of learning speaking skill lower than do female learners.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

This current study is carried out in an attempt to examine the influence of gender on the strategy preferences and to measure the contribution of learning strategies to speaking proficiency. The statistical analysis shows that gender affects the overall use of learning strategies and further analyses of the difference in the use of each strategy category indicate significant differences in the use of cognitive interaction maintenance, self-evaluation, fluency-oriented, time gaining, compensation, and interpersonal strategies. In this case, female learners are found to use these strategies more intensively. Furthermore, this study proved that, though generally speaking the use of strategies correlate with speaking skill, not all learning strategy categories significantly contribute to students' speaking proficiency since only three strategy types - cognitive interaction maintenance, self-improvement, and compensation strategies - indicate strong contribution. Surprisingly, memory strategies are found to affect speaking skill in a negative manner.

The findings that female learners use the strategies differently from male learners and that the use of strategies contributes to the learners' speaking ability suggest some pedagogical implications. On the one hand, the students of EFL context should be aware of the availability of a number of strategies they may use to learn to speak in English. On the other hand, the teachers need to train students, especially male students, to employ strategies reported to be influential in achieving success in learning speaking skill. This can be done by providing a specific and explicit strategies-based instruction in the speaking class. Thus, research to provide more evidence on the effectiveness of strategy training for developing speaking skill of the learners should be encouraged.

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INTEGRATING EIL PEDAGOGY IN A PRE-SERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM

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Abstract: Among the existing pedagogies to teach English, many scholars have claimed that English as International Language (EIL) pedagogy is the most suitable pedagogy to the changing sociolinguistic landscape of English and English users. Despite such strong claims, little is actually known on how EIL pedagogy is experienced by teachers. The present article documented the experience of ten bilingual English student-teachers (BESTs) on practicing EIL pedagogy in a Microteaching course and during the teaching practice. Data were collected primarily from a focus group discussion and three individual interviews. The findings of the study indicated the complexity of practicing EIL pedagogy in the classroom. BESTs were enthusiastic about EIL pedagogy that they voluntarily decided to continue practicing the pedagogy during the teaching practice. Despite the enthusiasm in practicing EIL, the study points to the limited understanding BESTs have of EIL pedagogy when it relates to setting pedagogic models. Although some BESTs did attempt to bring local Englishes into the classroom, it seems they continue to perceive Native English Speakers (NES)/standard English as the desirable pedagogical models. The paper ends with specific suggestions for pre-service teacher education program to better prepare BESTs to teach English in the era of World English particularly in Expanding circle countries.

Keywords: EIL pedagogy, World Englishes, nativeness, and critical pedagogy

Due to the global role of English nowadays, EIL (English-as-an-international-language) pedagogy appears to be the most widely suggested approach to teach English (see, among others, Cook, 1999; Matsuda, 2012; and McKay 2003).

EIL pedagogy is a response to the realization that native English speakers (NES) model is no longer appropriate across multiple contexts of English use and users. Whereas the focus of traditional English Language Teaching (ELT) approaches were approximation to the NES model, EIL pedagogy focuses on three appropriations: appropriation to bilingual English speakers (BES), context of use, and purpose. In the paragraphs that follow, I will explain briefly each of the appropriation in EIL pedagogy. Inspired by McKay (2003), I will use the term 'bilingual English speakers' to refer to English users who use English as an additional language alongside one or more other languages they speak. In using the term, I, however, recognize its limitations because there is "a tremendous cline in language ability among bilingual English speakers" (McKay, 2003, p. 4), with some speaking English like a NES and others having limited proficiency that meet their specific communicative needs.

In the traditional ELT, English is learned as a foreign language (Jenkins, 2009, Zacharias, 2013) whose purpose of learning is to approximate the English of NESs. According to Stern (1983), "native speaker's 'competence', 'proficiency' or 'knowledge of the language' is a necessary point of reference for the second language proficiency concept used in English teaching theory" (p. 341). Within this approach, NES is very often the only model for English use in the classroom and the role of English learners were to reproduce the English of the NESs. This traditional approach assumes that the only purpose of learning English is to join the NES communities.

If EFL approach centers on NES, EIL pedagogy focuses on BES (Burns, 2005; Jenkins, 2009; McKay, 2003). It acknowledges that BESs learn English for various purposes, not necessarily for joining the NES community (Sung, 2013). Therefore, an effective EIL pedagogy "must consider the specific goals that lead learners to study English and not assume that these goals necessarily involve attaining full proficiency in the language" (McKay, 2003, p. 5).

In addition to the diverse purposes of English language learning, EIL pedagogy takes into account the context where English is utilized. Norton (2010) argues that learning English is not only for acquiring the linguistic system of English but more importantly, through English learning, learners organize their experiences and negotiate their identities. In Indonesia, and perhaps other expanding circle countries, the use of English in public spaces can indicate two opposing views. On the negative side, English is viewed as the 'other' language, which potentially poses detrimental effect to students' nationalism. Supporting this view, Pramono (2009) claims that speaking Indonesian with Eng-

lish accent or code-mixing between English and Indonesian might indicate the deterioration of nationalism. While people in big cities recently favor teaching their children English rather than Indonesian, as observed by Onishi (2010), the 2013 national curriculum does not support this development. The new curriculum, instead, downgrades English from its previous status as a local content subject (*mata pelajaran muatan lokal*) to an extracurricular activity in elementary schools. There is an implicit fear in this controversial decision: the government's fear of the negative impact English may bring to young learners' character development (Daud, 2013).

