ETHICAL CONFLICTS EXPERIENCED BY IRANIAN EFL TEACHERS IN THE CLASSROOM CONTEXT

Zahra Alimorad
(zahra.alimorad@gmail.com)

Shiraz University
PO Box 1585 Shiraz, Iran 71345

Abstract: Recently, EFL teachers' ethical conflicts in the situated classroom context have got paramount importance. This paper presents findings from an empirical study of ethical conflicts Iranian EFL teachers encounter while engaged in classroom assessment. Critical incidents generated by 49 practicing teachers revealed that a majority of reported conflicts were related to *Do No Harm* principle. Most of the conflicts they encountered involved basic values as one of the conflicting elements while two new conflicting elements emerged in the specific context of this study. It was concluded that Iranian educational policy might need to be changed to mitigate some of these conflicts.

Keywords: classroom assessment, critical incidents technique, ethical conflicts, ethics, Iranian EFL teachers

Testing plays a vital role in any educational system since the decisions that are made on the basis of test scores influence the lives of all of the stakeholders especially those of the test takers. Depending on the scope of the test, different decisions might bring about diverse effects which will be either huge and irreversible or trivial and reversible. To guarantee right decisions to be made on the basis of test scores, test developers try to make their tests as reliable and valid as possible. Messick (1989) as one of the leading figures in this field believes that examining the validity of a given use of test scores is a complex process involving the examination of the evidence that supports and ethically justifies the interpretation or use. However, there seems to be a dearth of research on ethical issues in language testing all over the world. Pointing to the

paucity of research in this area, Bachman (1990, p. 280) maintains that "virtually the only language testing researcher to address the ethical considerations of test use is Spolsky (1981), who has questioned whether language testers have enough evidence to be sure of the decisions made on the basis of test scores."

Recently, however, the tendency toward more discussions of professionalism and its meaning among language testers has also led to their increased awareness of ethical issues (Bachman, 2000). Some scholars believe that developing ethical standards applicable to a wide variety of assessment contexts is not that straightforward or even possible. For instance, Bachman (2000) states that in order to improve the quality of our professional training, we need standards of professional competence; however, the development of such standards is a challenging endeavor on two grounds, namely, cultural imperialism and ethical relativism. Hamp-Lyons (2000), too, believes that "language testing in different countries, cultures and political contexts will always embody a wide range of variety in practice, and it is hard to see why some methodological practices should be preferred over others on practical grounds" (p. 588) and "what is considered ethically acceptable varies from country to country, culture to culture" (p. 589).

In contrast to the above-mentioned views, some other scholars call for developing ethical standards for all language testing situations. As Davies (1997) convincingly points out, without a set of professional standards, there are no criteria for judging the quality of the tests and the ethicality of their use. Attempting to generate general guiding principles which can be widely applicable to various types of assessment that occur in classrooms, Green, Johnson, Kim, and Pope (2007) developed two such principles, namely, *Do No Harm* (Taylor & Nolen, 2005) and *Avoid Score Pollution*. They defined the former principle as follows:

> Educators must be well versed in the potential impact of the practices they use because their assessment and evaluation may have a variety of unintended consequences for their students. For example, a teacher who uses surprise items on a test that did not appear on the study guide may do harm by breaking the implicit bond of trust between teacher and student. Such actions imply lack of respect for student rights and needs. (Green et al., 2007, p.1001)

The latter principle is defined as "any practice that improves test performance without concurrently increasing actual mastery of the content tested.

That is, the score on the test does not represent actual student achievement in the content area and is 'polluted' by factors unrelated to academic attainment (Green et al., 2007, p. 1001). Claiming that test score pollution affects the validity of interpretations and uses that are made of test scores, Haladyna (1992) admitted no test score interpretation or use is valid until we can eliminate the influences of test score pollution. Pennock-Roman (1992, in Haladyna, 1992), on the other hand, claimed that some methods such as test preparation, teaching skills or test wiseness cannot be considered as sources of test score pollution and even Haladyna himself views these methods ethical despite listing them as sources of pollution. She suggested that instead of test score pollution, it is better to use "*test use pollution"* because improper and inappropriate uses of tests by policy makers, school administrators, and teachers are polluting test scores and the interpretations made from them not the tests themselves.

In their study, Green et al. (2007) attempted to define ethical behavior by examining educators' ethical judgments regarding assessment. The study was a web-based survey of educators in which they were asked to read a brief scenario and to indicate whether the student evaluation practice in the depiction was ethical or unethical. Results of their study demonstrated that there was strong agreement among the educators on fewer than half of the scenarios presented in the study. Based on their findings, Green et al. (2007, p. 999) came to the conclusion that "assessment is a realm without professional consensus."

Ethical principles that can guide ethical judgments regarding assessment have also been discussed in some textbooks. Airasian (2005, p. 20), for instance, maintains that the ethical standards for assessment refer to "some aspect of a teacher's fairness in dealing with his or her pupils". However, teachers may not always be well equipped to make ethical judgments related to assessment because of their shaky knowledge base about ethical codes which is the result of either not receiving formal assessment training or receiving out-of-date training (Impara, Plake, & Fager, 1993; Plake & Impara, 1997; Stiggins, 1999).

Additionally, one aspect of ethics in assessment which has rarely been studied is the investigation of ethical conflicts teachers face in their daily classroom assessment practices. While involved in the act of teaching, teachers are always required to make judgments related to assessment. According to Colnerud (1997), the best way to investigate the issues of professional ethics and teaching is by examining the ethical conflicts teachers encounter in their rela-

tionships with the individuals they interact with in their professional life; for example, colleagues, parents, and students.

In his more recent study, Colnerud (2006, p. 366) acknowledges that although theoretical synthesis has been obtained on some approaches to research on teacher ethics, "the difficulty in being a morally good teacher" is in need of further investigation. He believes that this difficulty has arisen from the competing obligations which are present in the teaching profession such as loyalty to colleagues versus acting in the best interests of students. According to him, the organization of the institutions where teachers work may make resolving these conflicts more difficult and complicated.

More recently, Pope, Green, Johnson, and Mitchell (2009) studied ethical conflicts faced by teachers in the United States with regard to the assessment of students. They utilized critical incidents prepared by practicing teachers. Their findings indicated that a majority of reported conflicts were related to score pollution, and conflicts frequently arose between teachers' perceptions of institutional demands and the needs of students. The most frequently reported assessment topics which caused conflict were grading, standardized testing, and special populations. They came to the conclusion that explicit guidelines of assessment practices should be made available for teachers so that they could define and avoid unethical behavior. At the end of their article, Pope et al.(2009) called for more studies regarding ethical conflicts in assessment in different contexts and with different participants so that "perhaps a greater variety of ethical issues would emerge in different populations or different locales" (p. 782). To further this issue, the present study intends to examine ethical conflicts Iranian English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers encounter while engaged in their everyday assessment practices. To this end, it seeks answers to the following research questions:

1. Are the ethical categories *Do No Harm* and *Avoid Score Pollution* reported by Green et al. (2007) applicable in the classroom assessment of students in the EFL context of public schools of Iran?
2. What are Iranian EFL teachers' reported ethical conflicts in their daily classroom assessment practices?

METHOD

In Shiraz, public schools are classified and categorized into different districts on the basis of geographical criteria which also roughly correspond to so-

cial and economic ones. To clarify the point, Shiraz city is divided into four educational districts, namely, 1, 2, 3, and 4 among which 1 and 2 are located in the geographically, socially, and economically higher parts of the city while districts 3 and 4 are located in locales where people are of a lower social class and financial status. All four districts are under the control of the Education Organization which is located in Shiraz and which is itself controlled by the Ministry of Education (located in Tehran). The four educational districts of Shiraz were divided into two groups based on their perceived prestige and social class. That is, districts 1 and 2 constituted the first group while districts 3 and 4, the second one. Then, in each group, one district was chosen randomly, that is, district 2 from the first group and district 4 from the second one. Attempt was made to include all of each chosen district's English teachers in the study; therefore, the questionnaire was administered to all of the teachers who were participating in in-service education. The problem, however, was that sometimes a few teachers were absent. Overall, then, 49 in-service English teachers (Male = 21, Female = 28) who have been teaching English in public guidance and high schools in Shiraz took part in the study. Their age ranged from 22 to 58 years with an average of 34.7 years and their teaching experience ranged from 3 to 30 years with an average of 12.8 years. All of them were Iranian and their native language was Persian. The data collected comprised 62 examples of ethical conflicts experienced by these 49 teachers in their assessment practices.

In collecting the data, the researcher used a critical-incident technique similar to Colnerud's (1997) and Pope et al.'s (2009) procedures. Based on this technique, the participants were asked to respond in writing to a single open-ended question about one of their significant experiences in the form of a narrative. The instructions were as follows: "In one or two paragraphs, describe a situation in which you found it too difficult to decide what has been the right or the wrong thing to do from a moral/ethical point of view regarding classroom assessment of students. Be sure that your response will be confidential and your answers will be analyzed anonymously. So, feel free to describe a first-hand experience with ethics and classroom assessment you have encountered during your teaching experience. Then, they were asked to complete, on a separate page, some demographic data such as information about their gender, grade level taught, number of years they have taught, and their age.

After gathering the required data, the researcher and one of her colleagues systematically compared and coded the responses according to their similarities

and differences. Five categories were adapted from Pope et al.'s study (2009), namely, institutional requirements, student needs, teacher needs, parent needs, and basic values and two new categories emerged during the coding process, that is, collegial support and imposed authority demands. According to Pope et al., critical incidents technique allows participants "to respond from their own perspective in their own words and thus better describe the dilemmas they face" (p. 779). Regarding its drawbacks, they refer to its reliance "on the selective and biased nature of the respondent's memory. For example, more recent and vivid events are typically easier to recall" (p.779).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Findings

Do No Harm vs. Avoid Score Pollution

In order to investigate whether the ethical categories *Do No Harm* and *Avoid Score Pollution* reported by Green et al. (2007) are applicable in the context of Iran, the researcher sorted all the responses into these two categories. Then, she asked one of her colleagues to independently categorize them once more based on the definitions of these terms provided by Green et al. They agreed on labels for 83% of the responses. Differences for the remaining responses were resolved through discussion. Intra-coder reliability was also checked. The researcher herself rated the critical incidents once and then after a few days, she coded them for the second time. The overlap between the two ratings was 89.8% showing agreement on all but eight of the incidents.

Out of all responses coded, 59.3% were classified as consistent with ethical dilemmas centering on "Do No Harm" principle. Pope et al. (2009, p. 779) define this principle in education as "teachers act in such a way as to avoid causing harm to students as well as *other individuals* in schools" (emphasis added). In the particular context of this study, the individuals most vulnerable to harm were the principals of the schools and teachers mostly altered students' test scores for the sake of their benefit. Although in some situations, principals asked the teachers to pass all of the class students regardless of their knowledge and understanding, in most cases, teachers were forced to do so in spite of their own desires and beliefs.

The remainder of responses (40.6%) were classified as "Pollution" of test scores by factors such as consideration of students' absences or presences in the class, late work, cooperation in classroom activities or lack of it, performance in formative assessments during the term, their physical conditions (e.g. disabled students), their behavior problems and politeness issues, and even their physical appearance (3 cases).

Ethical Conflicts

The researcher examined the content of the incidents more closely and organized them by their conflicting elements. Once more inter- and intra-coder reliabilities were checked. While the index of the former was 83.8% indicating agreement on all but 10 of the conflicts, that of the latter was 91.9% showing agreement on all but five of them. She utilized Pope et al.'s (2009) list of conflicting elements as an organizing framework. As mentioned above, this list consists of five conflicting elements. In addition to those five elements, two other conflicting elements emerged from the incidents in this particular context which were not reported by Pope et al. in the context of their USA study, that is, *Collegial Support* and *Imposed Authority Demands*.

Collegial support is different from "collegial loyalty" introduced by Colnerud (2006, p.378). The former refers to a situation in which one of a teacher's colleagues who has already done him/her a favor asks him/her to do something in return; for example, to pass a student who is his/her relative. Two teachers reported that they felt terrible to give scores to a student who was recommended by a colleague while his English was very poor. The latter term, however, was defined as "collegial loyalty prevents teachers from defending pupils when other teachers treat them wrongly" (Colnerud, 2006, p. 378).

Imposed authority demands is also different from "institutional requirements" introduced by Pope et al. (2009). They defined the latter term as "rules from the state, district, or school" (p. 781) and included "requirements for standardized test administration, rules for placement in special programs or promotion, exceptions and accommodations for students in special education, or school or district rules about grading practices" (p. 780) in this category while the former term does not refer to district or school rules. In fact, they are against the established rules because on the basis of rules, in Iran, all of the students must be scored objectively and fairly; no additional score must be given to them. In this context, it was the school principals who imposed their au-

thority on the teachers and forced them to give additional unfair scores to low-level students although it was against the established rules. As written by one of the teachers:

> During my first years of teaching, once the school principal asked me to change my students' scores and pass all of them. I didn't understand why I should do that. After changing the scores, I was talking about the situation with one of my colleagues. Then the principal quarreled with me because she didn't want anybody to know about it. At that time, I found out that all of us must increase students' scores but nobody must talk about it explicitly.

Table 1 lists the resulting elements of conflict down the left side and across the top along with the frequency of incidents that were classified in each cell. Each incident can be defined by where its two conflicting elements intersect. For example, if a teacher described an incident in which she felt that a student was not competent and knowledgeable enough to pass the test and to go to a higher level but the principal of the school forced her to pass the student otherwise the teacher would be punished in some way, the conflict would fall at the intersection of imposed authority demands and teacher needs. Most of the teachers reported that they had to conform to principals' demands for the sake of their career. They also contended that satisfying principals' desires would lead to more rewarding opportunities. For instance, if they did follow the principal's demands, they would get promotion and rewards for their students' 100% rate of achievement while if they refused to do so, they would be punished or even be fired from that school (because of low rate of their students' success). One teacher wrote that 'it is surprising that students' failure is the teacher's responsibility rather than the students'. But in some other cases where students' failure would not have any serious negative consequences for their teachers, the teachers reported their reluctance to pass those students because they perceived this to be in conflict with their religious or ethical values. Such conflicting situations would fall at the intersection of imposed authority demands and basic values. Table 2 gives a definition of each type of conflict.

After examining the pattern of results, the researcher found that most of the conflicts (61.29%) involved basic values as one of the conflicting elements. By basic values, the researcher meant basic moral/ethical values held by teachers, that is, their beliefs, conscience, and religious considerations. For example, a teacher reported that he passed a student because if he failed the English

course, he would have to leave the school since he failed two other courses as well. In doing that, the teacher felt very confused whether to do it or not because he believed that this student would be in an unfair advantage in comparison to his classmates who had been much better than him. These incidents were considered as a conflict between student needs and basic values. Table 1 also shows that after basic values, 32 (51.61%) of all incidents involved student needs while imposed authority demands as one of the conflicting elements in 18 (29.03%) incidents constituted the third most frequently reported conflicting issue. As the fourth conflicting element, teacher needs constituted 16 (25.80%) cases of the incidents pointing to the fact that teachers in this particular sample were more concerned about their students' problems (32 cases in comparison to 16 ones) rather than their own. Hence, students' needs and desires created more ethical dilemmas for these teachers than their own problems. The fifth conflicting element was institutional requirements with 11 (17.74%) of all incidents reported while parent needs with 7 (11.29%) out of all incidents was the next one and collegial support with 2 (3.22%) of the incidents constituted the last conflicting element.

The present teachers maintained that all of the students would be passed regardless of their knowledge and understanding. Most of the teachers in this study complained about such a situation in which most of the students do not take the classroom seriously, are passive and even make fun of the teachers because they have understood that they would be passed at all costs and nobody would fail at the end of the term.

Discussion

This study intended to examine the ethical conflicts Iranian EFL teachers (who teach English in the public schools) face in their daily classroom teaching experience regarding assessment of students. Considering the first research question posed in this study, it was found that the two ethical categories *Do No Harm* and *Avoid Score Pollution* reported by Green et al. (2007) can also be applicable in the context of Iran. The results, however, indicated that ethical dilemmas centering on *Do No Harm* made up the majority of incidents and this is in contrast to what Green et al. (2007) and Pope et al. (2009) found in their studies. The former study showed that teachers disagreed most about the ethicality of items relating to *Score Pollution* and the latter one revealed also that

ethical dilemmas centering on *Score Pollution* made up the majority of incidents.

With respect to the second research question, this study found that basic values of the teachers are a significant component of ethical dilemmas that teachers face in their classroom assessments. This finding is different from those of Colnerud (1997) and Pope et al. (2009) who found a prevalence of institutional requirements on general ethical dilemmas faced by teachers in Sweden and the United States, respectively. Student needs, imposed authority demands, teacher needs, institutional requirements, parent needs and finally collegial support constituted significant elements of ethical conflicts reported by Iranian public schools teachers, respectively.

Results of this study also showed that Iranian EFL teachers' ethical conflicts are, to some extent, different from those of the participants studied by Pope et al. (2009). In the context of their study, they found institutional requirements as the most conflicting element while in this study, basic values constituted the most conflicting component. In addition, they identified five conflicting elements while seven conflicting components emerged in this study. This discrepancy might point to the fact that ethical issues are context-bound and locally-determined. Thus, the researcher agrees with Hamp-Lyons (2000) who believes that there is a wide range of variety in practice of language testing in different countries, cultures and political contexts and what is preferred in one context might not be preferable in another one on practical grounds. Hence, she is right when claiming "what is considered ethically acceptable varies from country to country, culture to culture" (p. 589).

We must also take into account the fact that ethical issues of schooling "are embedded in an extremely complex and multifaceted context" (Colnerud, 2006, p. 383) and each study can investigate only one phenomenon at a time (Colnerud, 2006). In fact, ethical conflicts in classroom assessment are legion, in part because testing and assessment in general and language assessment in particular, are almost always influenced by complex social and cultural factors that differ widely from one situation to another. Therefore, it might seem too difficult to identify a set of universal criteria applicable to all contexts at all times. Paradoxically, the researcher also agrees with Davies (1997) who points to the need for a set of professional standards for judging the quality of the tests and the ethicality of their use. The development of such standards, however, seems to be a challenging task involving many years of study and investigation on ethical issues in diverse parts of the world.