On the positive side, English is seen as the gate-keeping language, that "permits one to open … the linguistic gates to international business, technology, science and travel" (Kachru, 1986, p. 1). This, perhaps, is the reason why many Indonesians opposed to the scrapping of English as a local content subject for elementary schools. Putri (2012) shares her concerns in *The Jakarta Post* that the scrapping of English in the curriculum might threaten Indonesians' global competitiveness that at present continues to be lagging behind other neighboring countries. Indeed, a recent research conducted by Euromonitor International in eight countries in the United Arab Emirates illustrates that English fluency can have a significant impact on income (Sambidge, 2012). The difference in earnings between individuals who are fluent in English and those who are not "ranges from five percent in Tunisia to 75 percent in Egypt and even 200 percent for some workers in the Iraqi capital Baghdad" (Sambidge, 2012). Unfortunately, to my knowledge, no similar studies are conducted in Indonesia.

Due to the two opposing views about English in Indonesia, the role of teachers in appropriating English teaching to Indonesian contexts becomes even more crucial. This is particularly because many theories in teacher education are originally based on the teaching and learning of English in the United States with relatively limited inputs from the learning of English in the Expanding Circle countries (Sridhar and Sridhar, 1994). Therefore, local teachers need to be better equipped and encouraged to appropriate the teaching of English to local contexts and needs. One approach that can facilitate such appropriation process is EIL pedagogy. As pointed out by McKay (2003), "as an international language, English belongs to its users, and as such it is *the users*[1] cul-

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[1] my italics

tural content and *their*[2] sense of the appropriate use of English that should inform language pedagogy" (p. 13). Since EIL pedagogy belongs to its users, then, what is needed is a systematic approach exploring its implementation in teacher education programs conducted by and dedicated to local teachers. Such studies will provide an opportunity to appropriate theories of EIL pedagogy to the local contexts where the teaching of English takes place.

The purpose of the present study is to explore the experiences of ten BESTs' in practicing EIL pedagogy in a Microteaching course where I was the class instructor. The study is conducted in a pre-service teacher education program because, similar to Matsuda (2009), I strongly believe that pedagogical changes cannot be successfully implemented without changing the teachers. Teachers must be informed on the current sociolinguistic changes of English uses and users and how such a change informs English pedagogy.

METHOD

The present study was conducted over the span of a year (September 2011-August 2012), in which I, the class instructor, documented students' experiences in practicing EIL pedagogy in a microteaching class. In the Microteaching course, each BEST conducted three mini lessons. The duration of each mini lesson was approximately 20 minutes. For each of these, they were required to prepare a lesson plan and design materials oriented towards EIL pedagogy. The mini lesson was video-recorded. At the end of each mini lesson, they wrote a teaching diary reflecting on the mini lesson they just conducted.

Considering EIL pedagogy was relatively a new approach in Indonesia as well as the context of the study, I started the course with a lecture and workshop on EIL pedagogy. The lecture was informed by principles of teaching EIL taken from Burns (2005) and McKay (2003). In the workshop, I provided students with a reading text entitled *Engagement* taken from Interchange, a Western-published course book used in the department. In groups, students developed a lesson plan and teaching materials portraying EIL pedagogy with the assigned text. The workshop ended with each group presenting their lesson plans and discussing their experience developing lesson plan and teaching with EIL pedagogy.

[2] ibid

Ten BESTs participated in the study. My initial intention was to only use data from the microteaching course. Later, informal conversation that I had with some BESTs revealed that all of them intended to implement EIL pedagogy during the teaching practice. Many felt EIL pedagogy were beneficial both for them as bilingual English teachers and the students. Therefore, I decided to extend my study throughout their teaching practice period.

The primary data for the present article was drawn from a focus-group discussion and individual face-to face interviews with the ten BESTs. The focus-group discussion was conducted after the first mini lesson. Each BEST was individually interviewed three times: after the second and third mini lessons and teaching practice. The interview was intended to provide a guided-reflective space where students reflected and shared their experiences of teaching English with EIL pedagogy as well as the difficulties they encountered. Before the interview began, I asked them whether they preferred to speak in English or Indonesian. All agreed to use Indonesian as the main medium, with the option of using English when it was appropriate. Since the beginning of the course, the student-teachers were informed of the study and were ensured that their real names would not be revealed. Instead, pseudonyms are used for the purpose of this article.

The interviews were transcribed and analyzed by repeated reading and coding. The students' responses were first grouped thematically according to the benefits that EIL pedagogy brought, the challenges they felt of teaching using the pedagogy, and how their teaching materials represent EIL pedagogy. It was, then, followed by identifying relevant points, common patterns and points of divergence in the participants' opinions and teaching experiences throughout the microteaching and teaching practice. Finally, the participants were given opportunity to comment and provide suggestions, if any, on the interpretation being made of the interview data.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Standard English with Local Flavor

One of the characteristics of EIL pedagogy is to portray the changing and diverse English use in the world (Burns, 2005; Matsuda, 2012; and McKay, 2003). Widdowson (1994) states that if English now is no longer the property

of NESs, then, the notion of NES as the only norm must be increasingly called into questions. Some argue that exposing learners to the English variety of Inner Circle countries (ICC) fosters the power and status of some on others (Holliday, 1994, p. 24), hinders learners from adopting culturally preferred ways of interacting (Kramsch and Sullivan, 1996, p. 201), perpetuates global inequalities (Pennycook, 1995, p. 36), and provides unnecessary and irrelevant learning model (Burns, 2005, p. 7; Cook, 1999, p. 188; and McKay 2003, p. 7). Burns (2005) warns teachers that setting a particular variety as the only and universal pedagogical models "deny the realities of the repertoires of […] Englishes learners encounter when they go out into the real world" (pp. 6).

Despite EIL scholars' arguments against the exclusive teaching of standard English, in the present study many BESTs continue to believe that standard English or the English of NES countries was the primary pedagogical model. During the focus-group discussion, Rum and Lida stated that since NESs' grammars were the norm, it would be considered "an error" to teach other Englishes. Lida added that NES English was more desirable in the job market. BESTs' strong opinion to teach standard English underlines the pervasive social acceptability and economic value of standard English.

It is interesting to note that although the interview data indicated that BESTs saw NES English as the pedagogical model, they stressed the need to 'localize' it in the classroom. For example, when teaching the generic structure of a spoof text, Nisa, changed the character names in the text 'Airplane,' from US Presidents to Indonesian Presidents such as Megawati, Habibie and SBY. Nisa claimed that by using Indonesian Presidents, students became more involved in the lesson as they had the necessary background knowledge. Thus, the course would flow more smoothly and efficiently because she did not need to "waste the precious class time" providing schematic knowledge of the characters.

Prior to teaching a persuasive text, Beni taught the different models of persuasive structures, for example, ' I believe that …,' 'It would be better if …,' 'You should …,' 'You have to …,' and 'If you … you will …'. Interestingly, when giving examples of using these templates, he provided localized contexts (underlined) for the structure such as 'I believe that Mr. SBY can lead us to the brighter future' and 'You should try Mie Sedap because it is very delicious.' 'Mr. SBY' is at present the president of Indonesia and 'Mie Sedap' is one of well-known brands of instant noodles in Indonesia.

From this section, it can be learned that for the majority of BESTs, English continues to be largely seen as a foreign language. Jenkins (2009) explains that in the traditional EFL approach, native English or Standard British/American English are considered as "the only acceptable norms to serve as targets for Expanding Circle learners" (p. 42). Although many BESTs did provide local content, the structural model remains NES English. Thus, during the focus group interview Rum and Lida were of the opinion that structural model other than the standard English was considered an error although this might not be the case in EIL pedagogy. Jenkins (2009) argues that in EIL pedagogy, deviations from standard English can be seen as "evidence of the emergence of new kinds of English norms" (p. 42) and might represent legitimate English norms in a particular context.

Tiny Steps to Expose Other Englishes

In Expanding Circle Countries (ECCs), such as Indonesia, English was traditionally learned as a foreign language, learnt primarily for communication and identification with ICCs. Recently, Jenkins (2009) notes that the teaching of English in ECC should not orient to ICCs. Rather, teachers need to provide English learners with a lingua franca through which learners can communicate socially and professionally with speakers of other first languages. This certainly does not diminish the importance of standard English. It highlights, instead, that teachers should move beyond teaching standard English and expose learners to English varieties they are likely to encounter.

BESTs' strong preference of standard English also did not stop a few BESTs from bringing other Englishes in their self-created teaching materials. In the second mini lesson, for example, Nisa, taught her students about 'dropped syllables' by exposing students to a song *Price Tag* by American and Thai singers. In her lesson plan, she wrote that the reason for exposing students to American and Thai Englishes were to raise students' awareness of the differences between American and Thai Englishes although in the mini lesson, she did not explicitly point out the differences between the two Englishes.

For the first mini lesson, Anthi recorded her own voice for the listening materials. When asked the underlying reason for such a choice, Anthi explained:

Excerpt 1

> I just want to give a chance for the students to hear a Javanese speaking English. In the listening class, we often heard native speakers' voices because they were considered having good pronunciation and fluent. But that is not true. My experience taught me otherwise. I personally feel listening to a native speaker is like listening to a person chewing hot potato… not clear. So I think using Javanese speakers are clearer although they are slightly colored with Javanese accent (Anthi, 13/11/2011, my translation).