Table 1. Categorization of Ethical Incidents by Conflicting Elements

Conflicting elements	Institutional requirements	Student needs	Parent needs	Teacher needs	Basic values	Collegial support	Imposed authority demands
Institutional requirements							
Student needs	7						
Parent needs	1						
Teacher needs		3	2				
Basic values	3	22	4				
Collegial support					2		
Imposed authority demands				11	7		

Table 2. Types of Conflicts in Descending Order of Frequency

Types of conflicts	**Frequency**	**Definition/ Explanation**
Student needs / Basic values	22	A need or desire of the student conflicts with a basic value held by the teacher.
Imposed authority demands / Teacher needs	11	A need or desire of the principal conflicts with a need or desire of the teacher.
Imposed authority demands / Basic values	7	A need or desire of the principal conflicts with a basic value held by the teacher.
Institutional requirements / Student needs	7	District or school rules conflict with what teacher sees as best for student.
Parent needs / Basic values	4	A need or desire of the parent conflicts with a basic value held by the teacher.
Institutional requirements / Basic values	3	District or school rules conflict with a basic value held by the teacher.
Student needs /Teacher needs	3	A need or desire of the student conflicts with a need or desire of the teacher.
Parent needs / Teacher needs	2	A need or desire of the parent conflicts with a need or desire of the teacher.
Collegial support / Basic values	2	A need or desire of the colleague conflicts with a basic value held by the teacher.
Institutional requirements / Parent needs	1	District or school rules conflict with what parent needs or desires.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Results of the present study confirmed the fact that language testing situations are so unpredictably numerous that we might not be able to postulate a universal set of criteria which help teachers tackle so many unpredictable ethical conflicts they face. Even though, it might, in principle, be possible to devise a set of universal ethical standards, the realities of classroom practice all over the world might pose ethically conflicting situations to teachers which are unique to those situations without being applicable to other contexts. However, more studies in diverse situations with different groups of teachers might help us achieve a unanimous consensus between different points of view with regard to ethical dilemmas.

Most of the teachers in this study considered passing all of the students regardless of their knowledge and understanding a threat to their social and occupational status. Complaining about such a disastrous situation, they admitted their reluctance to pass all of the students because of its negative influences on the educational practices and teacher-student relationships. This is an alarm for those who are responsible for educating students and preparing them for their future life. In fact, such a situation brings about a serious harm to the teachers, their status and their power in the public schools. When students know that teachers have to pass them, they might not respect their teachers and even insult them as mentioned by some of the teachers in this study. Therefore, school principals must be aware of the fact that by trying not to harm themselves, the students and the reputation of their school, they are, in fact, harming the teachers. As mentioned by Green et al. (2007) "Do No Harm" emerges in practice as a choice between harms" (p. 1009) rather than "the avoidance of harm altogether" (p. 1010). It seems that in situations such as those mentioned above, it is better to harm students rather than their teachers, that is, to make students study and try harder rather than to make their teachers pass them.

Therefore, as part of practical implications of the results of this study, it is worth mentioning that evaluating teachers and schools on the basis of students' success rate seems to be problematic because teachers are only one of a multitude of factors affecting students' scores. Multiple standard measures are needed to obtain a valid and reliable indicator of their achievement. Therefore, it is suggested that as a possible solution to this problem, the Iranian Education Organization modify its current evaluation criterion of selecting the best schools, the best principals and the best teachers on the basis of the highest rate of their

students' success. For instance, instead of relying on the students' scores and success rates reported by their principals, the Education Organization can administer high-stakes standardized tests to all of the schools on the basis of whose results, the most successful schools can be chosen. In this way, teachers might not be positioned in such ethically conflicting situations where they would like to get promotion and rewards on the one hand, and they want to be fair to all of their students by attempting not to violate the rights of those who are really competent and knowledgeable and who deserve to be passed, on the other.

Trying to find out some of the conditions contributing to the conflicts between imposed authority demands which is an approximately prevalent conflicting element in the context of Iran and teacher needs and basic values, the researcher investigated some of the reasons why the principals made English teachers pass all of the students. The reasons mentioned in the incidents were as follows: in order not to jeopardize the good reputation of the school and its staff, to decrease the school's expenditure by not repeating the exam in September (Shahrivar), to encourage more people to register their children in those schools, and to receive promotion and rewards from the Education Organization because of the high success rate of the students. Additionally, it was found that even though Iranian EFL teachers are aware of and do their best to reconcile ethical conflicts they encounter, rarely are they empowered enough to do so. They need to be supported by powerful authorities in order to be able to challenge principals' demands when they feel that they are unethical and unfair. This is an issue worthy of consideration because as stated by Colnerud (2006, p. 379), "teachers who refer to moral conflicts between taking the pupil into consideration and taking the institution or colleagues into consideration are pointing to a moral phenomenon which is worth taking seriously".

In conclusion, it is worth mentioning that the results of the present study are not definite because of its limitations, the most important of which is its small sample size (N = 49), which was chosen only from one city of Iran (Shiraz). Additionally, all of the participants were public school teachers. It is suggested that future research be conducted in other cities of Iran, in private institutes in addition to public schools, and also in other parts of the world in order for the researchers to portray a complete picture of the ethical dilemmas faced by teachers all over the world. However, this study can pave the way for more pieces of research regarding ethics in testing and ethical conflicts in classroom assessment of students.

REFERENCES

Airasian, P. (2005). *Assessment in the classroom: A concise approach* (2nd ed.). Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill Company.

Bachman, L. F. (1990). *Fundamental considerations in language testing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bachman, L. F. (2000). Modern language testing at the turn of the century: Assuring that what we count counts. *Language Testing, 17*(1), 1-42.

Colnerud, G. (1997). Ethical conflicts in teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 13*, 627–635.

Colnerud, G. (2006). Teacher ethics as a research problem: Syntheses achieved and new issues. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice, 12*(3), 365–385.

Davies, A. (1997). Introduction: The limits of ethics in language testing. *Language Testing, 14*(3), 235-241.

Green, S. K., Johnson, R. L., Kim, D. H., & Pope, N. S. (2007). Ethics in classroom assessment practices: Issues and attitudes. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 23*, 999–1011.

Haladyna, T. (1992). Test score pollution: Implications for limited English proficient students. *Proceedings of the Second National Research Symposium on Limited English Proficient Student Issues: Focus on Evaluation and Measurement, 2,* 135–163. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs.

Hamp-Lyons, L. (2000). Social, professional, and individual responsibility in language testing. *System, 28*, 579-591.

Impara, J. C., Plake, B. S., & Fager, J. J. (1993). Educational administrators' and teachers' knowledge of classroom assessment. *Journal of School Leadership, 3*, 510–521.

Messick, S. A. (1989). Validity. In R. Linn (Ed.), *Educational measurement* (2nd ed., pp. 13–103). Washington: American Council on Education.

Plake, B., & Impara, J. (1997). Teacher assessment literacy: What do teachers know about assessment? In G. Phye (Ed.), *Handbook of classroom as-*

sessment: Learning, achievement, and adjustment (pp. 53-58). San Diego: Academic Press.

Pope, N., Green, S. K., Johnson, R. L., & Mitchell, M. (2009). Examining teacher ethical dilemmas in classroom assessment. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 25*, 778–782.

Spolsky, B. (1981). Some ethical questions about language testing. In C. Klein-Braley & D. K. Stevenson (Eds.), *Practice and problems in language testing* (pp. 5-21). Frankfurt, Germany: Peter D. Lang.

Stiggins, R. J. (1999). Evaluating classroom assessment training in teacher education programs. *Educational Measurement: Issues and Practice, 18*(1), 23–27.

Taylor, K., & Nolen, S. (2005). *Classroom assessment: Supporting teaching and learning in real classrooms*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education, Inc.

REFLECTIVE TEACHING AS ALTERNATIVE ASSESSMENT IN TEACHER EDUCATION: A CASE STUDY OF PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS

Gusti Astika
(gustiastika@yahoo.com)

Universitas Kristen Satya Wacana, Indonesia
Jalan Diponegoro, Salatiga 50711, Indonesia

Abstract: Critical reflective teaching has been a goal of English teacher preparation program. Although many English educators have promoted and carried out reflective teaching in their methodology courses, success of such practice has been limited, not sufficiently reflecting what has been desired. Questions have been raised whether reflective teaching within pre-service English teacher education is a realistic aim. One argument for this has been: reflective teaching can only be learned by beginning teachers working in schools with experienced teachers who value critical reflection. This article examines 40 journals of teaching reflection produced by 40 pre-service English teachers after they completed teaching practicum in schools over a period of three months. The journals were analyzed using a theoretical model developed by Smith (2011) which encompasses different purposes with different forms of reflection: personal, interpersonal, contextual, and critical. The analysis shows that the teaching journals contained more reflection on the personal and contextual domains of teaching, indicating that the pre-service teachers were more concerned with the contextual aspects of teaching which influenced their practices in the classroom. It is recommended that a more balanced reflection be created as an alternative form of assessment in English teacher education involving personal as well as social aspects of teaching.

Keywords: reflection, assessment, teaching practicum

Reflective teaching from teaching experience is viewed as a significant component of English teacher education and it is a crucial part of English teacher training program. Teaching practice program, which is one component in teacher training program, is specially designed to provide the students with the opportunity to put into practice the theories and principles they have learned in the program as they come into contact with real classroom situations in host schools. Besides teaching activities, student teachers are involved in other professional activities in the schools such as doing administrative work during office hours, supervising students' activities, and counseling work related to (English) study problems that students at the host schools are facing. These other responsibilities are part of teacher roles in schools, and student teachers need to be exposed to such tasks which are important factors that may be useful to them as future English teachers. This is an essential training experience that can develop their pedagogical skills and may help shape their perceptions about teaching. With teaching practice, student teachers develop relationship with mentor teachers, students, and other administrative staff at the host schools; an experience that student teachers cannot have at the university.

This study explores teaching reflections that student teachers wrote at the end of their teaching practice program at some host schools. The results and information of their teaching reflections should enable teacher educators to be sensitive to problems and realities that student teachers face at host schools which may serve as inputs to develop assessment of English education program as a whole, particularly those courses related to teaching methodology. This study may also be useful to the English teachers and the management of the host schools whose tasks in teaching practicum program should involve not only developing the student teachers' teaching skills but also their soft skills that may affect teaching.

The significance of teaching practice for student teachers has been discussed extensively in many publications, among others are in Crookes (2003), Walsh & Elmslie (2005), and Simpson (2006). Teaching practice is a program when student teachers have the opportunity to link the theoretical knowledge they study and practical knowledge they encounter in the classroom with real students. Teaching real students should not be considered as a simple task; it is in reality very complex as indicated in some studies on student teachers who have completed their teaching practicum (Febriyanto, 2012; Priambodo, 2012). They investigated the teaching experiences of student teachers who had teaching practicum in some high schools in Salatiga. Their studies reveal, among

others, the problems of material selection with regard to difficulty levels, student interests, and their learning pace. These difficulties were often confounded with student motivation in learning English and classroom management.

The importance of teaching practice as a way to connect theoretical knowledge and authentic practical teaching practices have been discussed in Grandall (1994) and Johnson (1996). Other studies such as that by Hascher, Concard, and Moser (2004) reveal that teaching practice helps student teachers to acquire professional knowledge and form their perceptions as classroom teachers.

A lot of literature has also focused on the critical role of the mentor teacher at host schools to help student teachers develop their pedagogical knowledge and skills. Mentor teachers help student teachers to develop their view about teaching careers (Feiman-Nemser, 2001) and notice the relationship between what to teach (subject content) and how to teach it (Ball, 2000). Other research has pointed out that rapport building between student teachers and mentor teachers at schools can occur during teaching practice supervision (Beck & Kosnik, 2002), while Ferrier-Kerr (2009) states that professional development of student teachers can begin at teaching practice with the supervision of the mentor teachers at host schools. The role of schools to the success of teaching practice, the perceptions, and teaching experiences that student teachers have about teaching practice has also been discussed (Febriyanto, 2012; Priambodo, 2012). My personal interviews with student teachers reveal that the school and the mentor teachers have a key role in the model of teaching developed during the teaching practice rather than the models of teaching promoted during their study in methodology courses at the university. The same case was also revealed in Kelly's study (1993) showing that "…the majority of the conceptions of teaching developed during the practicum are based on the school's practices and procedures rather than models of teaching promoted in university or college classes" (p.197). In other words, there is a gap between what is learned at courses in classrooms and what is demanded by the reality of teaching practices at the host schools.

Teaching reflection in this study is an integral part of teaching practice completed by the end of the teaching practice program. This task is essential because it reflects an awareness of what student teachers have done as a reflection of their knowledge construction process during teaching practice. According to Mezirow (1998), critical reflection is essential especially if it involves human communication such as what happens in classroom communication be-

tween the teacher and students. Although the validity of teaching reflection by student teachers is arguable (Cochran-Smith, 1991; Calderhead, 1992), it should be thought of as an integral part of teacher education and this task should be designed under the guidance and supervision of more experienced teachers who promote reflective teaching at the host schools. In the context of language education, teaching reflection should be perceived as a way of improving teaching skills of student teachers (Barnett, 1994) because it includes planning of teaching, its implementation, and evaluation (Kolb, 1984); therefore, teaching reflection should be perceived as a personal learning process to develop professional teaching practice (Bleakley, 1999). Teaching reflection can also serve as feedback to the teaching practice program (Allan, 1991) because it describes the student teachers' perceptions about the teaching and learning in the classroom, their relationship with the students, faculty, and broader school context which may influence their practice in the classrooms.

Drawing from the literature, Smith (2011) describes four domains of critical reflection across healthcare professionals which, in my view, are relevant to language teaching. Studies on critical reflection in ELT such as reading skill (Chau & Cheng, 2012) or classroom talk (Thawaite & Rivallland, 2009) are available but their framework cannot be used to investigate teaching reflection in teaching practicum. Smith (2011) has proposed four domains of reflection as illustrated in Figure 1; those four domains are: (1) Personal domain which involves thoughts and action; (2) Interpersonal domain which involves interactions with others; (3) Contextual domain which involves concepts, theory and methods; and (4) Critical domain which involves ethical and social contexts.

In language teaching, personal domain involves one's own perception of teaching skills, judgments of teaching practice, reactions to what is happening during teaching in relation to student language or student behavior during learning. In other words, this domain describes personal reflection of teaching and learning activities in the classroom. Meanwhile, interpersonal domain describes relationship with others such as students, teachers at schools, or the school principals. The quality of relationship with others at the host schools may have an important impact to the teaching performance of student teachers. Examination of interpersonal relationship and interaction during teaching practicum may help to reveal the school norms or expectations during the practicum program. Another aspect of interpersonal domain is group dynamics such as discussion about teaching with other student teachers or the mentor teachers at the host school. Group dynamics may influence decision making in

teaching practice. Then, the third domain refers to examination of teaching concepts, theories, and methods that form or influence teaching and learning activities in the classroom. It involves reflections of professional knowledge that is realized in classroom practice. Reflection within this domain may show how methods and techniques might have been different if alternative ways had been used. This type of teaching reflection aims to show concerns about the realization of teaching skills, knowledge, and theories in classroom practice. Finally, the fourth domain describes limitations that may be placed or brought into teaching practice such as ethical, social, cultural, or political issues. These limitations may impact student teachers' teaching performance. Critical reflection may involve questions such as form of politeness, appropriateness of language behavior or academic culture that may help or hinder teaching practice

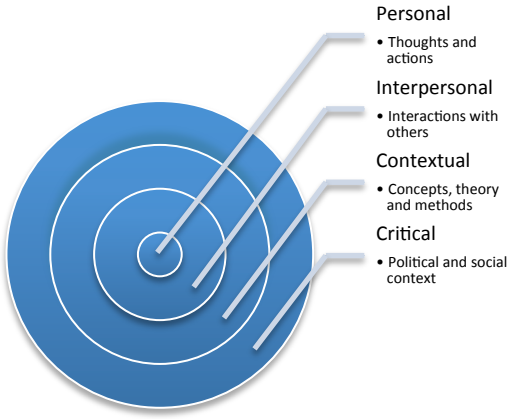

Figure 1. Domains of Critical Reflection (adapted from Smith, 2011)

As can be seen in the figure, the most inner circle is the personal domain, and the outer circles cover broader contexts. Teaching reflection may reveal any of these domains showing different dimensions of perceptions, evaluation, or judgments.

The teaching practicum at the Faculty of English Language Education program, where this study was carried out, is a required course in which the students will be able to apply their knowledge that they have learned in their courses aimed at preparing well-trained English teachers. It is a 4-credit hour

course which the students register for in the fourth year of their undergraduate study. They are required to be at the host schools, junior or senior high schools, for approximately three months under the supervision of the mentor teachers at the host schools and a lecturer from the faculty. This program is undertaken after the students have completed a certain number of methodology courses as pre-requisites for the teaching practicum program.

At the beginning of the program, the student teachers are sent to host schools in town. The schools, then, appoint an English teacher as a mentor teacher for the whole program. The first task of the student teachers in the practicum is to observe their mentor teachers teach in their classrooms at least twice and then have a discussion with the teacher after the observation. The second requirement is to do peer observation four times and then have a discussion of the lesson, and finally they start teaching on their own. Observing the teacher will give the student teachers some ideas of how to deal with the students at the school, their level, the classroom interaction and teaching tips. Peer observation can provide opportunities to student teachers to view each other's teaching in order to expose them to different teaching styles and to provide opportunities for critical reflection on their own teaching. The student teachers are assessed by their academic supervisor and the mentor teachers who serve as mentors and assessors. The schools in which the student teachers are placed are both public and private schools. The majority of the teachers in these schools are experienced teachers who have taught English for at least 10 years.

As part of the Teaching Practicum program, each student teacher should reflect on his/her own teaching skill development by keeping a teaching journal that should be written immediately after each teaching session. The journal is then consulted to the mentor teacher for individual consultation to improve the student teachers' teaching skills. The comments will also help the student teachers in re-writing the teaching journalswhich will be included in the teaching portfolio at the end of the program. Another important component of the student teaching experiences is a group reflection. Student teachers as a group in one host schoolare assigned to write a description of experiences in the respective school site. Each student teacher is expected to contribute ideas or teaching experiences to be compiled together with those of the other student teachers into one group reflection report. This Group Reflection is shared in a discussion with the mentor teachers before the official end of the program. Both individual and group reflection are expected to reflect experiences in lesson planning, material development, classroom activities, classroom assess-

ment, classroom management, and other issues in the school during the program. The reflection may also contain relevant ideas from current literature in language teaching and learning.