Anthi's attempt to bring Javanese English, her own English, is significant to the way she understood EIL pedagogy. Burns (2005) notes that "[u]sing L2 speaker models as a basis for classroom activities is still relatively rare in language teaching" (p. 4). Therefore, Anthi's decision to utilize her own voice for the listening material might be perceived as an attempt for her own English, Javanese English, to be acknowledged in ELT.

Nisa's and Anthi's attempts to bring other Englishes, although not necessarily using them as pedagogical acquisition models, are significant. If we see EIL pedagogy as an innovation, then, Roger's (1983) variables affecting the rate at which innovation is adopted need to be considered. One of those variables is observability, that is, "how visible an innovation is" (Roger, 1983, p.53). He postulates that an individual is more likely to adapt innovation that they are familiar with. Brown (1993) argues that at present, EIL pedagogy does not possess the observability factor or lack of modeling. Therefore, BESTs' preference of standard English and hesitance of bringing other Englishes in the classroom might be due to the unfamiliarity of teaching these new Englishes vis-à-vis the standard English.

Additionally, BESTs' hesitance of bringing other Englishes in the classroom might illustrate Llurda's (2009) assertion - that the implementation of EIL pedagogy depends largely on first, teachers' exposure to the different Englishes and second, their own support and acceptance of these new Englishes. The interview data indicate that the majority of BESTs were reluctant to show supports towards the use of new Englishes as pedagogical models. This points to the need for the curriculum of pre-service teacher education to not only teach standard English but also continue exposing pre-service students to other Englishes especially those in neighboring countries.

Students' Pride of Teaching with EIL Pedagogy

Despite students' limited freedom in using approaches other than EIL pedagogy in the Microteaching course, it is worth noting that all BESTs are somewhat positive about their teaching experiences in the Microteaching course. In their Microteaching portfolios, they described the experiences of teaching with EIL pedagogy as "challenging," "interesting," and "rewarding." All BESTs agree that EIL pedagogy is particularly beneficial for new teachers. For Beni, EIL pedagogy made teaching English easier for local teachers:

Excerpt 2

> EIL pedagogy makes teaching easier for a nonnative teacher like me. For example, in the past, when I taught English I needed to explain about Halloween although it was not very common in Indonesia. I often confused how to teach it. I personally did not know what it is, the history behind it but through EIL pedagogy I learn that we don't need to teach about Halloween but we can find learning contexts in immediate surroundings or in Indonesia, not necessarily Western cultures (2nd interview, 15/01/2012, my translation).

Beni's remark highlights that the inclusion of Western cultural aspects (E.g. Halloween) in English lessons, which is very common in NES pedagogy, brings unwanted impact on his teacher self. Under NES pedagogy, he was put into a condition to teach a cultural aspect that he was not comfortable with and even, had little knowledge about. His preference for EIL pedagogy seems to stem from the liberty it gives local teachers to contextualize the teaching to local contexts and thus, including cultural aspects that are familiar to local teachers. For Beni, EIL pedagogy facilitates pre-service teachers such as himself so that they can exert their agencies when teaching English.

Other BESTs were in favour of EIL pedagogy because it increases the confidence level of beginning teachers as represented in Nisa's comment below:

Excerpt 3

> For me the most significant contribution of EIL pedagogy is how it increases my confident as a teacher of English. I used to feel doubtful as a teacher because my English is very much decorated by Javanese accent. But in EIL pedagogy I

> learned that speaking English with Javanese English is not a problem. So I try to build my confidence to be an English teacher. EIL pedagogy also helps me in selecting teaching materials (Nisa, second individual interview, 17/12/2011, my translation).

Rubdy (2009) warns that prolonged exposure to NES pedagogy might instil “a culture of inferiority” (p. 5) leading learners to believe that there is something wrong with their own culture and English. The uncertainty Nisa felt about her English accent might originate from continued exposure to NES pedagogy in Indonesia (Zacharias, 2003, 2012). In NES pedagogy, Nisa’s Javanese English is considered an error, but in EIL pedagogy, it is “not a problem” as it is part of her identity as a Javanese English speaker.

Perhaps, one participant who shows the most enthusiasm when utilizing EIL pedagogy is Anthi. Among all BESTs, she is the only one who creates an accompanying listening text using her own voice and her Javanese friend. When asked why she chose Javanese English speakers, she explained during the focus group that she would like to give an opportunity for Javanese English. Based on her experience in the listening class, the models were always Westerners because of the stereotypical assumption that NESs are fluent and speak comprehensible English. From her standpoint, Indonesians provided better models because of familiarity factors. In Indonesia, Indonesian English is recognizable and thus, easily to be understood.

One encouraging finding from the present study was the decision that many BESTs made to continue implementing EIL pedagogy throughout their teaching practice even though they had the liberty to use other pedagogies. I believe the personal experience in using EIL pedagogy during the microteaching course may have made these student-teachers more enthusiastic about EIL pedagogy. One such teachers is Anthi:

Excerpt 4

I : How do you feel after teaching using EIL approaches?

Anthi : I feel proud because I just realize that local culture can be considered in teaching English as an international language … it can be included in the teaching materials.

I : Do you think it is necessary to teach EIL?

Anthi : I think it's necessary because this is a new innovation in the teaching of English now because it's different from teaching English then … in the past if we learn English we also need to learn the culture [of English speaking countries] without including the local culture even a little bit. (Anthi, individual interview, 13/10/2011, my translation)

Anthi's pride as EIL pedagogue appears to stem from her recent realization that local culture can serve as legitimate media in the teaching of English. It shows that for student teachers, "the construction of a teacher identity is integral to novice L2 teachers' learning to teach process" (Kanno & Stuart, 2011, p. 236) and teaching English through EIL pedagogy facilitates a positive construction of English teacher identity as exemplified from the narratives of Anthi and Nisa.

My qualitative analysis of BESTs' interview data show a positive correlation between BESTs' identity formation and their changing classroom practice through EIL pedagogy. For Nisa, for example, EIL pedagogy was able to nurture a more confident English teacher self despite her Javanese decorated English. Anthi could project a more confident teacher self because of a pedagogy that allows her to use her own culture as a media in teaching English. All in all, the narratives of BESTs in this section suggests the importance of utilizing a pedagogy in which students' emerging teacher self is facilitated in the classroom practice.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

The purpose of the present paper is to share the experiences of ten BESTs integrating EIL pedagogy in a Microteaching course. Generally, the findings support the call by EIL scholars (Burns, 2005, Matsuda, 2012) to integrate EIL pedagogy into existing pre-service teacher education curriculum. All student-teachers showed enthusiasm in teaching English through EIL pedagogy. One common reason is because the pedagogy increased beginning teachers' confidence level as English teachers because it allows them to bring in what is familiar to them, their cultures, as media for teaching English. To this end, the study points to the need for pre-service teacher education to integrate EIL ped-

agogy in the curriculum so that it helps student-teachers to develop their confidence level as beginning teachers of English.

McKay (2003) and Matsuda (2012) contend that a central feature of EIL pedagogy is the way it depicts the various ways English is used both intranationally within a nation and internationally in cross-cultural encounters. From BESTs' lesson plans and teaching materials, it is obvious that they continued to see standard English or NES English as the desired pedagogical model, although it is not the only teaching model utilized in the classroom. Attempts made by a few BESTs such as Nisa to introduce other Englishes are presented in a way that highlights how these Englishes deviate from the standard English. The hesitancy BESTs' felt toward bringing other Englishes into the classroom do not seem to reflect the growing recognition of the spread of English in other contexts. This might be because only a very few teachers have "a rich enough knowledge of and personal experience with all of the varieties and functions of Englishes that exists today" (Matsuda, 2012, p. 168). Students' limited representation of Englishes in their EIL materials point to the continued efforts that need to be done to expose students to these new Englishes so that student-teachers can be more informed on how linguistically and culturally diverse English has become today.

Although the present study highlights the importance of exposing student-teachers to other Englishes, BESTs' preference towards standard English may underline the continued importance of teaching standard English and this should not be interpreted as submissive to NES pedagogy. Gupta (2012, p. 248) notes that teachers need to be aware of the non-standard grammar in their own region and need to explain to the students what are the significant differences are between their local Englishes and the standard English. Therefore, I am of the opinion that students need to be encouraged to be skillful in standard English prior to exposing to these new Englishes. After students have developed solid understanding of the standard English, then, teachers can slowly introduce these Englishes starting from the ones in neighboring countries. In the era of World Englishes, Canagarajah (2005, p. xiv) notes that the purpose of learning English is to shuttle between different communities of English users. Therefore, students need to be made aware of when they need to use standard English and when they can use their own local Englishes. Another creative way to introduce different Englishes is perhaps, by encouraging students to use it in creative contexts such as poetry or drama scripts (Gupta, 2012, p. 255).

Finally the findings of the study point to the fact that becoming EIL pedagogue is not an experience that takes place overnight. Rather, it is a prolonged process. The findings underline the importance of not only exposing students to EIL pedagogy but most significantly, provides student-teachers with the opportunity to interact with the pedagogy; in the present study it was teaching through the EIL pedagogy. Such an interactive process will accommodate opportunities where students can gradually develop their understanding of what it means to teach English in the era of World Englishes and experimenting with different ways of teaching English and increasingly accommodate local needs and contexts.

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PROMOTING A RESPECT FOR DIFFERENCE THROUGH LANGUAGE TEACHING

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Abstract: An emphasis on developing students' moral and ethical character is evident in the 2013 National Indonesian Curriculum. In this article, I look at how respect for difference is reflected in the 2013 Indonesian National Curriculum, specifically referring to the second key competency area for senior high school English language. I also draw reference from academic literature that can be linked to this competency area of the English curriculum. Exploring theoretical links from the literature is useful to develop a deeper understanding of the importance of this key competency area. Discussion explores the significance of respect for difference and the important role that English language teachers in Indonesia can play in promoting tolerance. By understanding how culture can be used as a divisive force, we can more readily identify how teachers can develop a respect for difference in their students to help overcome intolerant attitudes that can lead to discrimination.