The Faculty of English Language Education at my university encourages improvement and evaluation of its program in order to produce desirable profile of its graduates as English language teachers as described in the Faculty Handbook. Therefore, evaluation of the implementation of the curriculum is carried out continuously in order to obtain information that is useful for the improvement of the education program. As has been pointed out above, the student teachers are required to produce teaching reflection at the completion of the teaching practicum program. Based on the theoretical framework for critical reflection proposed by Smith (2011), this study is aimed to answer the following question, "What issues did the student teachers write in their teaching reflection with respect to personal, interpersonal, contextual, and critical domain of teaching?" The aim of the study was to explore the students' teaching reflection during their teaching practicum in their respective host schools. It is hoped that the information from this study could provide the teaching practicum program with useful information which may feed into the assessment of the program.

METHOD

This study did not use the research instrument that is commonly employed in qualitative or quantitative studies such as a questionnaire or interview questions. Instead, the students were informed at the beginning of the program to study the Teaching Practicum Handbook which, among others, had the description, objective, and instructions for writing teaching reflection about 500 to 600 words long. The written reflection should contain descriptions of experiences in designing materials, lesson plans, classroom activities and class management. It should also have some description of other issues encountered during teaching practice or relevant ideas from current literature in language teaching and learning. The participants of the study were 13 male and 22 female student teachers who were taking the course in the second semester of the 2011-2012 academic year. These students conducted their teaching practicum in eight secondary schools which were selected on the basis of their availability and close distance to the university. In addition to the teaching practicum, the students

were also taking other courses at the university toward the completion of their degree program.

Nvivo software program was used to analyze qualitative data. Using the facility in Nvivo, the data (students' teaching reflection) were coded for the four domains (personal, interpersonal, contextual, critical) proposed by Smith (2011). His framework has a broad perspective of reflection which aims to guide students to think more holistically rather than to only reproduce facts or practices that happened in the classroom. The next step was to classify the coded texts which belonged to the same category. Then, the last step for the analysis was to record the important information in the student teachers' reflection in tables for interpretation.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Using the Nvivo software program, this study has identified four general domains from the teaching reflection personal (41%), interpersonal (5%), contextual (49%), and critical domains (5%). For better visual representation, the four domains in the teaching reflection are presented in Figure 2 below.

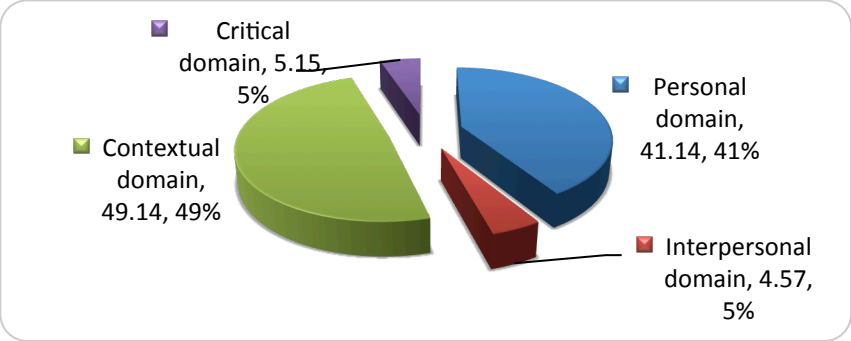

Figure 2. Four Domains in the TeachingReflection

As can be seen in the figure, the students' teaching reflection focused more on the contextual and personal domains of teaching, while interpersonal and critical domains of teaching seemed to be less important. It appears that the students were more concerned with their judgments, reactions, and teaching behavior in relation to the teaching and learning processes in the classroom and

how the classroom contexts affected, determined, or influenced their teaching practice. The other two aspects (domains) of teaching, interpersonal and critical aspects, may not have been part of their teaching agenda at this stage of teaching experience. The following section provides a detailed description of the students' teaching reflection selected on the bases of the (relative) importance of issues in teaching and learning in the classroom. In other words, the inclusion of issues in the tables was not based on quantitative decisions.

Domains of teaching reflection

The following sections describe the student teachers' experiences and concerns during the program which are presented in tables to portray a quick picture of their reflections. Table 1 shows how the student teachers felt about teaching practice, what they learned, and what they evaluated or assessed during teaching practice. Table 1 reveals the students' judgments and perception about their teaching practice within the personal domain of teaching. As can be seen in the table, there were three themes that emerged from the personal domain of the reflection: how they feel about teaching practice, what they learn from teaching practice, and what they evaluate or assess during teaching practice. One student teacher, student A, expressed his feeling about the first day of teaching,

> Many friends seem to be very calm facing their first teaching, but not for me. Today was my first day teaching the real students. I think today was the worst day that I ever had since I was welcomed by noisy students. It made me feel very nervous.

Nervousness was experienced by most student teachers due to their first day teaching assignments. However, there were students such as student B, who did not feel nervous with some experiences of public speaking, as written in one reflection,

> I was teaching the seven and eight grade of junior high school on my first time teaching. I didn't feel nervous when I had to teach for the first time, maybe because I used to speak in front of many people, but I just worried about whether I can teach my students well or not. Support from teachers and friends is very helpful for me to keep confident.

The reflection of student B points to the importance of student extra-curricular programs in which they can develop their speaking skills and confidence before they are ready for teaching practicum. The students' reflections within this domain also contain evidence of soft skill development; that is learning how to respect others, as revealed in student C's reflection,

> I learned to be more communicative when teaching by asking my other friends who were teaching, I learned to respect the elder [school teachers] and I learned to hold responsibility when I was teaching students.

These statements show their awareness and important issues in their experience as 'teachers'. These points were indicators of their active role in thinking about their practice and evaluating what they learned from teaching practicum. They drew on their own understanding of how it felt to be pre-service teachers undertaking teaching practicum in schools. The statements in Table 1 were proofs of their struggles with professional expectation and their affective needs at the start of teaching practicum. The statements provided evidence for specific areas in which they were experiencing gain in teaching skills.

Table 1. Personal Domain of Teaching Reflection

Personal domain	Issues identified
How they feel about teaching practice	Feel nervous on first day of teaching Become patient after teaching Become confident after teaching Feel happy working with the mentor teacher Feel worried about their ability to teach Become aware that teaching is demanding Feel doubtful whether or not they can become good teachers Feel grateful to have the experience to teach Feel the need to learn more about teaching

Personal domain	**Issues identified**
What they learn from teaching practice	Improvement of teaching skills Understand students' characteristics Class management Respect students, peers, and teachers at the school Appreciate improvement and cooperation with teachers Significance or importance of AVA Develop relationship with school staff Understand students' needs for learning Understand school regulations
What they evaluate or assess during teaching practice	Explanation of materials for students Their pronunciation as 'teachers' Students' pace of learning Teaching preparation Effects of teaching techniques on student learning Differences between micro teaching and real teaching Difficulties of being 'teachers' Development or progress of becoming teacher The need for conducive classroom atmosphere The significance of teacher's voice Students' attitudes in class

As displayed in Figure 1, the interpersonal domain ranked the lowest (5%), indicating infrequent contacts or interaction between pre-service teachers and mentor teachers or other school staff. Their interactions with mentor teachers were limited to discussions about teaching preparations and assessment of their teaching performance. Their infrequent contact with mentor teachers and other people at the host schools could have been due to their concern on personal issues; how they felt when teaching, what they learned, or assessment of their teaching practice. The need for positive, personal, and professional relationships with the mentor teachers and other school staff might not have been viewed as a factor that could ensure success of teaching experience. Indeed, close cooperation and good relationship with mentor teachers could play a significant role to promote their motivation as future teachers and gain professional benefits from the teaching practicum (Shohbani, 2012).

Table 2 shows the issues identified within the interpersonal domain of teaching reflection. It is interesting to discover in their teaching reflections that one student teacher considered term of address as an important means to create favorable interaction during teaching, as can be seen in the excerpt below,

> For the first time before I introduced myself, the students called me *Mbak* . I did not feel comfortable to be called *Mbak* in school. So, I told them to call me *Miss* not *Mbak*, then they practiced it when they met me in the school. The way they called me also influenced the interaction between I and the students. The students and I had good interaction when they called me *Miss* because it sounds proper.

The students' first language; Javanese, could have been the reason for using the term of address to young student teachers or the students may not know the term in English.

Table 2. Interpersonal Domain of Teaching Reflection

Interpersonal domain	Issues identified
How they relate to mentor teachers and students	Reviewing teaching performance Discussing language aspects in teaching Planning classroom management Designing lesson plans Talking about terms of address used by the students

Careful examination of the students' teaching reflection reveals that most of the student teachers were happy with their teaching experience in spite of nervousness and worries they had at the beginning of teaching practicum. They devoted a lot of time to prepare lessons such as writing lesson plans, selecting appropriate audio visual aids and adapting them for different classes, and designing interactive classroom activities. Material preparations and classroom management planning appeared to be the most important aspects of their teaching practicum, which was why issues about contextual domain (Table 3) were found to be the most frequent (49%) in their reflections as displayed in Figure 1. The pedagogical role of audio visual aids, teaching materials, as well as the need to attend to students' individual differences could have been their major concern to create good teaching and practices in the classroom. This is proven

in the way they try to secure the students' attention to the lesson. Three student teachers wrote the following:

1. The students were interested if I gave them games in the lesson. It was better if I also gave them prize like candies or snacks in answering questions and also they could compete each other.
2. In the fifth teaching, I was able to handle the class. The students were enthusiastic, because I promised them to give a prize to them. They were motivated when I taught the lesson. They asked if they didn't understand. They were active in class activities.
3. The students who could answer the question got a chocolate from me. And like the previous class, the students were more enthusiastic while they played the game which had a prize.

These reflection excerpts show that prizes and chocolate were used to promote students' motivation which has an important role in learning especially to students at the beginning level whom the student teachers were assigned to teach.

Table 3. Contextual Domain of Teaching Reflection

Contextual domain	Issues identified
How concepts, theories, and methods affect teaching practice	Use of AVA to engage students, promote motivation, develop relationship. Too concerned with finishing materials at the expense of learning. Effects of student characteristics on teaching Learners' learning styles and control of behavior Use of prizes, jokes, stories, pictures to motivate students and get them interested in the lesson.

The critical domain also ranked low (5%) in the students' teaching reflections besides interpersonal domain, indicating that this domain was not (yet) a focus of the student teachers in the teaching practicum. Although the issues identified within this domain (Table 4) appear to be beyond method and can become a 'potential danger' (Freire, 1985), that is a possible source of students to lose interests and motivation to learn in class, the student teachers in this study did not seem to consider it as an important element of professional skill

and development, or they might not be aware that this domain was important in their training. According to Mauthner and Doucet (2003), critical reflection of teaching should describe explicitly any ethical or social issue that may have had an impact to classroom practices. This is an area that the student teachers in this study were lacking and, therefore, this aspect was described insufficiently by a few student teachers.

Table 4. Critical Domain of Teaching Reflection

Critical domain	Issues identified
How ethical or social issues affect teaching and learning in class	Tired students after sports activities Late students after the break Demanding assignment by the school Unfamiliar with students' L1 Cancelled classes due to death in a family

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

The findings of the current study showed that the student teachers were more concerned with their personal perceptions and judgments (personal domain) and teaching performance (contextual domain). Nevertheless, there were very few accounts that appeared in their reflections pertaining to interpersonal and critical domains.

Based on the results of this study, for assessment purposes, more attention should be given to interpersonal aspects of teaching practicum. The teaching practicum program needs to stimulate the students' awareness about the crucial role of mentor teachers, other school personnel, as well as the students at the host schools. Supervision by mentor teachers is indeed beneficial. It is an individual professional relationship in which the student teachers and mentor teachers can work together to prepare well-trained future teachers. The supervisory role of the mentor teacher can instill positive attitude to the teaching profession, which may in the short or long run lead the student teachers to choose a teaching career.

Another professional issue identified in the students' reflection was the different cultural and educational background of the mentor teachers and student teachers that often caused different expectations about teaching styles, language use, and interaction with students in the classroom. This, to a certain extent, was restraining the student teachers' practices in the classroom. The su-

pervisory role of the mentor teachers necessitates the student teachers to follow the model and teaching style suggested by the mentor teachers in spite of the different beliefs of the student teachers about teaching and learning as a result of their education at the university. This is perhaps the most difficult challenge faced by the student teachers during their practicum. A logical step toward narrowing the gap is perhaps to create the opportunity for both the mentor teachers and student teachers to frequently meet and discuss any issue related to the critical domain of teaching practicum.

REFERENCES

Allan, D. (1991). Tape journals: Bridging the gap between communication and correction. *ELT Journal*, *45*(1), 61-66. doi:10.1093/elt/45.1.61.

Ball, D. (2000). Bridging practices–intertwining content and pedagogy in teaching and learning to teach. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *51*(3), 241-247.

Barnett, R. (1994). *The limits of competence, knowledge, higher education and society*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Beck, C., & Kosnik, C. (2002). Components of a good practicum placement: Student teacher perceptions. *Education Quarterly*, *Spring*, 81-89.

Bleakley, A. (1999). From reflective practice to holistic reflexivity. *Studies in Higher Education*, *12*(3), 315-330.

Calderhead, J. (1992). The role of reflection in learning to teach. In L. Valli (Ed.), *Reflective teacher education: Cases and critiques* (pp. 139-146). Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Chau, J., & Cheng, G. (2012). Developing Chinese students' reflective second language learning skills in higher education. *The Journal of Language Teaching and Learning*, *2*(1), 15-32.

Cochran-Smith, M. (1991) Learning to teach against the grain. *Harvard Educational Review*, *61*(3), 279-310.

Crookes, G. (2003). *A practicum in TESOL: Professional development through teaching practice*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Feiman-Nemser, S. (2001). Helping novices learn to teach: Lessons from an exemplary support teacher. *Journal of Teacher Education, 52*(1), 17-30.

Ferrier-Kerr, J. L. (2009). Establishing professional relationships in practicum settings. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 25*(6), 790-797.

Febriyanto, I. (2012). *Pre-service teacher attitudes, experiences and needs toward teaching English after teaching practice in senior high schools* (Unplublished Bachelor's thesis, Satya Wacana Christian University, Salatiga, Indonesia).

Freire, P. (1985). *The politics of education: Culture, power and liberation*. London: Macmillan.

Grandall, J. (1994). Strategic integration; preparing language and content teachers linguistically and culturally diverse classrooms. In J. E. Atalis (Ed.), *Strategic interaction and language acquisition: Theory, practice, and research* (pp. 255-274). Washington DC: Georgetown University Press.

Hascher, T., Cocard, Y., & Moser, P. (2004). Forget about theory – practice is all student teachers' learning in practicum. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*. *10*(6), 623-637. doi:10.1080/1354060042000304800.

Johnson, K. E. (1996). The vision versus the reality: the tensions of the TESOL practicum. In D. Freeman & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *Teacher learning in language teaching* (pp. 30-49). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kelly, K. M. (1993). *Beginning teacher conceptions of teaching: An ethnographic study spanning the first three years of work* (Unpublished Master's thesis, University of New England, Australia).

Kolb, D. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. London: Prentice Hall.

Mauthner, H., & Doucet, A. (2003). Reflexive accounts and accounts reflexivity in qualitative data analysis. *Sociology, 37*, 413-431. doi:10.1177/00380385030373002.

Mezirow, J. (1998). On critical reflection. *Adult Education Quarterly, 48*(3), 185-198.

Priambodo, T. (2012). *Pre-service teacher attitudes, experiences and needs toward teaching English after teaching practice in junior high schools* (Unpublished Bachelor's thesis, Satya Wacana Christian University, Salatiga, Indonesia).

Simpson, M. (2006) Field experience in distance delivered initial teacher education programmes. *Journal of Technology and Teacher Education, 14*(2), 241-254.

Smith, E. (2011). Teaching critical reflection. *Teaching in Higher Education,16*(2), 211-223.

Thwaite, A. & Rivalland, J. (2009). How can analysis of classroom talk help teachers reflect on their practices? *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy*, *38*(1), 38-54.

Walsh, K., & Elmslie, L. (2005) Practicum pairs: an alternative for first field experience in early childhood teacher education. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education, 33*(1), 5-21.

UPON THE PREVALENCE OF ENGLISH ON BILLBOARD ADVERTISEMENTS: ANALYZING THE ROLE OF ENGLISH IN INDONESIAN CONTEXTS[1]

Anna Marietta da Silva
(anna.silva@atmajaya.ac.id)

Atma Jaya Catholic University of Indonesia
Jl. Jenderal Sudirman 51, Jakarta 12930

Abstract: Looking at the frequently used English words on billboard ads in Jakarta main streets, one may have a presumptive thought that English will dominate Indonesian language. The assumption, though, has led to the analysis of the role of both languages on billboard ads and the possibility of English control over Indonesian. The study presented purposive language uses. English, regardless of its incorrect use, was associated with the Indonesian modern, urban and youth's lifestyle, hence the prestigious status of English. On the other hand, Indonesian and its dialects, particularly the Betawi-Indonesian, are employed to cover wider and broader range of audience. Indonesian language is a national identity of Indonesians, and has historically gained highest status among hundreds of local languages in Indonesia. Thus, in spite of the presence of English in Indonesian language use, the former will not diminish the latter. As a matter of fact, the two languages serve different types of readers.

Keywords: language choice, bilingualism, billboard ads

1. Part of the article has been presented in the 60th Teflin Conference, August 26, 2013, University of Indonesia, Depok, Indonesia.

For more than a century English has been used as a medium to advertise products of the industrialized countries, particularly USA (Crystal, 2006; Piller, 2003). Being the most economically and politically powerful country in the 20th century, it is the most determined country marketing their products all over the world post World War 2 (Romaine, 2006); hence the full or 'dominant' use of English in their advertisements. Even Indonesia, a country of 237,641,326 in habitants (*Badan Pusat Statistik*, 2010) and over 700 local languages (SIL International Indonesian Branch, 2006), seems to be unable to avoid the great use of English through the medium of printed, electronic and virtual media, and in communications among the middle class in urban cities, and the effect it produces regardless of the linguistic fact that most Indonesians do not speak English (Sneddon, 2003), hence the Expanding Circle (Kachru, 2005). Such situation seems to create a paradox: on the one hand, English has no official status, but on the other hand English is used widely in public areas and for public consumption, e.g. in the press and advertisements (Sneddon, 2003, p. 179).