Keywords: tolerance, respect for difference, dialogism, critical thinking, national Indonesian curriculum

The 2013 Indonesian National Curriculum reflects an emphasis on character building that seeks to develop students' personal attributes in terms of moral values and ethical behaviour. To discuss how this applies to the English language curriculum, I focus on the second key competency area of the English language curriculum for senior high school. In focusing on this competency area, I do not wish to imply that moral and ethical values are not also evident elsewhere in the curriculum. However, for the purposes of this publication, it is

the English language curriculum that is of greatest relevance. Moreover, the matter of character building through ethical and moral values is prominent in the English language curriculum, particularly in the second key competency area. English teachers are therefore expected to make a contribution to the moral and ethical values of their students. However, given the abstract and complex nature of these concepts, along with pre-existing pressures on language teachers to teach more concrete aspects of language skills such as grammar and functional usage, it is fair to expect that the requirement of having to address ethical and moral values will present great challenges for many teachers of English. It is useful to consider relevant underlying theory that can provide a deeper understanding of why it is important to include ethical and moral values in language teaching and how this might be done.

THE SECOND KEY COMPETENCY AREA FOR ENGLISH

The second key competency area of the English curriculum from the 2013 national curriculum is a key focus of this article. Before seeking to link that competency area to existing theory, it is useful to firstly look at this part of the 2013 national curriculum.

Years 10 and 11

The second key competency area for English is the same for years 10 and 11, and the original wording is provided below[1]. I have translated it as follows: To develop behaviour (that is honest, disciplined, responsible, caring, polite, environmentally friendly, team oriented, co-operative, peace-loving, responsive and pro-active) and to demonstrate a disposition to be part of the solution to various national problems in effectively interacting in the social and natural

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[1] Mengembangkan perilaku (jujur, disiplin, tanggung jawab, peduli, santun, ramah lingkungan, gotong royong, kerjasama, cinta damai, responsif dan proaktif) dan menunjukan sikap sebagai bagian dari solusi atas berbagai permasalahan bangsa dalam berinteraksi secara efektif dengan lingkungan sosial dan alam serta dalam menempatkan diri sebagai cerminan bangsa dalam pergaulan dunia. (Kementrian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan 2013, pp. 66-68)

environment and in positioning one's self as a reflection of one's nation in a global community.

Year 12

The original wording of the second key competency area for English for year 12 is provided below[2]. I have translated it as follows: To develop behaviour (that is honest, disciplined, responsible, caring, polite, environmentally friendly, team oriented, co-operative, peace-loving, responsive and pro-active) and to demonstrate a disposition to be part of the solution to various national problems, as well as positioning one's self as an agent of transformation for society in building a civilised nation and world.

This competency area has much in common across years 10 to 12, including the abilities of being responsible, caring, well-mannered, co-operative in working together, peace-loving and responsive. For years 10 and 11, there is a focus on the ability to be effective in problem solving in social interactions and the ability to position one's self in such a way that reflects one's national self in a global context. A variation of this competency area for year 12 adds a higher order ability that aims to enable students to become agents of change in transforming society in building a more civilised nation and world. These are noble pursuits and are likely to be viewed by teachers as complex and challenging aims to achieve.

The competencies referred to above reflect the important broader role of education in character building and in developing critical thinking and respect for others. A challenge for language teachers is to help develop attitudes, abilities and behaviours that enable students to become good global citizens, while also reflecting a national identity. This involves developing a complex awareness of identity positions of self and other, both at an individual and collective level, a matter which I will refer to throughout this article. By recognising that

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[2] Mengembangkan perilaku (jujur, disiplin, tanggung jawab, peduli, santun, ramah lingkungan, gotong royong, kerjasama, cinta damai, responsif dan proaktif), menunjukkan sikap sebagai bagian dari solusi atas berbagai permasalahan bangsa, serta memosisikan diri sebagai agen transformasi masyarakat dalam membangun peradaban bangsa dan dunia. (Kementrian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan 2013, p. 70)

processes involved in language teaching and learning can be effective in developing a better understanding of identity positions, we can appreciate why this is reflected in the 2013 curriculum. However, merely recognising different identity positions alone does not guarantee that one will accept other identity positions. In order to examine this more closely, I will start by looking at the notion of culture and how it can shape a sense of identity of self and other.

THE NOTION OF CULTURE AS A DIVISIVE FORCE

A traditional concept of culture relates to knowing about a collective other, who are defined as being different or exotic, as described by Edward Tyler in the early twentieth century (Lo Bianco, 2009). This traditional view of culture remains evident today and often leads to the assumption that culture is a fixed, unnegotiable set of customs, traditions and social norms. This is what Liddicoat (2002) describes as a static concept of culture and is consistent with what Holliday (2011) refers to as an essentialist view of culture, that is typically defined by national, ethnic, racial or religious groupings.