Consequently, English borrowing and code-switching has become common linguistic phenomena among Indonesian speakers. Sneddon (2003) notes that the incidents of English borrowing and code-switching take place as a result of the increasing contact with English due to the raising number of Indonesian scholars especially those from the University of Indonesia and Bandung Institute of Technology who were sent to study in English speaking countries such as the USA and UK. In addition, since 1966 there has been an increase in international communication between the Indonesian officials and elites via international seminars, conferences and meetings abroad or in Indonesia where English is used as a means of communication. Besides, as Indonesian government has promoted foreign business investment as part of the nation's economic development program, Indonesians had more contact with English through business cooperation with multinational companies, predominantly USA. It is not surprising to find more and more English words used in printed media, including in leading Indonesian newspaper like *Kompas*, as well as other newspapers and magazines that belong to many other newspapers and magazines in the country. Thus, in the context of Indonesian language, English has several functions, i.e. gaining prestige, raising one's social status, and getting future jobs. Hence, Indonesian has borrowed many English words in various fields, e.g. in sport, culture, science, politics, technology, and medical.

Borrowing involves the use of lexical item(s) of one language in the utterance or sentence of another language (Romaine, 1995, p. 56). She further points out that borrowing may be done by even a monolingual because of the absence of certain words or phrases in one language, e.g. cultural activities, food, dress, institutions, and concept. Nevertheless, the idea cannot always apply to all occurrences because in many cases monolingual or bilingual speakers still do borrowing or code-switching despite knowing the equivalent words or phrases in their language. Therefore, they may borrow or code-switch for prestige or serving particular needs. Hence, there are some categories of borrowing (Romaine, 1995): (1) loanwords, or the original form of words in one language that are used in another language, e.g. English lexical items *chatting, e-mail,* and *hand phone* used heavily by Indonesians; (2) loanblends which shows that there is a part of the words in in one language used with another part another language, e.g. Indonesian-English loanblends *di emailkan saja, diattach,* and *cocok dimix match*; (3) loanshift, which means " ... taking a word in the base language and extending its meaning so that it corresponds to that of a word in the other language", e.g. Portuguese *grosseria,* meaning 'rude remark,' was taken from English *grocery store*, or German *magasin,* whose definition is storeroom, turns into English *magazine*; (4) coinage of new terms consisting of units in one language combined with another units in another language, e.g. Yiddish-English *mitkind* (pp. 56-58).

Code switching is a language behavior, a characteristic of a bilingual, in which the bilingual inserts words, phrases or sentences of one language to another language (Attarriba & Morier, 2006; Edwards, 2006; MacSwan, 2006). In that case, one language is primarily used and another language is inserted to the previous one; hence the primary language is the matrix or base language (Grosjean, 2006; Meisel, 2006). Although it may not always be simple to discover and explain reasons for bilinguals to code switch, it is not a random bilingual behavior. In other words, there are certain patterns of code-switching (Attarriba&Morrier, 2006; MacSwan, 2006). Hence, Poplack (1980), as cited in Romaine (1995, pp. 122-123), classified code-switching into tag-switching, inter-sentential, and intra-sentential switching. While tag-switching "involves the insertion of a tag in one language into an utterance in the other language," in the intra-sentential switching the bilingual inserts a words, phrase, or clause in one language to a clause or sentence in another language, while the inter-sentential switching implies that there is a switch from one sentence in one language to another sentence in another language (cf. MacSwan, 2006, p. 283). In-

tra-sentential code-switching "may also include mixing within word boundaries" (Romaine, 1995, p. 123). To put it differently, embedding one or several phonemes of one language into a word in another language is also code-switching.

Advertisement, particularly the billboard advertisement, can provide a clear example on the use of the English borrowing and Indonesian-English code-switching with regard to business affairs. Advertising has been employed to serve various purposes from marketing products and services to people and campaigning solutions to the society's social and health problems (Belch & Belch, 2003). Thus, advertising is closely related to the economic growth of one society; the higher the purchasing power, the more goods manufactured and marketed (Hashim, 2010). Advertising, including billboard ads together with posters, pamphlets, brochures, then is seen as a very effective medium to market a product (Crystal, 2003; Hashim, 2010). Brands and the images created are therefore so important for both producers and advertisers that it must be formulated very carefully to avoid customers' rejection of the brand (de Asis, 2012), and can take priority over the product specification or qualification (Piller, 2003, p. 176). Only the brand that has unique images that will win the heart of the audience who are faced with so many options but "less time" to choose (Wirjan & Surya, 2012).

Research by Taylor, Franke and Bang (2006) showed that billboard ads, classified as outdoor advertising, were favored because they are easily seen and cost effective.Billboard could provide a very strong visual impression, and might lead to instant recall of the products' names. In addition, the ads might remain at the same places for days, weeks or even months so that it was very possible for the audience to have repetitive contacts with the brands and slogansthat would lead them to finally purchase the products advertised. In addition, billboard ads were preferable media of advertising since they were appropriate for an audience who were always on the move. Thus, despite the fact that they were static, billboard ads actually were able to 'catch' people's attention as long as they were designed based on the principle attention, interest, desire and action. A study by Balkafl, Akbulut, and Kartopu (2005) revealed that the success of billboard ads would be highly dependent upon the clear and easy-to-understand message.

Other studies, which will be presented below, have shown that English and other languages code-switching in advertisements have been proved to achieve some contextual economic goals. One of the reasons is the positive at-

titudes shared by the audience towards English (Chen, 2006; Hsu, 2008; Krishna & Ahluwalia, 2010). Chen (2006) studied Chinese-English code mixing in magazine ads in Taiwan, specifically in terms of morphology and syntax, and the readers' attitude towards the use of English words on the ads. She found that Taiwanese commonly shared positive attitudes towards English embedded into Chinese. The ads containing English was seen as a medium to learn the language, and created a more attractive impression so that the readers would feel less distant with English in their daily lives. English was also a sign of popularity, attraction, creativity, and internalization. Ads using English were considered able to evoke a strong impression and an easy recall. Her research also showed that the most frequently used English words in the ads were *Spa*, *e*, *easy*, *No. 1*, *VIP*, *DIY*, *M*, *bye (bye-bye)*, *fun*, and *ok,* and that English noun-phrases were mostly employed in the ads (48,5%). The study was supported by Hsu's (2008) research on the impact of the use of English in printed and electronic advertisements in Taiwan. She found that English was used because it created positive impressions. English was associated with globalization, good quality, middle-class life style, urban experience and modernity of the younger generation. The result was similar to Krishna and Ahluwalia's (2008) study. They studied the role of language choice: English, Hindi, or the mix of English and Hindi in advertising either necessities or luxury products. Their survey on the language attitude and preference indicated that the subjects shared positive attitudes both towards English and Hindi. While the former was associated with globalism, exclusivity, cosmopolitan, professionalism, prestige, and upper-class society, the later was related to family, closeness, sense of belonging, politeness, personal relationship, and middle-class society, but not upper-class society. The study suggested that the use of English and local language should consider the targeted market and product (cf. Hsu, 2008).

The other reason for using English frequently can be the global and cultural role of English (Martin, 2006). Studying various ads in France, she found out that French had both global and cultural perspectives towards global products advertised using English. Her study showed that the creative mix of French and English presented in product names, slogans, and signature lines in addition to borrowings and coinages led to the nativized and adjusted English to French. All of which reflected the fact that the combination of globalization and localization of both the products and languages could effectively create particular effects on the advertisements.

From the point of view of the advertisers, their choice of using English can be due to the production of modernity in the mind of the ads readers (Permanadeli & Tadié, 2012). The two researchers studied 100 ads of real-estate projects in the Indonesian printed media published from 2001 to 2011. The purpose of their research, framed within social representations and social geography, was to analyze the growth of Jakarta, presumably represented among others in media ads, and to determine whether the concept of modernity introduced by President Soekarno more than five decades ago still was still retained through the media ads. One of the symbolic features of modernity marked by the researchers was the intense use of English in the ads, as was proven by the study. Despite the fact that most of the ads' audience and market was Indonesians, 87% of the ads used English. Another interesting finding was that the more increasing use of English in ads started from President Soeharto's era when the President switched from the Dutch to the American for financial aid to develop Indonesia. Most importantly though, the researchers noted the advertisers made use of English to produce certain images and impressions within the mind of the so-called modern people, who would then share collective thoughts of being modern.

However, research also suggested that the non-native English audience preferred easy-to-understand English (Hornikx, van Meurs, & de Boer, 2010; Hsu, 2008). Studying the Dutch preference for English over Dutch ads of cars, Hornikx et al. (2010) highlighted that the Dutch preferred easy-to-understand English slogans to the Dutch. The difficult-to-understand English slogans were equally appreciated as those in Dutch. The study implied the choice of English words advertisers have to take into account when they wanted to advertise a product in a non-English speaking community (see also Hsu, 2008).

In Indonesian context, English is learned as a foreign language. It is therefore necessary to include the notion of 'learner language' when analyzing the English uttered by Indonesian speakers. Learner language is the language of those who learn another language beside their mother tongues (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p. 4). One of the focuses of learner language study is errors (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, pp. 15-30). Thus, learner language should be seen from the learners' not the native speakers' context (Corder, 1978, pp. 71-72). It is challenging to see whether or not errors occur in texts for public readership like billboard ads.

Billboard ads are classified into public signs as well as street signs, names of building, street direction, and names of shops (Landry & Bourhis, 1997).

Language appearing on public texts have been received much attention (Gorter, 2006). Studies on language used in public texts are known as linguistic landscape (Spolsky, 2009). In other words, linguistic landscape also indicates language used on texts in public areas where the texts are easily seen by public audience (Landry & Bourhis, 1997). Earlier research in linguistic landscape has presented the important role of English as a lingua franca among its native speakers and non-native speakers, as an international language, and as a status symbol (Backhaus, 2006; Ben-Rafael, et al., 2006; Huebner, 2006).

Of the above-mentioned earlier studies, there has been scarce research on the presence of English in Indonesian public spaces, particularly the billboard advertisements that advertise various products and services. Thus, in this study I investigate the use of English on billboard ads by: (1) comparing the number of billboard ads using English and Indonesian, and the number of English and Indonesian words employed; (2) recording any incidents of borrowings or code-switching; (3) presenting types of products that used English and those that preferred Indonesian; (4) surveying people's preference between the Indonesian and English slogans; (5) describing the main goals of using English, the errors in English being made; and the features of Indonesian language appeared on billboard ads. The purpose of the study is to analyze the reasons of the very frequent use of English in advertisements against the issue of preserving the Indonesian language; hence the competition between Indonesian and English, and the role of English in Indonesian context.

METHOD

The study adopts sociolinguistics approach, in particular the linguistic landscape (Backhaus, 2006; Huebner, 2006), and second language approach, specifically the learner language (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). The following variables are used to analyze the data, i.e. type of language, prevalence of language in order of word number, type of products advertised, borrowings, code-switching and errors. The data for the research are 114 billboard ads collected in Jakarta and Greater Jakarta from November 2012 to January 2013, open-ended questionnaires to 90 respondents, and interviews with copy-writers of local and multinational advertising agencies. Convenient sampling is employed for practicality reasons, and descriptive statistical analysis is used for the questionnaires. After taking pictures of the billboard ads, I record and count all words used, and classify them into ads using English, Indonesian, and those

that mixed English with Indonesian. To find out the audience's preference between English and Indonesian, I give open-ended questions, which is a simplification of Hornikx et al.'s (2010) questionnaire on the ads preference. The questionnaires consist of four brands and their English slogans together with the Indonesian versions of the slogans for which the respondents have to select their preference and write the reasons briefly (Appendix 1). The brands chosen are those having short slogans and do not contain metaphors that would possibly lead to ambiguous Indonesian translation. Consequently, to verify the motives of employing English on the billboard ads, I interview four copy-writers who will be referred to as CW1, CW2, CW3, and CW4 in the presentation of the findings. Billboard ads are preferred than other media of ads as the former are assumed to be one of the most effective and efficient media to campaign a product (Taylor et al., 2006), hence their impact to the audience.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Findings

The one hundred-fourteen billboard ads campaigned various products which I classified based on the OED 8th Edition List of Topic (Table 1). Fifty percent of the whole ads were about business, which included manufactured products such as cars and cigarettes; services like banks and insurance companies; property such as houses and apartments; minimarket; and business expo. Meanwhile, another 18% marketed goods related to body and appearance;12% advertised products and or services with regards to science and technology; and 10% were ads about food and drink. Out of the ads collected, 83% (95 ads) were in English, in which 33% (38 ads) were in English and 50% (57 ads) mixed Indonesian with English (Figure 1). However, out of 1,402 words used in the ads, in which proper names were excluded, 821 words or 59% were in English (Figure 2), and 581 words or 41% were in Indonesian. The figures showed the collected billboard ads were dominated by English words.

Table 1. Classification of the Billboard Ads

No.	Products / Services	No of ads	%
1	Body and appearance	20	18%
2	Business	57	50%

No.	Products / Services	No of ads	%
3	Food and drink	11	10%
4	Health	2	2%
5	Science and technology	14	12%
6	Society	4	4%
7	Sports	3	3%
8	Travel and tourism	3	3%
	Total ads	114	100%

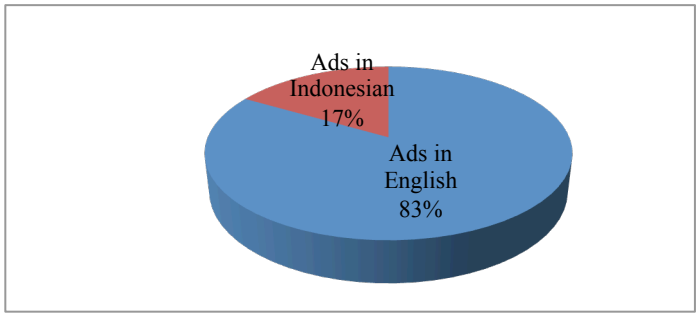

Figure 1. Comparison between Ads that Used English and Those that Used Indonesian

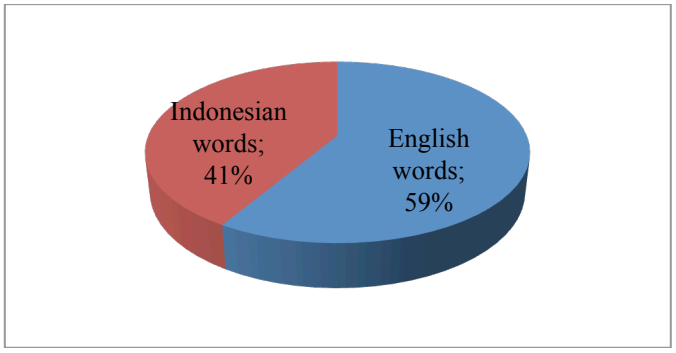

Figure 2. Comparison between the Number of English and Indonesian Words on the Ads

English was mostly used on the advertisements for product's names, slogans, and specification. Besides, English was employed for informing the audience about the types of products and services offered and any special programs as part of the propaganda or product promotion. On the other hand, Indonesian words were used for highlighting the advantages of the products or services advertised, or promoting any prizes provided by the producers. In addition, Indonesian words usually appeared in the end, informing about the available terms and conditions. Only few ads used Indonesians for slogans. In addition, most products that were related to body and appearance, business: banks and property, cars, and cigarettes, and science and technology employed English.

Interestingly, English was employed for products or services that are related to urban lifestyle, modernity, or youth's lifestyle. English appeared heavily if not wholly, in the ads that marketed products or services on body and appearance, e.g. beauty centers and fitness centers, business, e.g. restaurants, automobiles, banks, and science and technology, e.g. gadgets and electronic devices (Table 2). It is worth noting that the products or services mentioned in Table 2 are those that are not considered primary. In other words, they can be classified into luxuries, which are usually created after the basic needs have been fulfilled. It is a common knowledge that luxuries are meant to satisfy human's desires on things beyond the basics. Note that banks that advertised themselves in English are those whose segmented market is the upper-class society, e.g. *ANZ Bank, HSBC Bank*, and *BII* or *Bank International Indonesia* (as there are also banks that used Indonesian language). *Mandiri Bank*, though segmented for lower-class society, also advertised its product, i.e. *Mandiri Prioritas*, aimed at the upper-class, in English.

Table 2. Products/services that are Advertised in English Only

Products/services	Specification
Body & appearance	beauty centers
	sports center
Business	apartments
	banks
	cars
	cigarettes
	English courses

Products/services	**Specification**
	food
	furnitures
	hotels
	office buildings
	minimarket
	motorcycles
	restaurant
	recreational sites
	shopping centers
	water
Science & technology	gadgets
	electronic devices

Although Indonesian language was regularly used for products that are also related to body and appearance, business, society and science and technology, there were very obvious differences with regard to the types of products in comparison with those listed in Table 2 (see Table 3). For modern society nowadays cosmetic, sanitary napkin and shampoo are now categorized into primary needs. Compare those products with beauty centers and sports centers in the previous table which are not urgently needed. Also compare the banks advertising themselves in Indonesian language: *BRI* and *BTN*, whose target market is generally laymen; hence different language for different audience. Besides, advertisers frequently employed Indonesian language for food, e.g. *Sari Roti, KFC* or *Kentucky Fried Chicken,* and beverages such as *Coca Cola, Frestea, JasJus, Mizone* and *Pocari Sweat*. All of the ads had Indonesian slogans though not all products had Indonesian names. Moreover, big- chained hypermarkets like *Carrefour* and *Giant* also used Indonesian language, perhaps because most of their customers are Indonesian housewives. Probably English will be used for supermarkets or hypermarkets whose main customers are foreigners like *Kemchik* and *Sogo*. Indonesian was also used for advertising a political party and several public campaigns from an official institution like *Polda Metro Jaya* (Greater Jakarta Metropolitan Regional Police), *Kementerian In-*

formasi (Ministry of Information), *Kementerian Perhubungan* (Ministry of Transportation), and *Kementerian Energi dan Sumber Daya Manusia* (Ministry of Energy and Human Resources). Contrary to other gadgets like *Samsung,* and *Nokia,* and telecommunication providers like *Indosat,* and *Telkomsel* that commonly used English*, AXIS* used Indonesian.

Table 3. Products/services that are Advertised in Indonesian Only

Products/services	Specification
Body & appearance	cosmetic
	sanitary napkin
	shampoo
Business	banks
	beverage
	food
	supermarkets
	TV station
Society	sports event
	political party
	public warnings

Code mixing between Indonesian and English has not been a new phenomenon in Indonesian popular texts such as magazines and novels (see for example Rafiani, 2009; Amelia, 2012; Siregar, 2012), and certainly billboard advertisements. As I have previously pointed out in the first paragraph of this section, 50% of the ads contained either English borrowings, Indonesian-English or English-Indonesian code-switchings. As many as 29 ads (61%) had English borrowings, 15 (31%) used the inter-sentential code-switching, and only 4 (8%) employed the intra-sentential code-switchings (vide Figure 3). Sentences (1), (2), (3), and (4) showed the English borrowings; sentences (5), (6), (7) are examples of the inter-sentential code switching; and sentences (8), (9), and (10) the intra-sentential code switching. The borrowings and code-switchings are in in bold type face.

Bank BRI Untung Beliung Britama ads

(1) Tingkatkan saldo dan perbanyak transaksi ***e-banking***

AIA Insurance ads

(2) ***Family first protection,*** *asuransi jiwa yang berkembang sesuai tahapan hidup Anda*

Entrust Popok Dewasa ads

(3) ***Absolute comfort****, saatnya memberi yang terbaik untukmu mama dan papa*

Samsung TV ads

(4) *Jadi lebih seru dengan* ***motion control***

Erha Skin Center ads

(5) *Kulit kembali bersih bukan hanya bebas jerawat.* ***Meet your personal dermatologist.***

Taman sari Semanggi Apartment ads

(6) *Time to live in the heart of the city*. ***Dipasarkan area komersial***

QNB ads

(7) QNB *premium saving account tabungan yang banyak memberi keuntungan untuk Anda.* ***Call …***

Manulife ads

(8) *Untuk segala transaksi keuangan terpenting Anda percayakanlah pada Manulife* ***for your future investment, insurance, retirement.***

Mizone ads

(9) *Semangat lagi* ***k.o.****? Bantu semangat* ***o.k.*** *lagi*

Mustika Putri Kiss Spray Rose ads

(10) *Kemanapun kamu pergi dengan Mustika Putri Kiss Spray Rose,* ***it is always a flower journey****.*

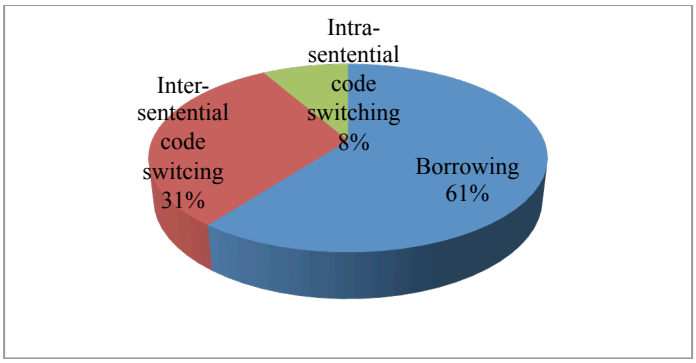

Figure 3. Percentage of English Borrowings and English-Indonesian or Indonesian-English Code-switchings on the Billboard Ads

Table 4. Products/services that are Advertised in Indonesian and English

Products/services	Specification
Body & appearance	cosmetic
	adult diaper
	sanitary napkin
	shampoo
	beauty center
Business	apartment
	bank
	beverage
	cars
	cigarettes
	food
	insurance
	minimarket& restaurant
Science & technology	TV
	cellular phone

With regard to the open-ended survey, out of 90 respondents, 59% were female. Their educational backgrounds varied: from primary to undergraduates. Their ages were in a range of 15 to 60 years old. In general, the respondents preferred English to Indonesian slogans. The respondents liked English better for slogans of *Fit Bar* (73%), *Yong Ma The Magic Blender* (79%), and *Mito S 300*(69%), but not *Djarum Super* (Figure 4). English was considered to be more attractive, marketable, convincing and simpler than the Indonesian slogans. In addition, the English slogans were considered to be more unique, stylish, classy, suitable to the product advertised, and had an easy recall. It is interesting to note, though, that Indonesian was more favorable for *Djarum Super* slogan as the respondents thought that the Indonesian slogan was more understandable, meaningful, suitable for Indonesian product, and gave an easy recall.

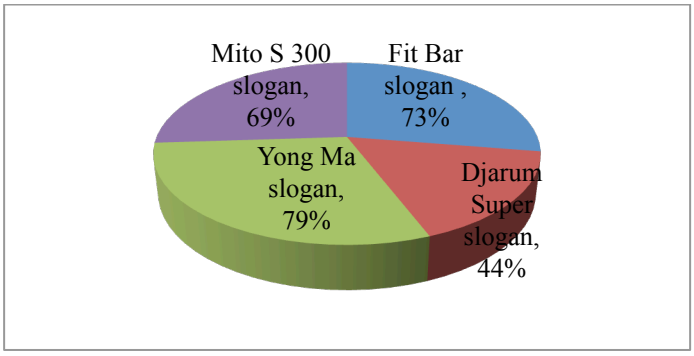

Figure 4. Percentage of the English Preference for the Four Ads Slogans

The interviews presented some facts about the use of English words in billboard ads. The use of English taglines on billboard ads in Indonesia depends on several factors (CW1; CW2; CW3). The first aspect is whether the product advertised is a multinational brand, or not. English is the medium to advertise a multinational brand (CW3; CW4). Another issue is about the segmented market. Products for urban young people, for example, generally use English because the internal research conducted by the advertisers showed that the urban youths viewed English as something 'cool', 'better' and 'idolized;' see for instance the ads of *7 to 11* ™ (Figure 5); hence the target market and the image of a brand or product (CW1). Those youths identified themselves with modernity, the Western culture, the English culture. English then has been

part of the youths' personal and cultural identification preference (CW2). Other examples are products for affluent people, who are highly educated, thus are competent in English, frequently travel abroad and communicate with foreigners in English (based on the internal survey of the ads agencies). So, the use of English clearly signifies that the brand or product advertised is for the higher class society, for instance the ads of *ANZ Bank*, a multinational bank, in comparison to *Bank Tabungan Negara* (*BTN*), a local bank, whose customers can be those of the middle to lower class society (Figure 6). Another example can be products related to information and technology whose technical terms are in English. Yet, the nature of billboard ads: their placement in highways and main streets in the heart of a city, and their readership: travelers, commuters, or passers-by passing the ads in merely seconds often motivates the producers and advertisers to use English, which is considered to be more efficient than Indonesian or both English and Indonesian. On the other hand, Indonesian language is used for products that are related to daily needs or gadgets whose price is affordable for middle to lower social class, and it should be the colloquial Indonesian so that the message would be easily and directly understood by the segmented market (CW1; CW4).

Figure 5. Sample of Billboard Ads for Young People

Figure 6. *ANZ* and *BTN* Billboard Ads

Despite the frequent use of English, errors cannot be avoided. Errors can be an indication of lack of knowledge or competence of a target language or the language learned in comparison with the native speakers (James, 1998, p. 63).

There are two types of errors: performance and competence errors. While the former happens because a speaker is fatigue or in a rush, the latter is due to "... inadequate learning" (Touchie, 1986, p. 76), which result in a gap of knowledge (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, pp. 64-65). In that regard, Touchie also notes that performance errors may not be different from mistakes, which can be the result of the speaker's forgetfulness or carelessness. As a matter of fact, distinguishing errors from mistakes may not always be simple because both may overlap and even native speakers produce both of them (Ellis, 1997, pp. 17-18). In this study, the inappropriate usages of English lexemes and syntax are treated as errors instead of mistakes because presumptively texts and images for public consumption like billboard ads have undergone the process of editing done by the advertisers and/or the advertising agencies. Hence, there are chances to avoid carelessness, and forgetfulness.

The errors on the ads are exemplified below, and written in bolded face. They are classified into errors related to slips or typographic errors as in (11), (12), and (13); addition as in (14); collocations as in (15), omissions as in (16), (17), (18), (19), (20), (21) and (22); misordering (James, 1998, pp. 83, 106, 110, 131, 152) as in (23), (24), and (25). The classified errors are listedon Table 5, and the correct forms are given in brackets directly after the erroneous words. Note that the misordering may be caused by interference from Indonesian language (Touchie, 1986, p. 77).

Nano Philosophy ads
(11) [. . .] *now available pre-paid or via monthly* ***installments*** [. . .]
(12) *Natural Wellness and* ***Aesthetics*** *Enhancements for Face and Body*

XL ads
(13) *Paket internet hot rod 3G+ triple* ***kuota***

Fitness First ads
(14) ****Let's us*** *help you reach your fitness goal*.

Nano Philosophy ads
(15) ***** [. . .]***via*** *monthly* ***installment***[. . .]

The Albergo Tower ads
(16) *****[. . .] *Rental Guarantee* ***Fix Income*** *20% (2 years)*

Plaza Semanggi Card ads
(17) ****Spend and gift***everyday

Dufan Ancol ads
(18) *******Bikers* ***do fun***.

Garuda Indonesia Travel Fair ads
(19) [. . .] *Double*****power points*** [. . .]

Smartfren ads
(20) *******Live* ***smart***.

Sampoerna Avolution Cigarette ads
(21) ****Reform attitude*** (slogan)

Permata Bank ads
(22) ****Simple pay****0% 24 bulan*

*Smartfren*ads
(23) [. . .] *browsing in high definition* [. . .]****Processor Cortex***

The Albergo Tower ads
(24) Fully Furnished (1st quality ****design interior***)

Plaza Semanggi Card ads
(25) *******Earn* ***point rewards*** *and extra benefits*

Table 5. Classification of the Errors Found in the Use of English on the Billboard Ads, and the Correct Forms

Slips/ Typographic errors	Addition	Collocational errors	Omission	Misordering
installment (instalment)	**Let's us . . . (Let us . . .)*	**via installment (by instalment)*	**Bikers do fun.*	**processor cortex*

Slips/ Typographic errors	Addition	Collocational errors	Omission	Misordering
			(Bikers do have fun.) **spend and gift* (*spendyour moneyandget your) gift*	*(cortex processor)*
aesthetics enhancement (aesthetic enhancement)			**double power points (double powerful points)*	**design interior (interior design)*
triple kuota (triple quota)			**fix income (fixed income)* **live smart (live smartly)*	**point rewards (reward-point)*
			**simple pay (simple payment)* **reform attitude (reformed attitude)*	

Besides the formal standard Indonesian found on the billboard ads such as the following sentence *Merokok dapat menyebabkan kanker, serangan jantung, impotensi, dan gangguan kehamilan dan janin* in every cigarette ads, *Kami hadirkan investasi dan informasi lengkap untuk Anda* by Mandiri Prioritas, *Dapatkan fasilitias cicilan of Garuda Indonesia Travel Fairor Miliki rumah idaman sekarang juga* by CIMB Niaga, there were also Indonesian colloquial style: the Betawi-Indonesian, such as the ones (written in bold-type face) in

sentences (26) until (35). Notice that the products that employed the dialect are not luxurious products whose segmented market does not belong to the high-social class. Food and beverage, telecommunication provider, and saving are considered to be part of the urban people's daily needs or life-styles.

BII Maybank ads
(26) *Ayo segera **nabung** dan menangkan uang tunai seberat emas.*

Indosat ads
(27) *Bonus **nelpon**, sms dan internetan mulai dari Rp.5.000*

Kentucky Fried Chicken ads
(28) ***Goceng**, praktis, special*

McDonald's ads
(29) *Ada yang **gak**biasa di McDonald's.*

Frestea ads
(30) *Kalem **aja**, lanjut terus*

Nokia Asha ads
(31) ***Bebas in** gaya **lo***

XL ads
(32) *Tetap **ngebut** dan murah, kuota 3 kali lipat di 3G*

Laurier ads
(33) ***Ga** tembus, **ga tebel***

Pocari Sweat ads
(34) *Bikin gugup saya berkurang **loh***

Axis ads
(35) ***Pake** internet gratis*

Discussion

The study shows that English is used more frequently than Indonesian on billboard ads in Jakarta, which supports previous research conducted by Permanadeli and Tadié (2012). Basically, the phenomenon occurs as a result of the status of English as a global language (Martin, 2006).English was found in product names and categories, slogans, and description, which confirmed Martin's (2006) research on the use of English in advertising in French, and Bhatia and Baumgardner's (2008) study on English in South Asia. Another reason was the positive attitude of the audience toward English, which was in line with studies conducted by Chen (2006), Hsu (2008), and Krishna and Ahluwalia (2008). Obviously, English has functioned as an attention getter, evoked an easy recall. The language has also been a symbol of modernity, urban life-style, young generation, luxury, and good quality. Therefore, the choice of English was related to the audience to whom the products are marketed: products for young people and high-class society used English.

As English is a language accepted worldwide, it is preferable to sell a global product: a product that is sold for global market. Consequently, English has enjoyed the privilege over other languages (cf. Bordieu, 2000; Martin, 2006). English, including the culture that it represents, has been treated as more prestigious compared to Indonesian and other local languages in Indonesia (Kachru, 2000; Martin, 2006). English has also become the aspirational language: a language that creates a positive image towards the brand. Using English, the producers and the advertisers wanted to attract the attention of as many audience as possible, make them part of the good image, or raise the social status of the people (de Saussure, 2000; Vygotsky, 2000; Sneddon, 2003).

Nevertheless, the incidents of English borrowing and code-switching (be they Indonesian-English or English-Indonesian) have signified an undoubtedly clear and crucial role of Indonesian language in marketing products to a huge market that speaks one national language: Indonesian, in addition to their local languages. Therefore, Indonesian language is used for advertising products that are for people of middle to low social class, products which are not luxurious in general (CW1; cf. Krishna & Ahluwalia, 2008). In addition, the use of colloquial Betawi-Indonesian, which is also considered to be more prestigious than other dialects of Indonesian language (Sneddon, 2003), seems to balance the prestigious status of English. Products for young customers and middle to low social class used the colloquial Betawi-Indonesian. The fact confirms that the

prevalence of English will not weaken Indonesian language, its dialects, and the vernacular languages in Indonesia. English has even enriched the Indonesian language vocabulary. More importantly, both languages have their own audience or readership.

However, because English is only a language without an official status, there has been little attention on the early and well-prepared curriculum and human resources for teaching English to Indonesian learners. As a result, errors with regards to the use of English are still produced on texts for public consumption like billboard advertisements which actually should exemplify the correct use of English for a large audience. The errors may indicate several points: lack of English competence, and ignorance of the use of correct English (James, 1998). Other possible reasons can be hasty generalization that readers are not competent in English, and poor assumption that readers would not care about the errors, though for the last two reasons further research projects should be conducted.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Up to this point, I have exemplified how English became the world's lingua franca, the application of advertisements as a means of selling products, and current research on the employment of English on billboard ads in non-English speaking countries including Indonesia. The research that I conducted presents an important sociolinguistic fact about the role of English in Indonesia. The common use of English, which was associated with modernity, youth, urban life-style, and wealth, represented a piece of evidence about how Indonesia, a country with a very big population and a very great number of local languages, cannot resist the influence of the globalization movement by the superpowers like USA and Britain in the fields of economy, politics, education and culture. In addition, it is seems that a foreign culture is apparently more valued by Indonesians, a condition which has been taken advantage of by producers and advertisers. However, English is not the only means of message carrier; the Indonesian and the Betawi-Indonesian are of the same important means of communication between the producers and the customers because the Indonesian language has a special status: a prestigious language, a lingua franca of millions of Indonesians. Therefore, any manufacturers, business people and advertisers who want the huge potential market to consume the products or services advertised have to employ Indonesian. Those parties that I have just men-

tioned have smartly turned Indonesian (and its dialects) and English into a 'message carrier' or an instrument by which particular message or meaning is conveyed for one final purpose: to make a very profitable business. It is true then that the choice of language has become an effective means of communicating specific meanings and sending particular messages to the audience (cf. de Saussure, 2000; Seliger, 2008). Probably, in rural areas where the Indonesian language or local languages are preferable, English may not be used as frequent as that on Jakarta's billboard ads, but further research on linguistic landscape should be conducted to prove that, as well as ethnographic research on how and to what extent English on billboard ads has assimilated the Western culture into local cultures in Indonesia.

Acknowledgement
The writer would like to thank Deny A. Kwary, Ph.D. for his valuable comments during the presentation of the first draft of the paper.

REFERENCES

Attarriba, J., & Morier, R. G. (2006). Bilingualism: Language, emotion, and mental health. In T. K. Bhatia, & W. C. Ritchie (Eds.), *The handbook of bilingualism* (pp. 250-281). Oxford: Blackwell.

Backhaus, P. (2006). Multilingualism in Tokyo: A look into the linguistic landscape. In D. Gorter (Ed.), *Linguistic landscape: A new approach to multilingualism* (pp. 52-66). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Badan Pusat Statistik. (2010). *Sensus penduduk 2010.* Jakarta: Badan Pusat Statistik.

Balkafl, E. E., Akbulut, N. T., & Kartopu, E. (January, 2005). An evaluative study of billboard advertisement's attention-perception and design criteria. *Proceeding of the 3rd International Symposium of Interactive Media Design* (pp. 1-5). Turkey: Yeditepe University.

Belch, G. E., & Belch, M. A. (2003). *Advertising and promotion: An integrated marketing communications perspective.* New York: McGraw Hill.

Ben-Rafael, E., Shohamy, E., Amara, M. H., & Trumper-Hecht, N. (2006). Linguistic landscape as symbolic construction of the public space: The

case of Israel. In D. Gorter (Ed.), *Linguistic landscape: A new approach to multilingualism*(pp. 7-30). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Bhatia, T. K., & Baumgardner, R. J. (2008). Language in the media and advertising. In B. B. Kachru, Y. Kachru, & S. N. Sridhar (Eds.), *Languages in South Asia* (pp. 377-394). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bordieu, P. (2000). The production and reproduction of legitimate language (1982). In L. Burke, T. Crowley, & A. Girvin (Eds.), *The Routledge language and cultural theory reader* (pp. 467-477). London : Routledge.

Chen, C. W. (2006). The mixing of english in magazine advertisements in Taiwan. *World Englishes, 25*(3/4), 467-478.

Corder, S. P. (1978). Language-learner language. In J. C. Richards (Ed.), *Understanding second and foreign language learning: Issues and approaches* (pp. 71-93). Massachusetts: Newbury.

Crystal, D. (2003). *English as a global language* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Crystal, D. (2006). English worldwide. In R. Hogg, & D. Denison (Eds.), *A history of the english language* (pp. 420-439). Cambridge: Cambride University Press.

de Asis, K. V. (2010, August 10). *In digital age, branding is king.* Retrieved from http://www.thejakartapost.com/news/2012/08/10/in-digital-age-branding-king.html.

de Saussure, F. (2000). Linguistic value (1916). In L. Burke, T. Crowley, & A. Girvin (Eds.), *The Routledge language and cultural theory reader* (pp. 105-113). London: Routledge.

Edwards, J. (2006). Foundations of bilingualism. In T. K. Bhatia, & W. C. Ritchie (Eds.), *The handbook of bilingualism* (pp. 7-31). Oxford: Blackwell.