Where a concept of culture is essentialised or viewed as static, it can be used as it was in colonial times to define ‘others’ as separate from ‘us’. In this way, a traditional definition of culture can be used in a divisive manner to define social boundaries and to affect the formation of identity (Duranti, 1997). A static notion of culture readily enables one to define a sense of a collective self where characteristics are shared by a group. As part of the same process, one defines the self as separate to a cultural other through a logic of different characteristics. This is consistent with how Wenger (1998) views identity as being shaped, where self-identity is conceptualised, in part, as being the opposite of the cultural other. This means that merely having knowledge of a cultural other does not guarantee that one will identify with it, nor accept or respect it. In fact, Duranti (1997) suggests that colonialists understood characteristics of other cultural groups but used the term ‘culture’ to separate and dominate ‘the other’. He suggests that even today the recognition of different cultural groups remains a way of explaining why minority and marginalised groups do not assimilate into mainstream society.

REPRESSING DIFFERENCES OF ‘THE OTHER’

In discussing how differences between people are commonly viewed, Kristeva (1991) describes ‘the other’ in terms of being a stranger or foreigner.

She argues that when people confront otherness, the self typically responds with one of two kinds of logic, either assimilation or repression. If the other is perceived as being sufficiently similar it can be seen as equal, thereby reflecting a logic of assimilation. However, if the other is perceived as being different, and if that difference cannot be assimilated, then the difference of the other is regarded as being inferior. This reflects a logic of repression (Barclay, 2010; Kristeva, 1991), where a logic of binary opposites is evident, and represented through such values as: good and bad, superior and inferior, and right and wrong. This can be seen as a common instinctive reaction towards cultural differences, particularly where there is an essentialist, static notion of culture that results in a reductionist view of the cultural other.

Some people view language learners quite negatively, where the experience of learning another language is perceived as threatening the identity of the collective self. This reflects an essentialist, binary logic of exclusivity between 'us' and 'them', where each identity position is perceived as being entirely separate identity positions. Applying such logic may lead one to accuse language learners of a lack of respect of their own country and culture, and of crossing the boundary to adopt the identity position of the other. For example, in the context of Indonesia, some people may view learners of English as being sympathetic to American political ideologies and therefore unpatriotic to Indonesia. However, such logic is based on the assumptions that cultures are static and exclusive and that to learn the language of others involves adopting their cultural values. The essentialist nature of such logic implies that all Americans share the same ideology, which is entirely different to an ideology shared by all Indonesians. Such logic reflects stereotyping and often seeks to repress the other. Clearly, not all citizens of any country entirely share the same ideology, yet this is sometimes what is implied or assumed to be the case. Such essentialist, binary logic focuses on differences and tends to overlook the human dimension of culture and the possibility of similarities between cultural groups. It also ignores the human interactive potential of intercultural spaces to dynamically combine elements of self and other.

IN-BETWEEN-NESS

To overcome a repressive reaction towards otherness, Kristeva (1991) suggests the notion of in-between-ness. She describes the self as recognising foreign traits of another culture as being evident within one's own psyche. She

suggests that one recognise strangeness of the other not because it is foreign to the self but because it is within the self, but has been repressed. Kristeva describes the notion of a 'polymorphic' culture where people are required to take into account otherness within the self, and where 'culture' does not merely assimilate otherness but that it dissolves the clear boundaries between self and others. In this way, Kristeva conceptualises 'in-between-ness', as an intercultural space. She proposes cosmopolitanism as a way of calling us to respect and welcome the stranger within us, and therefore being able to welcome the other.

BAKHTIN'S CONCEPT OF DIALOGISM

Mikhail Bakhtin, a prominent Russian philosopher, provides some very useful theory about language. For the purposes of this discussion, Bahktin's (1981) notion of dialogism is of great interest, and has implications for how the self perceives the cultural other. According to Bakhtin's (1981) notion of dialogism, outsidedness enables one to see the individual or collective self from the outside, as others do. This is an act of critical thinking and self-reflexivity where one imagines how he or she is perceived by others. It is a productive act that allows the self to consider alternative voices and to interact with the other dynamically. Engaging outsidedness can help generate new intercultural spaces and identity positions, as we look at ourselves differently and critically.

An ethical response to otherness is not to assimilate or repress the other, but to view and interact with the other in a way that values the other, whilst not denying the self. Bakhtin's suggestion of the need to maintain one's own unique place, yet at the same time to co-experience otherness (Brandist, 2002) demonstrates the potential to have multiple identity positions. This can be viewed as consistent with the 2013 national curriculum, where the aim of students becoming global citizens can be seen as co-experiencing otherness, whilst reflecting a national identity can be seen in relative terms as retaining one's own unique place. Co-experiencing otherness can take the form of intercultural interaction, as in Bakhtin's dialogism, where two entities can retain their original or unique identities while interacting on the basis that the other and self are equal yet different. In this way, Bakhtin's dialogism represents ethical intercultural acts that recognise equality despite differences.

Dialogic acts where both self and other are afforded a voice, provide the transformational stepping stones for language learners to become what Kramsch (2009) refers to as intercultural speakers. By engaging dialogism, an

ethical act is made possible to achieve what Kristeva (1991) refers to as in-between-ness, that is, a generative space for transformative relations between self and other. The in-between-ness of interculturality is achieved through dialogism (Bakhtin 1981).