Ellis, R. (1997). *Second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford.

Ellis, R., & Barkhuizen, G. (2005). *Analysing learner language*. Oxford: Oxford.

Gorter, D. (2006). Introduction: The study of the linguistic landscape as a new approach to multilingualism. In D. Gorter (Ed.), *Linguistic landscape: A new approach to multilingualism* (pp. 1-6). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Grosjean, F. (2006). Studying bilinguals: Methodological and conceptual issues. In T. K. Bhatia, & W. C. Ritchie (Eds.), *The handbook of bilingualism* (pp. 32-64). Oxford: Blackwell.

Hashim, A. (2010). Englishes in advertising. In A. Kirkpatrick (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of world Englishes* (pp. 520-534). Oxon: Routledge.

Hornikx, J., van Meurs, F., & de Boer, A. (2010). English or a local language in advertising? The appreciation of easy and difficult English slogans in the Netherlands. *Journal of Business Communication, 47*(2), 169-188.

Hsu, J. L. (2008). Glocalization and English mixing in advertising in Taiwan: Its discourse domains, linguistic patterns, cultural constraints, localized creativity and socio-psychological effects. *Journal of Creative Communications, 3*(2), 155-183.

Huebner, T. (2006). Bangkok's linguistic landscapes: Environmental print, codemixing and language change. In D. Gorter (Ed.), *Linguistic landscape: A new approach to multilingualism* (pp. 31-51). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

James, C. (1998). *Errors in language learning and use: Exploring error analysis.* London: Longman.

Kachru, B. B. (2000). The alchemy of English (1986). In L. Burke, T. Crowley, & A. Girvin (Eds.), *The Routledge language and cultural theory reader* (pp. 317-329). London: Routledge.

Kachru, B. B. (2005). *Asian Englishes: Beyond the canon.* Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.

Krishna, A., & Ahluwalia, R. (2010). Language choice in advertising to bilinguals: Assymetric effects for multinationals versus local firms. *Journal of Consumer Research, 35*, 1-14.

Landry, R., & Bourhis, R. Y. (1997). Linguistic landscape and ethnolinguistic vitality: An empirical study. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, *16*(1), 23-49.

Martin, E. (2006). *Marketing identities through language: English and global imagery in French advertising.* New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

McSwan, J. (2006). Code switching and grammatical theory. In T. K. Bhatia, & W. C. Ritchie (Eds.), *The handbook of bilingualism* (pp. 283-311). Oxford: Blackwell.

Meisel, J. M. (2006). The bilingual child. In T. K. Bhatia, & W. C. Ritchie (Eds.), *The handbook of bilingualism*(pp. 91-113). Oxford: Blackwell.

Permanadeli, R., & Tadié, J. (2012). In search of an imaginary character of modernity in Jakarta: A social representation of urban modernity. *Forthcoming*, 1-15.

Piller, I. (2003). Advertising as a site of language contact. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 23*, 170-183.

Romaine, S. (1995). *Bilingualism* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Blackwell.

Romaine, S. (2006). Global English: From island tongue to world language. In A. van Kemenade, & B. Los (Eds.), *The handbook of the history of English* (pp. 589-608). Oxford: Blackwell.

Seliger, M. (2008). Visual rhetoric in outdoor advertising. *Proceedings of the Design Research Society Conference* (pp. 1-16). Sheffield: Sheffield Hallam University.

SIL International Indonesian Branch. (2006). *Bahasa-bahasa di Indonesia* (2nd Ed.). Jakarta: SIL International Indonesian Branch.

Sneddon, J. (2003). *The Indonesian language: Its history and role in modern society.* Sydney: UNSW Press.

Spolsky, B. (2009). Prolegomena to a sociolinguistic theory on public signage. In E. Shohamy, & D. Gorter (Eds.), *Linguistic landscape: Expanding the scenery* (pp. 25-39). New York: Routledge.

Taylor, C. R., Franke, G. R., & Bang, H. K. (2006). Use and effectiveness of billboards: Perspectives from selective-perception theory and retail-gravity models. *Journal of Advertising, 354*, 21-34.

Touchie, H. Y. (1986). Second language learning errors their types, causes, and treatment. *JALT Journal, VIII*(1), 75-80.

Vygotsky, L. S. (2000). Thought and word (1934). In L. Burke, T. Crowley, & A. Girvin (Eds.), *The Routledge language and cultural theory reader* (pp. 122-126). London: Routledge.

Wirjan, R., & Surya, D. (2012, June 2). *Stand out from the crowd to be remarkable.* Retrieved from http://www.thejakartapost.com/news/2012/06/02/stand-out-crowd-be-remarkable.html

Appendix 1. The Open-ended Questionnaire on the Preference of the Ads Slogans

Silanglah huruf di depan **slogan iklan** yang **lebih Anda sukai**.

1. A. Fit Bar – Menyenangkan, Enak
   B. Fit Bar – Happy, Tasty
   Alasan Anda:
   .....
2. A. Djarum Super Mild – Kenikmatan, Gaya, Kepercayaan Diri
   B. Djarum Super Mild – Pleasure, Style, Confidence
   Alasan Anda:
   .....
3. A. Yong Ma – Keajaiban dalam Hidup
   B. Yong Ma – The Magic in Life
   Alasan Anda:
   .....
4. A. Mito S 300 – Lihat Gayaku
   B. Mito S 300 – Watch My Style
   Alasan Anda:
   .....

Nama	:	Jenis kelamin	: .....
Umur	:	Pendidikan Terakhir	: .....
Pekerjaan	:	Tanggal	: .....

THE ROLE OF OUT-OF-SCHOOL ENGLISH LITERACY ACTIVITIES IN PROMOTING STUDENTS' ENGLISH LITERACY

Lilies Setiasih
(lies_hadi@yahoo.com)

Universitas Islam Bandung
Jl. Tamansari No. 1 Bandung 40116, Indonesia

Abstract: This paper reports on a case study of the role of out-of-school English literacy activities in promoting students' English literacy at an elementary school in Bandung. The study is an attempt to respond to controversy among decision makers about the idea of offering English at elementary schools and the reality that at the school where the research was conducted, English is fully used as a means of instruction for English, Mathematics, and Science. Considering that literacy is shaped in socio-cultural contexts, the researcher assumed that the students acquired and developed their English literacy not only at school but also outside of school. Their out-of-school English literacy activities might contribute to their English literacy development. The research aims were to investigate the students' English literacy level and to identify their out-of-school literacy activities. The theoretical framework covered the cognitive and socio-cultural theories of literacy. The research results were: 1) the majority of the fourth grade students were in early advanced and advanced levels for the aspects of reading and writing proficiency; and 2) their out-of-school English literacy activities played an important role in building their English literacy.

Keywords: literacy, cognitive and socio-cultural theories of literacy, out-of-school literacy activities

Teaching English at elementary school level in Indonesia is still controversial for several reasons (Alwasilah, 2000; 2001; Abdul-Hamid, 2002). A key reason is that English literacy is very complex to accomplish for students at elemen-

tary schools. This nature of literacy becomes a more complex issue with regard to English as a foreign language (EFL) because English literacy learning involves socio-cognitive processes. However, at the school where the research was conducted, English was fully used as a means of instruction for English, Mathematics, and Science in the fourth grade. If English was used as the means of instruction, English literacy skills became important because they were learning tools to understand the three subject matters. In other words, without having English literacy skills, the students would have difficulty in understanding the contents of the subject matters. With this in mind, the fourth grade students were assumed to have the English literacy skills, especially, reading and writing skills, needed to do academic English literacy practices.

Considering that literacy is shaped in socio-cultural contexts, the students were also assumed to acquire and develop English literacy not only at school but also outside of school because their English literacy practices were embedded in their daily lives. The students' out-of-school English literacy activities might contribute to their English literacy development. This issue was underresearched in the Indonesian context.

In this study, the researcher views literacy, defined as "the ability to read written texts and to write texts at a specified proficiency level" (Powell, 1999, p.18), from cognitive and socio-cultural approaches. Based on the cognitive approach, literacy is seen as "cognitively encoding (writing) and decoding (reading) skills" (Gillen & Hall, 2003, p. 1). Therefore, literacy is viewed as autonomous, cognitive, and individual skills and abilities (Street, 1984; Millard, 2003; Reyes et al., 2009) that can be measured by tests, and the results accurately reflect students' cognitive skills in literacy (Cook-Gumperz, 1986).

Based on the socio-cultural approach (e.g., Vygotsky, 1978; Heath, 1983; Scribner & Cole, 1981; Johns, 1997; Street, 2001; Luke, 1994), literacy is viewed as socio-cultural practices that are put to work in institutions, such as the family, community, and school. Meaning is "a social negotiation that depends on supportive interactions and shared uses of language" (Lipson & Wixson, 2003, p. 7). Literacy practices refer to "the customary, habitual ways in which people read and write in their everyday lives" (Rodby, 1992, p. 27). The researchers of this theory assume that interactions and participation in literacy activities are important because the participation is both the product and the process of learning (Zuengler & Miller, 2006). In addition, Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1987) states that in language learning the input can be from "foreigner-talk, teacher-talk, and the speech of other second language acquirers"

(Krashen, 1987, p. 24). Therefore, according to Wenden & Rubin (1987), learning a new language (L2) is a complex process that involves constructing knowledge of the language by employing cognitive, external, and internal processes that are not easily observable. In this study, the cognitive and sociocultural theories of literacy and Krashen's Input Hypothesis are relevant. With this in mind, proficiency English tests were used to describe the fourth grade students' English literacy as individual skills and the interviews with the students and their parents were conducted to identify the students' out-of-school English literacy practices that played a role in promoting their English literacy skills. There are two views of out-of-school literacies. First, out-of-school literacies refer to any literacy practice− including school-like or school-centric literacies – occurring in contexts outside formal school settings. Second, those refer to any literacy practice that excludes school literacies from consideration (Knobel & Lankshear, 2003). In this study, out-of-school literacy activities refer to the activities of reading and writing texts in English that are and are not directly related to school assignments done outside school.

The lack of consensus among educational decision makers about offering English at elementary schools, coupled with the existence of an elementary school whose teachers fully used English as a means of instruction, and the complexity of English literacy learning with the lack of the English literacy studies addressing students' out-of-school literacy activities, culminated in a need to investigate the English literacy of the fourth grade students in this elementary school and their out-of-school English literacy activities.

In brief, the purposes of the study are to describe the fourth grade students' English literacy level based on the English Benchmark Assessments level 3 (Ventriglia, 2005), to identify the students' out-of-school English literacy activities and the media used to practice those activities, and to describe the students' reasons for engaging in their out-of-school English literacy activities.

METHOD

The research was conducted at an elementary school in Bandung in 2010. The participants consisted of twenty students of the fourth grade and their parents. The instruments used were tests, interviews, and the students' documentary materials. This was an interpretive qualitative case study comprising the characteristics of a qualitative case study as follows: 1) it answered "why" question (Yin, 1989). In this case, the research question deals with what the

students' reasons for engaging in their out-of- school English literacy activities are; 2) it investigated process rather than outcome (Merriam, 1998). By interviewing the students and their parents, the researcher could identify the students' literacy activities, the process and ways of their English learning, and their literacy materials; 3) it was a small scale case (Emilia, 2008). The single case was the fourth grade students' English literacy at an elementary school; 4) it employed multiple data collections involving multiple sources of information rich in context and analytic procedures to allow for in-depth study (Cresswell, 2005; Berg, 2004). This study employed multiple sources, comprising reading and writing tests, interviews with the students and their parents, and the students' documentary materials, so multiple data gatherings or triangulation could be used to enhance the validity of the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

The data were collected and analyzed as follows. First, to describe the literacy level of the students, proficiency tests focused on reading and writing abilities were conducted at the school. Based on these proficiency tests (Ventriglia, 2005), three aspects of reading were tested to measure students' reading ability; word analysis, systematic vocabulary development, and comprehension. Besides, two aspects of writing were tested to measure students' writing ability; writing application and language conventions. These tests taken from English Benchmark Assessments Level 3, specified for the third grade students in the United States, provided a flexible, complete system for assessing student progress in English proficiency in the primary level. The system is firmly based on "recognized standards developed by teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages" (Ventriglia, 2005, p. viii). The proficiency test" is universally used to measure people's ability in a language regardless of any training they may have had in that language" (Hudges, 1989, p. 9). It has the goal of seeing where learners have reached in their knowledge of the language (Gruber, 2008). For this reason, the results of the proficiency tests were also converted, analyzed, and interpreted using the system of English Benchmark Assessments Level 3 (Ventriglia, 2005). To simplify the analysis of the interviews, the results of the tests were grouped into high, middle, and low performers using quarter terms, used to show the standing of any particular score in a group of scores (Hatch & Farhady, 1982).

To ensure the validity of the tests, face validity was applied. Based on face validity, the tests were valid because "on the face of them, the tests seemed right test to measure reading and writing ability" (Hatch & Farhady, 1982, p. 252). In addition, these tests adopted from English Benchmark As-

sessments Level 3 have been standardized (Ventriglia, 2005). According to McKenna & Stahl (2009, p. 37), "a valid test is always reliable." For this reason, as standardized proficiency tests, the researcher concluded that the tests were valid and reliable. However, to make sure the reliability of the tests, the parallel test method was applied (Hatch & Farhady, 1982). The scores of the test 1 and test 2 were correlated. Based on the statistical calculation, it was found that the reliability of reading test was 76.84 %, the reliability of writing test was 79.15%, and the reliability of the whole test was 89.93%. A reliability coefficient of > .70 might be considered high for the test (Hughes: 1989). Therefore, these tests were reliable.

Second, the interview questions, adapted from Literacy Assessment (Rhodes, 1993), were adjusted to the objectives of the study. The first set of interview questions was specifically intended to identify the students' out-of-school English literacy activities, the media used, and their reasons for engaging in these activities. Some similar aspects asked to the students were also asked to the parents in a different way in the second set of interview questions. The interviews with the students were conducted at school and those with their parents were conducted in the students' houses. Third, documentary materials that the students had, such as short stories, magazines, comics, diaries, school work, their writing work, were noted or copied. They could contribute much to enrich the data.

The data from the interviews were transcribed, coded, classified, and categorized. The salient characteristics, similarities and differences among the categories were found out, compared, analyzed, and interpreted descriptively. In this study, prolonged engagement and triangulation were used to establish trustworthiness or internal validity (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Meanwhile, the detailed explanation in order to help readers understand the context, and a thick description to enable readers interested in making a transfer and to reach a conclusion were used to establish transferability (external validity). Then, to establish confirmability and dependability as the external audit (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), the process and findings of the study were shared with experienced researchers in order to examine whether the findings, interpretations, and conclusions were supported by the data.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Level of the Fourth Grade Students' English Literacy

Based on the English Benchmark Assessments Level 3 (Ventriglia, 2005), the students' English proficiency, reflecting their English literacy, is categorized into beginning level, early intermediate/ intermediate levels, and early advanced/advanced levels. To clarify this explanation, the percentage of the students' English proficiency levels as a whole in Test 1 and Test 2 is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Percentage of Students' English Proficiency Levels

No	Level	Reading Word Analysis		Reading Voc. Dev		Reading Comp.		Writing Application		Writing Lang. Convention	
		T1	T 2	T1	T2	T 1	T 2	T1	T 2	T 1	T 2
1.	Beginning	20	10	15	5	5	-	15	15	30	5
2.	Early Intermediate	-	-	10	10	5	15	10	25	5	-
3.	Intermediate	-	-	20	15	-	-	5	-	25	-
4.	Early Advanced	-	15	20	35	25	20	60	50	25	20
5.	Advanced	80	75	35	35	65	65	10	10	15	75

Table 1 shows that ≥ 60% of the students are in early advanced and advanced levels for almost all aspects of reading and writing skills, except in vocabulary development and writing convention. However, the results of Test 2 show an improvement in both aspects. Figures 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 at the end of this section of the article illustrate clear differences between high, middle, and low performers' English proficiency. The early advanced and advanced levels are combined into advanced level only.

The figures demonstrate that based on the system of English Benchmark Assessments Level 3, the English literacy of the majority of the fourth grade students (≥60%) are in early advanced and advanced level categories. This means that the majority of the fourth grade students had the abilities to analyze words by recognizing English phonemes, to separate words into syllables, and

to recognize groups of words that have the same root or affix in word analysis test; to match words to pictures, to read and apply knowledge of vocabulary to complete sentences, and to identify and apply social vocabulary in specific social situations in systematic vocabulary development test; to identify answers, main idea and inferences in expository text, to identify the main idea and some details, and to respond to comprehension questions about the text, to apply basic reading comprehension skills such as skimming, scanning, previewing and reviewing texts in reading comprehension test; to write simple sentences or phrases with some assistance, to write short narrative stories with some details a sequence of events, and to write a composition from a given theme writing application test; to use common language conventions in sentences, such as capitalization, to identify words spelled incorrectly, and to identify written language conventions and to use correct part of speech, including subject-verb agreement in language convention test (Ventriglia, 2005, pp. 5-19).

Next, the other 40% of the students are varied in the beginning and intermediate levels. The students, who were in early intermediate and intermediate levels, had the abilities to analyze words by recognizing English phonemes and to separate words into syllables in word analysis test; to match words to pictures, and to read and apply knowledge of vocabulary to complete sentences in systematic vocabulary development test; to identify the main idea and some details and to respond to comprehension questions about the text in reading comprehension test; to write simple sentences or phrases with some assistance and to write short narrative stories with some details a sequence of events in writing application test; to use common language conventions in sentences, such as capitalization and to identify words spelled incorrectly in language convention test (Ventriglia, 2005, pp. 5-19).

Finally, the students, who were still in the beginning level, only had the abilities to analyze words by recognizing English phonemes in word analysis test, to match words to pictures in systematic vocabulary development test, to identify the main idea and some details in reading comprehension test, to write simple sentences or phrases with some assistance in writing application test, to use common language conventions in sentences, such as capitalization in language convention test (Ventriglia, 2005, pp. 5-19). In brief, the study shows that the English literacy of the majority of the fourth grade students (≥60%) was in early advanced and advanced levels for almost all aspects of reading and writing skills.

Based on literacy levels suggested by Wells (1987), the study shows that most students were already literate in English in the performative level, functional level, and information level even though the degree of their proficiency was different. It means that in the performative level, they had the ability to decode simple written messages and encode ideas into writing according to written conventions; in the functional level, they had the ability to cope with the needs of everyday life that involve written language; and in the information level, they had the ability to use English literacy skills in the acquisition of knowledge.

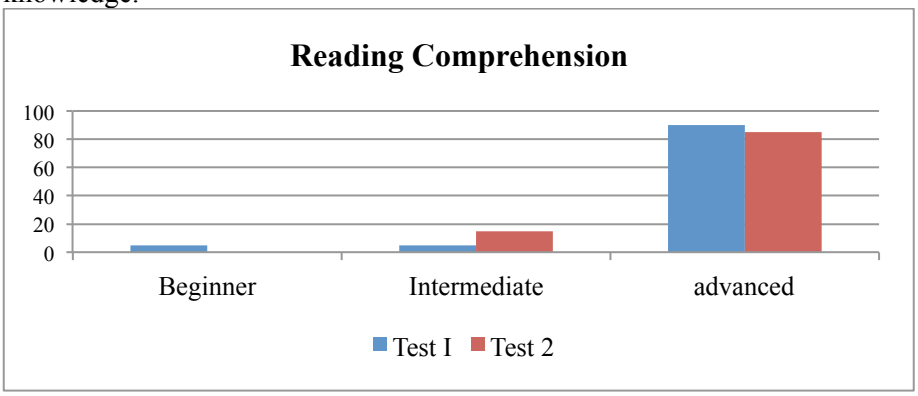

Figure 1. Percentage of Students' English Proficiency Levels in Reading Comprehension

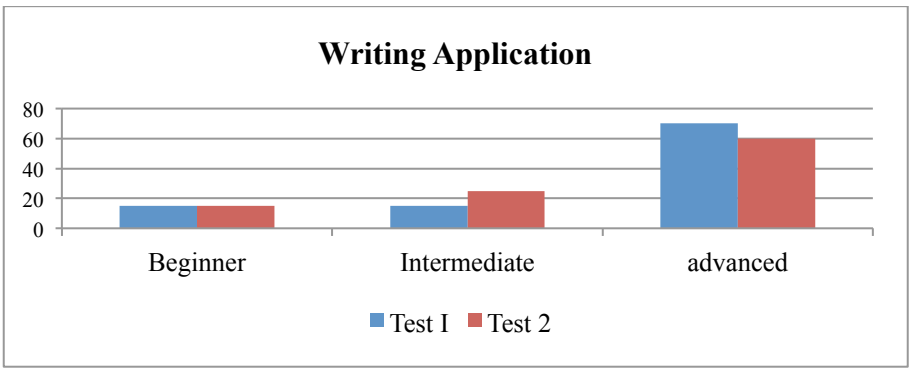

Figure 2. Percentage of Students' English Proficiency Levels in Writing Application

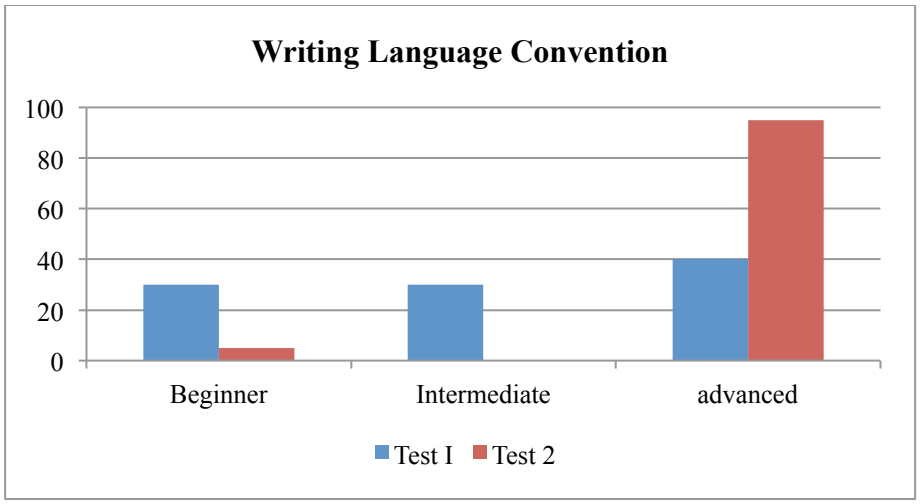

Figure 3. Percentage of Students' English Proficiency Levels in Writing Language Convention

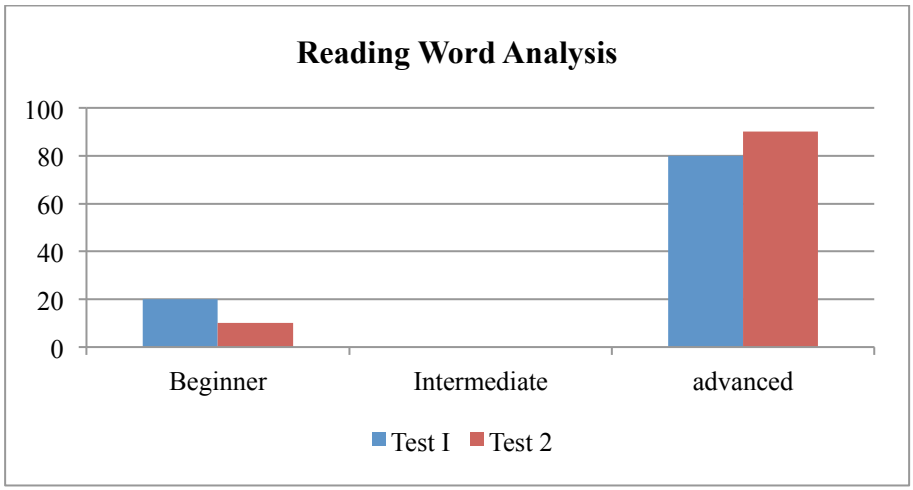

Figure 4. Percentage of Students' English Proficiency Levels in Reading Word Analysis

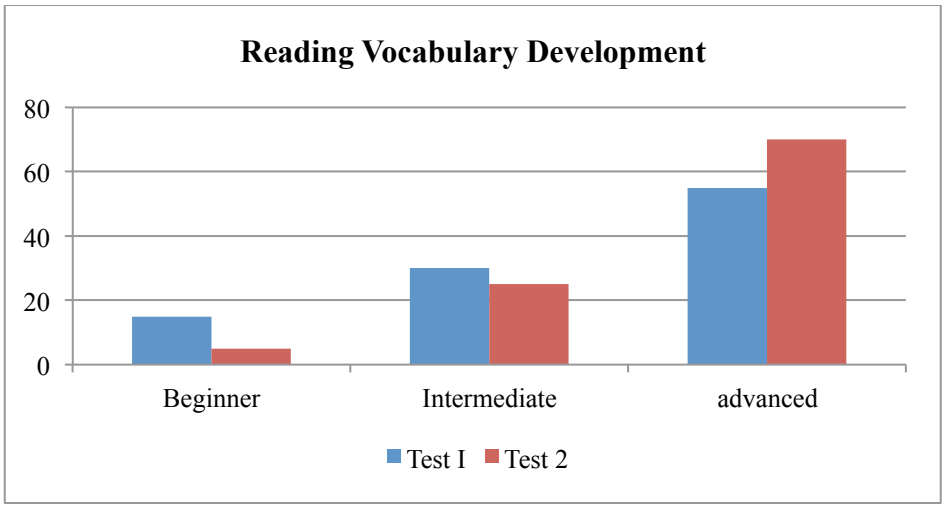

Figure 5. Percentage of Students' English Proficiency Levels in Reading Vocabulary Development

Kinds of English Literacy Engagement

This study demonstrates that the students practiced various kinds of out-of-school English literacy activities. Eighteen kinds of out-of-school English activities, commonly practiced by the students, were classified into: 1) academic English literacy activities, including school-based tasks; 2) non-academic pleasurable reading activities, including reading novels, reading story books, reading internet texts, reading magazines, reading newspaper, and reading comics; 3) non-academic pleasurable writing activities, including writing poem, writing diary or simple writing, such as a comic script, writing face book status, e-mails, and short messages, and writing a short essay; and 4) other supportive literacy activities, including playing game, listening to music, watching movies, and English speaking activities. The difference of out-of-school non-academic English literacy activities between the high, middle and low performers is in the frequency of their engagement and the number of books they have in their home.

The result of this study is in line with Hyland's research which uncovered many seen and unnoticed acts of reading and writing of the students outside

school (Hyland, 2002). However, the twenty students in this study still focused their daily activities primarily on their academic English literacy activities (100%). Most of the students were engaged in pleasurable English literacy activities, such as watching cartoon movies, reading stories, and playing games, only on the weekends when they did not do their homework.

Piaget (1970a) states that children are active learners and agents dynamically interacting with and responding to the world surrounding them, which in turn affect their cognitive development. Through taking the action to solve their problems, learning occurs. Most students are active learners interacting with their environment. They practiced their English literacy activities without being demanded by their parents.

In addition, Vygotsky (1978) explains that the literacy learning is shaped by social and cultural contexts. It is within the flow of experience of participation in society that language is internalized and understanding develops, and social interaction is important for cognitive development. Thus, learning occurs by interaction with others. Both the identity of the learners and their language knowledge, are collaboratively constructed and reconstructed in the course of interaction. In this study, most investigated students are active constructors of their own learning environment, which they shape through their choice of goals and operations. They construct and consolidate their own learning through experience, reflection, and social interactions with others. They interacted with the more knowledgeable people and sources, such as parents, tutors, and electronic media. By doing these activities, the English knowledge was constructed and internalized by the students.

Linguistic signs are created, used, borrowed, and interpreted by individuals engaged in purposeful action, and language emerges from socio-cultural activities (Kramsch, 2004). By listening to music, playing games, watching movies, reading stories, and doing light writing, the students engaged in purposeful action. In socio-cultural perspective, language learning depends not only on language as input, but also as a resource for participation in the kind of activities their everyday lives comprise. The participation in these activities is both the product and the process of learning (Zuengler & Miller, 2006).

Meaningful and comprehensible English input occurred in social interactions with the people surrounding the students both at school and at home. The input can be from "foreigner-talk, teacher-talk, and the speech of other second language acquirers" (Krashen, 1987, p. 24). The input received by some students was from their parents, movies, tutors, and tutors. Nevertheless, accord-

ing to Schultz & Fecho, (2000), out-of-school literacy activities provide supplement and support the work of the school. In brief, referring to the aforementioned theories and studies, the students' out-of-school English literacy activities contributed to promoting their English literacy.

The study uncovers six significant characteristics of the students' English literacy practices: 1) the students were engaged in more academic English literacy activities; 2) they were engaged in pleasurable light reading and writing; 3) their activities occurred in online, electronic audio visual and print environments; 4) the students practiced online English literacy activities, which blended writing and reading; 5) some students were engaged in English speaking activities; and 6) six students had extra English instruction from other sources as their efforts to improve their English. These six salient characteristics indicate that the types of English literacy activities and the boundaries of their English literacy practices are likely to be influenced by the students' linguistic, cultural, and technological backgrounds.

Media Used by the Students

The students enriched their English literacy practices by using three kinds of media (print, online, and electronic audio-visual tools). Electronic technology has influenced or shaped the nature of their English literacy practices and development. Hagood (2003) states that because new media and online literacies have become part and parcel of the day-to-day lives for many individuals, today's notions of text continually expand, extending beyond traditional print-based reading and writing. Similarly, the students in the study have become readers of not only printed texts but also online texts, just as Robinson & Verluis (1985) suggest that print-based and online literacy should be mutually complementary. In brief, the study revealed that the three kinds of media contributed to the students' English literacy.

Reasons for Engaging in Out-of-School English Literacy Activities

The study shows that the five outstanding reasons for the students' English literacy activities were to do their school assignments, to have personal enjoyment, to kill their time or to seek information, to practice their English, and to express their feelings. These findings indicate that these students developed their own ways to cope with the emotions and experiences of a child's life

through writing and reading. In this case, their out-of-school English activities played a role in serving these diverse purposes. Although the students do not realize the educational value of their out-of-school English literacy activities, according to Schultz & Fecho, (2000), out-of-school literacy activities provide supplement and support the work of the school.

In short, the study demonstrates that the students practiced different kinds of out-of-school English literacy activities with diverse purposes and media. Referring to the theories and previous studies on literacy, their activities contributed to their English literacy development. They interacted with more knowledgeable people and sources, and participated in the literacy events outside the school. In relation to the aspects distinguishing the students' English literacy development, the differences of the students' investment of time, efforts, motivation, structured study time, and goal resulted in the difference of English literacy progress between the high and low performers.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

In conclusion, firstly, the research shows that the majority of the fourth grade students' English literacy was in the early advanced and advanced level, measured using English Benchmark Assessment Level 3. This means that the majority of the fourth grade students had the abilities required by the system of English Benchmark Assessment Level 3 (Ventriglia, 2005). Then, based on the literacy levels suggested by Wells (1987), the majority of the students were found to be literate already in English in the performative, functional and information levels. Therefore, English was used as a means of instruction successfully in the fourth grade at this elementary school because the students' English was relatively adequate to receive the English instruction for the three subject matters.

Secondly, from the aspect of the students themselves as individual active learners and agents (Piaget, 1970a), the study demonstrates that the students practiced many out-of-school English literacy activities with diverse purposes and media, and their activities contributed to their English literacy development. Thirdly, the study revealed five outstanding reasons for their reading and writing activities: assignments, entertainment, getting occupied or seeking information, practicing English, and expressing their emotion.

Fourthly, the students enriched their out-of-school English literacy practices by using three kinds of media (print, online, and electronic audio-visual

tools). The students' English literacy practices, both in and outside the classroom, are considered as their efforts to gain English language input from and to interact with other more knowledgeable adults. Hence, the English knowledge is actively built up from within by each student as a member of a community and by a community itself. In brief, the students' out-of-school English literacy activities and home-learning facilities contributed to their English literacy development.

The findings of the study suggest the following. First, teachers should widen their understanding of English literacy, both academic English literacy and other types of English literacy practices, acknowledge the value of these types of English literacy, and take advantage of knowledge that students bring from their out-of-school English literacy activities by integrating them into their school-based English literacy experiences in the classroom. Nocon & Cole (2009, p. 15) state, "Diverse linguistic-cultural experiences and learning from the home are valuable resources for effective classroom teaching and learning." Teachers can increase their efforts to understand "students' funds of knowledge" (Edwards, et al*.,* 2009, p. 87*)*. By doing this, academic English literacy acquisition may well be enhanced if teachers can find and establish a connecting point between academic and non-academic English literacy activities that can support and supplement each other.

Second, there is a need to consider educational, meaningful, pleasurable out-of-school English literacy activities for Indonesian students beyond school-based tasks which can improve their English literacy experiences, especially for those at elementary schools because the two are mutually supportive of English literacy. According to Curtain & Pesola (1988, p. 138), "Children will comprehend more easily what has meaning and interest for them, and learn to read more quickly and easily when there is a reason for doing so." Third, lack of availability of reading materials written in English for children is another reason for students not to engage in sufficient out-of-school reading. This study suggests that this constitute a challenge for teachers, authors, and researchers to create handbooks for elementary schools and pleasurable books for children adjusted to Indonesian cultures that can improve students' English literacy naturally.

In brief**,** the findings of the study are expected to contribute to the English teaching profession at elementary schools in particular and English literacy education in Indonesia in general.

REFERENCES

Abdul-Hamied, F. (2002). *TEFL in Indonesia: Policy and development.* Bandung: Indonesia University of Education.

Alwasilah, A. C. (2000). *Perspektif pendidikan bahasa Inggris di Indonesia dalam konteks persaingan global* [The perspective of English education in Indonesia within the context of global competition]. Bandung: Andira.

Berg, B. L. (2004). *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Cook-Gumperz, J. (Ed.). (1986). *The social construction of literacy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Creswell, J. W. (2005). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (2nd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.

Curtain, H. A., & Pesola, C. A. B. (1988). *Languages and children*: *Making the match: Foreign language instruction in the elementary school.* New York: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

Edwards, P. A., Paratore, J., & Roser, N. (2009). Family literacy: Recognizing cultural significance. In L. M. Morrow, R. Rueda, & D. Lapp (Eds.), *Handbook of research on literacy and diversity* (pp. 77-96). New York: Guilford Press.

Emilia, E. (2008). *Menulis tesis dan disertasi* [Writing theses and dissertations]. Bandung: Alfabeta.

Gillen, J., & Hall, N. (2003). The emergence of early childhood literacy. In N. Hall, J. Larson, & J. Marsh (Eds.), *Handbook of early childhood literacy* (pp. 3-13). London: Sage Publication.

Gruber, G. R. (2008). *Gruber's essential guide to test taking: Grade 3-5.* Illionis: Source Books Inc.

Hagood, M. C. (2003). New media and online literacies: No age left behind. *Reading Research Quarterly, 38*(3), 387-391.

Hatch, E., & Farhady, H. (1982). *Research design and statistics for Applied Linguistics.* London: Newbury House Publishers, Inc.

Heath, S. B. (1983). *Ways with words: Language, life, and work in communities and classrooms.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hughes, A. (1989). *Testing for language teachers.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hyland, K. (2002). *Teaching and researching writing*. London: Longman.

Johns, A. M. (1997). *Text, role, and content: Developing academic literacies*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Knobel, M., & Lankshear, C. (2003). Researching young children's out-of-school literacy practices. In N. Hall, J. Larson, & J. Marsh (Eds.), *Handbook of early childhood literacy* (pp. 51-66). London: Sage Publication.

Kramsch, C. (2004). Social discursive constructions of self in L2 learning. In J.P. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 133-153). Oxford, NY: Oxford University Press.

Krashen, S. D. (1987). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition.* New York: Prentice-Hall.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Lipson, M. Y., & Wixson, K.K. (2003). *Assessment & instruction of reading and writing difficulty: An interactive approach.* Boston: Pearson Education, Inc.

Luke, A. (1994). The social construction of literacy in the primary school. In L. Unsworth (Ed). *Literacy learning and teaching – Language as social practice in the primary school* (pp. 3-53). Melbourne: Macmillan Education Australia, Ltd.

McKenna, M.C., & Stahl, K. A. D. (2009). *Assessment for reading instruction.* (2nd ed.). New York: The Guilford Press.

Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education* (Rev. Ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Millard, E. (2003). Gender and early childhood literacy. In N. Hall, J. Larson, & J. Marsh (Eds.), *Handbook of early childhood literacy* (pp. 22-32). London: Sage Publication.

Nocon, H., & Cole, M. (2009). Relating diversity and literacy theory. In L. M. Morrow, R. Rueda, & D. Lapp (Eds.), *Handbook of research on literacy and diversity* (pp. 13-31). New York: Guilford Press.