THE ROLE OF LANGUAGE TEACHERS

The practice of dialogic intercultural encounters in the classroom includes critical thinking, and positions the language teacher as modeller (Kramsch, 2009), as advocate for the target culture (Lo Bianco, 2009) and mediator of intercultural engagement (Liddicoat & Kohler, 2012). Teachers do not need to be native speakers of the target language, but teachers do need to present a range of alternative 'voices' in the form of points of view, that can be regarded as representing otherness.

Mediating students' views and helping raise students' awareness of otherness can be done by providing alternative views and by modelling a world view where things are unfinalised and evolving. Holliday (2011) advocates the notion of critical cosmopolitanism, which involves a concept of culture where diversity is normal, where cultural boundaries may be unclear and dynamic, and where all sides adopt a critical outlook. This helps project a view of culture consistent with what Liddicoat (2002) refers to as dynamic and what Holliday (2011) refers to as non-essentialist. However, if teachers promote a traditional notion of culture, then students are likely to view the world as a place with static cultural borders that reinforce a sense of 'us' and 'them' as being separate and constantly in opposition to each other.

Language teachers are uniquely positioned to model an open and progressive world-view to students. Rather than teachers merely projecting their own views, or a particular set of values, as complete and absolute, and trying to impose them on students, teachers need to recognise the importance of developing a balanced appreciation of a multiplicity of alternative positions that can be negotiated during interaction with others. This can occur not only through direct social interaction with the cultural other, but also through intercultural engagement in classroom discussion. Identifying different ideas, points of view and attitudes may be an important first step in recognising different identity positions of different cultures. Yet, this alone risks stereotyping and essentialising the cultural other. The most important next step for more meaningful and respectful intercultural engagement is to consider commonalities between cultur-

al groups and to negotiate new shared understandings and values. Such acts can create new and dynamic inter-cultural identity positions of shared meaning. In this way, teachers can model an open-minded world view and at the same time mediate how students see the cultural other, as is advocated by Liddicoat and Kohler (2012).

Teachers face a difficult balance in having to challenge over-generalisations, negative stereotypes and discriminatory views. This should be done in a way that demonstrates a sensitive balance and openness to alternative views, whilst also being aware of ethical boundaries. There is tension between accepting all other positions as equally valid and judging certain positions or views as being unacceptable. This is where teachers' professional and moral judgement is needed to negotiate and raise awareness of the ethical and moral values of different positions. Before judging a position is morally acceptable or not, it is important to hear and consider a range of views as part of the process of forming judgement. This is where class discussion can be highly valuable to share a range of alternative views, to demonstrate respect for difference, to explore cultural norms, and to develop critical thinking.

For many language teachers and learners, there is still confusion between the roles of culture-related knowledge and culture-related capabilities (House 2008). In contrasting the notion of static culture as merely knowledge of the 'cultural other', Liddicoat (2002) describes a dynamic view of culture as sets of variable practices that people use to engage others. Adopting a dynamic view of culture places less emphasis on knowledge of 'the culture' whilst placing greater emphasis on being able to engage with a cultural other. Liddicoat's (2002) dynamic view of culture views interactional acts as meaningful events in which cultural norms are continually negotiated and reshaped. This is consistent with Holliday's (2011) non-essentialist view of culture that recognises complexity and unclear boundaries where diversity is the norm.

Language teachers have great opportunities to encourage critical thinking when exploring aspects of culture. Exploring the definition of culture itself can be a good starting point. Students should be invited to share their opinions of their own cultural self and to discuss how they imagine cultural others. Identities of self and other can be explored at individual and collective levels. For example, the self may be explored at various identity levels, such as the individual, the family unit, the student's class, the school community, the town's population where one lives, the province where one lives, at the national level and even as a global citizen. In fact, it is a goal of the 2013 national Indonesian

curriculum for learners of English to develop identity positions as national and global citizens. To achieve this, students will need to constructively use their imagination and language to develop a more nuanced understanding of the notion of culture, and tolerance towards difference. For teachers, it is important to explore students' views and to treat different ways of seeing things with respect. This is a good way for teachers to model respect for difference and for diverse views. Teachers also need to demonstrate and raise awareness of the notion of a multiplicity of identity positions.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Imagination plays an important role in intercultural dynamics. Bakhtin's (1981) notion of dialogism means that the call to respond to the other does not merely refer to the other we face in the immediate moment, but extends to the unseen other, including voices of the past and future. We are challenged to imagine how the other might respond, think or act in particular scenarios. There is a multiplicity of possibilities, as we view others at an individual and collective level who are capable of exerting agency and divergent views, rather than merely representing an essentialised static single position. Respect for different opinions reflects an ethical response to others. Dialogism as conceptualised by Bakhtin is grounded in relational processes and involves critical thinking to consider and negotiate alternative voices.

Dialogism and respect for alternative voices should be practiced in language classrooms and are consistent with the aims of the 2013 National Curriculum. If students are to truly become global citizens and agents of transformational change for a better world, they will require an understanding of other cultures but more importantly they will also need to be able to engage constructively in inter-cultural spaces.

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