Piaget, J. (1970a). *Genetic epistemology*. New York: Columbia University Press.

Piaget, J. (1970b). *Science of education and the psychology of the child*. New York: Viking.

Powell, R. (1999). *Literacy as moral imperative: Facing the challenges of a pluralistic society.* Lanham, MD: Rowman and Littlefield Publisher.

Reyes, I., Wyman, L., Gonzalez, N., Rubinstein-Avilla, E., Spear-Ellinwood, K., Gilmore, P., & Moll, L.C. (2009). What do we know about the discourse patterns of diverse students in multiple settings? In L. M. Morrow, R. Rueda, & D. Lapp (Eds.), *Handbook of research on literacy and diversity* (pp. 55-76). New York: Guilford Press.

Rhodes, L. K. (1993). *Literacy assessment: A handbook of instruments.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann Educational Books, Inc.

Robinson, B., & Versluis, E.B. (1985). Electronic text: A choice medium for reading. In D. Chandler, & S. Marcus (Eds.), *Computer and literacy* (pp. 26-40). Philadelphia: Open University Press.

Rodby, J. (1992). *Appropriating literacy: Writing and reading in ESL*. Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook Publishers.

Schultz, K., & Fecho, B. (2000). Society's child: Social context and writing development. *Educational Psychologist, 35*(1), 51-62. doi: 10.1207/S15326985EP3501_6

Scribner, S., & Cole, M. (1981). *The psychology of literacy*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Street, B. V. (1984). *Literacy in theory and practice.* NY: Cambridge University Press.

Street, B. V. (2001). *Literacy and development: Ethnographic perspectives.* London: Routledge.

Ventriglia, L. (2005). *English benchmark assessment.* Columbia: D'Vinni S.A.

Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Wells, G. (1987). Apprenticeship in literacy. *Interchange, 18*(1/2), 109-123. Retrieved from link-springer.com/article.10.1007%2FBF01807064#.

Wenden, A., & Rubin, J. (Eds.). (1987). *Learner strategies in language learning.* Cambridge, UK: Prentice Hall.

Yin, R. K. (1985). *Case study research design and methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Zuengler, J., & Miller, E. R. (2006). Cognitive and socio cultural perspectives: Two parallel SLA worlds? *TESOL Quarterly, 40*(1), 35-58.

ENHANCING THE PRONUNCIATION OF ENGLISH SUPRASEGMENTAL FEATURES THROUGH REFLECTIVE LEARNING METHOD

Suwartono
(suwartono2006@yahoo.co.id)

Universitas Muhammadiyah Purwokerto, Indonesia
Jl. Raya Dukuh Waluh, Purwokerto 53182, Indonesia

Abstract: Suprasegmental features are of paramount importance in spoken English. Yet, these pronunciation features are marginalised in EFL/ESL teaching-learning. This article reported a study that was aimed at improving the students' mastery of English suprasegmental features through the use of reflective learning method. The study adopted Kemmis and McTaggart's model of action research (1986) and involved twenty-four undergraduate students at Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto, Indonesia as the subjects. The research consisted of two cycles, and data were gathered through observations, recorded conversations, diaries, interviews, and tests. Overall, the study has shown that reflective method using video integrated into communicative activities enhanced students' pronunciation mastery. Interestingly, some students' pronunciation to a great extent sounded 'more English'.

Keywords: suprasegmentals, reflective, involvement, monitoring, evaluating

Pronunciation might be the most marginalised in the teaching and learning of English in spite of a key role this language aspect plays in spoken communication. The neglect for teaching pronunciation may be due to the apparent complexity of English pronunciation and a misconception about what the content of a pronunciation course should be and about the way pronunciation should be taught. Within this "Cinderella" aspect of language, perhaps segmentals are luckier, in that they are more taught and better researched than suprasegmentals. However, suprasegmentals are worthier of attention mainly because these features contribute heavily to intelligibility in spoken English and convey bet-

ter impression of the speaker (O'Neal, 2010). It means improving the pronunciation of English suprasegmentals can facilitate communication, boost self esteem, and possibly lead to a better future. Therefore, within the context of spoken English communication, suprasegmental features should be given priority or, at least, equality.

Apart from the significance of wisely treating English suprasegmental features, several problems emerged during the author's teaching of suprasegmental features: uninteresting lessons, lack of listening to model activity prior to production practice, greater portion of teacher talk time, and too much drill. In addition, the results of a formative test on connected speech showed a very low result, with only one student (4.16%) achieving existing standard. Therefore, as an effort to solve the problems, reflective learning method was adopted by using video as a reflective tool incorporated into oral communicative language activities.

The term 'reflective' (as it appears in 'reflective learning'), used interchangeably with 'reflection' in the educational context, is associated with deep learning. In deep learning, the intention of the learner is to develop a personal understanding of the material and relate it to what is already known. In other words, experience is central in reflective learning. It has something to do with Kolb's (1984) concept of experiential learning, in which the learner's immediate experience is taken as the focus of learning, giving life, texture, and subjective personal meaning to abstract concepts and at the same time providing a concrete reference point for testing the implications and validity of ideas created during the learning process (Benson, 2001, p. 38).

Dewey, as cited by Hillier (2002) identified five general features of reflection or reflective thinking: (1) perflexity/doubt due to the fact that one is implicated in an incomplete situation whose character is not fully determined; (2) conjectural anticipation, i.e. a tentative interpretation of the elements; (3) examination/ exploration or analysis of all attainable considerations which will define and clarify the problem at hand; (4) consequent elaboration of the tentative hypothesis; and (5) taking one stand upon the projected hypothesis as a plan of action, doing something overtly to bring about the anticipated result and thereby testing the hypothesis. This implies that the act of reflecting is not just a simple rushing into a trial-and-error approach. It is a way of minimising surface approaches.

In connection with the teaching of the pronunciation of English suprasegmental phonemes, being engaged in reflection process, students will make use

of their existing experience for testing ideas and assumptions exploratively. They, though in uncertain situations or in trouble with such features (e.g. intonation, rhythm, and stress) which are indisputably commonly considered complicated to master, will strive for a solution, a commitment to continuous learning by seeking new ideas, evaluating and reflecting on their impact and trying out new practices and ways of learning to improve their own effectiveness in the learning environment.

Cercone (2008) notes that adults need to self-reflect on the learning process. For this, she suggests that instructors provide ways most possible for learners to engage in metacognitive reflection such as the use of logs and reflective journals. In the present study, video is chosen to help create a condition which best favors reflective learning. Video has fixative property, with which it can record, save, and reproduce information when needed (Suwatno, 2012). With these characteristics, students can utilize video to record, play and replay events.

In recounting situations, the immediacy of the moment recorded in video is not lost, as is the behavior in relation to the emotion/ feeling. This provides the opportunity to talk through the experience. In this way, the adult learners/ students can be motivated to learn by internal rewards, such as increased self-esteem and a sense of accomplishment. By using the recorded communicative events, students have video feedback on their development. This also highlights their strengths, which they often ignore. They can then modify their behavior accordingly, either in isolation or with support of teacher and/or peers. Facial expressions and gestures that often accompany accented utterances will be of special interest to students. This all helps raise learners' awareness. True awareness develops in adult but not in child (Thompson and Gaddes, 2005). However, degree of reflectivity can be boosted with reflection process. It is for this reason teachers should promote and take control over students' reflection process so that their self-awareness becomes optimized. With adequate awareness, learners are able to self-monitor and self-evaluate their own learning. Monitoring and evaluating are essential elements of reflection process.

Reflection is even stronger when the learning of suprasegmental pronunciation is incorporated into oral communication activities that include both reception and production practices. By playing a target model recording, for instance, students can listen and watch and get insight into target linguistic and nonlinguistic (nonverbal) input that is useful for their production. Alip (2009) argues for the value of receptive activity prior to productive task in the teaching

of English suprasegmentals pronunciation. A seemingly similar study by Wulandari et al. (2008) has shown that teaching English pronunciation using audio visual aids resulted in improved suprasegmentals, notably intonation and stress. The currrent study was aimed at describing how reflective learning method can improve the students' pronunciation of English suprasegmental features.

METHOD

The main goal of this research study was to improve the teacher's own instructional practices. Action research was chosen because it is a type of practitioner research that is used to learn and improve classroom practitioner's own teaching activities (Gay and Airasian, 2000). This study adopted Kemmis and McTaggart's model of action research (1986), and involved twenty-four second semester students of Class C2 at the English Language Education Department of Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto, Indonesia. The students attended Pronunciation 2 course in the 2011/2012 academic year. As part of an initial reflection of the teaching practice, a preliminary observation was conducted by a colleague (co researcher) in the author's pronunciation class to record the pre-intervention condition and help identify problems. The collaborative study contained two cycles, each of which comprised three weekly sessions. Every session lasted 100 minutes.

The co researcher participated in most activities of the research. Main learning activities/tasks in each session covered listening to target model, rehearsing monologue or a dialogue, video-recording, and playing video clip. Scripts were provided just to help the students memorise what to say. Videos available on the campus language labs' computers were made use to facilitate students' reflection process.

Two types of data were gathered: data on teaching and learning process (qualitative data) and data on learning outcomes (quantitative data). The qualitative data included teaching and learning activities, teacher's behavior, and student's behavior and perception, while the quantitative data dealt with the test result. Qualitative data were elicited through observation, reflective diary, and interview, while the quantitative data were collected through recorded conversation tasks and tests.

Observations were done by the co researcher using checklist. The students were provided with small notebooks for writing diary and given necessary di-

rection. Interviews with some students were carried out by the co researcher in order that the interviewees feel free in giving response. Monologue or dialogue practice video clips handed in by the students were reviewed, scored and then given written or oral feedback. Tests were administered before and after each cycle and scored by the co researcher and the teacher-researcher independently. The technique employed in the test was reading aloud. A right answer was scored 1, whereas a wrong answer 0. To reduce inconsistency, both raters equipped themselves with guidelines developed beforehand.

Qualitative data were analysed via analytic induction method to identify common themes and to extract narratives of experience. Quantitative data were analysed to calculate statistical frequencies, percentages, and means. Triangulation – more than one methods of investigation – was employed to establish validity of the research (Bryman, 1988), namely investigator triangulation and method triangulation.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

In regard to the use of reflective learning method in this action research study, the intervention was a successful attempt to improve the pronunciation of English suprasegmental features. Reflective learning method using video which was integrated into communicative, meaningful language activities has encouraged student involvement in the learning process. Involvement was primary concern of the pre-intervention condition. Student involvement increased as most observed behavior was detected during teaching-learning process. Behavior that fostered student involvement included answering questions spontaneously, responding to learning tasks, seriously doing in-class works, and completing learning tasks on time. Figure 1 shows the average occurences of each type of behavior per cycle.

Until the end of intervention implementation, three types of observed behavior: student question raising, feedback giving and self-criticism or self-correction remained a problem even though certain effort had been taken. Within six sessions no students seemed to show initiative for raising questions (behavior 3) and a few gave feedback to peers (behavior 5) and commented on their own performance or self-corrected own errors (behavior 6).

Dealing with student learning process, the results in first cycle indicated that the students' activity in following the teaching-learning process reached an average of 57.37% compared to the criteria of succes of intervention which was

60%. Minor revisions in intervention implementation eventually brought about better teaching-learning quality in second cycle. As can be seen from Figure 2, a number of behavior identified from session to session tended to increase.

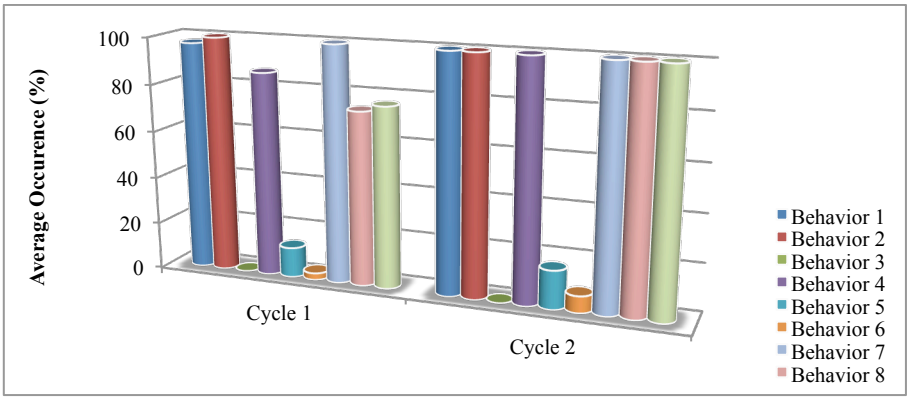

Figure 1. Number of Occurences of Behavior by Type per Cycle

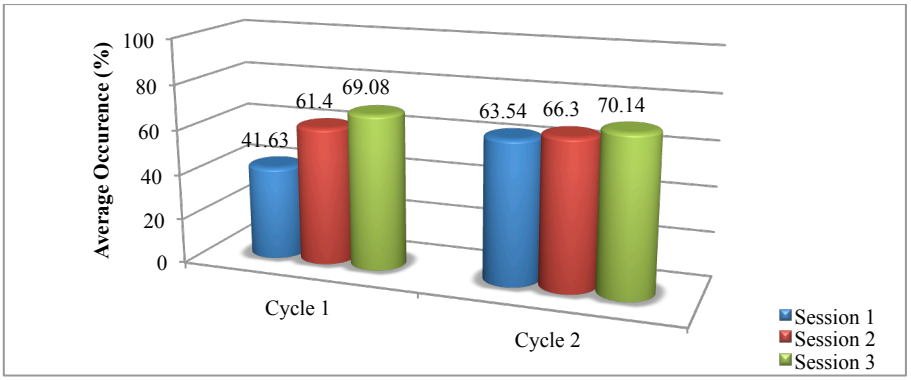

Figure 2. Number of Occurences of Behavior per Session

It is interesting to see that a majority of the students gave positive response to the instruction adopted. Based on the data elicited through diary, five to six categories of response have been identified, as illustrated in Figure 3.

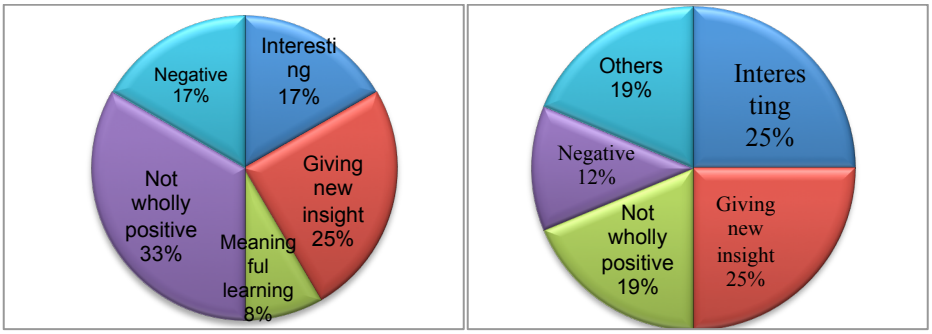

Figure 3. Sample of Student Responses to the Instruction

"Not wholly positive" constituted responses that contained partly negative responses. "Others" were responses that seemed irrelevant or did not fall into any category already mentioned, for example notes on stress patterns, or personal health. Figure 3 shows that positive responses make up around 50 to 83 percent of the whole responses at the end of first cycle (left) and 50 to 69 percent at the end of second cycle (right).

The improved learning process was followed by a rise in learning outcome. From the pre-intervention formative test result (baseline), it was revealed that only 4.16% of the students passed, i.e., those achieving a score no less than 50 (left). It rose sharply up to 65.21% in first cycle, and increased to 73.9% in second cycle. The average score reached was 16.25. It increased up to 53.7 in first cycle, and slightly went up to 57.17. It means the students' pronunciation mastery improved from cycle to cycle. Since the other indicator against criteria for success of implementation intervention was; 60% of students get minimum score of 50, this standard had already been met in first cycle. Figure 4 shows the students' pronunciation mastery before and after intervention.

It is wise to value the gain from first to second cycle, as the material taught in second cycle, i.e. stress, is considered more complicated compared to the one taught in the previous cycle, i.e. intonation. A student commented in native language in the diary: "... Today I am learning the stress of English. I think it is more complicated than intonation..."

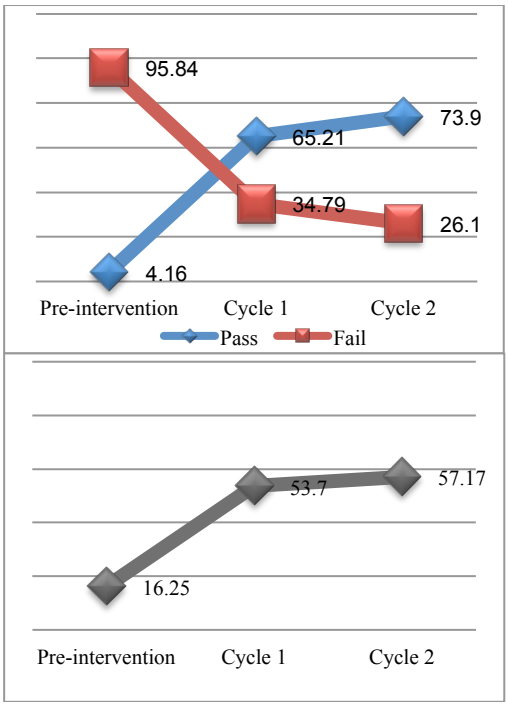

Figure 4. Students' Pronunciation Mastery of English Suprasegmentals

Within two cycles, the students' result of doing in-class learning tasks reached an average score of 3.86 (using a 5 point scale), whereas the outside class work, that is, conversation recordings submitted in the last session of each cycle showed some students' pronunciation has been much better than before the intervention was adopted. Their speech became no longer flat, filled with intonation and stress. Better segmental and suprasegmental features (i.e. connected speech) that were previously poor were also heard in their speech. In short, students' pronunciation to a some extent sounded 'more English'.

The improved student involvement in the learning process after reflective learning method was thought of to be attributable to the opportunity for using language through listening to/watching target models activity prior to production. In addition to insight into the target language in use, the students took advantage of the spoken texts as aural linguistic input along with nonlinguistic

input, such as facial movement and gestures for use in production later. This could raise self-confidence in giving oral response. Having listened to native speaker target model recording, the students almost spontaneously and enthusiastically answered questions asked by the teacher about the recording. That is why, when listening to a segment of video file containing news reading whose speech was too fast for his/her level, a student wrote the following complaint in native language in the diary: '...but when the video was being played I could not follow a lot just because it was too fast, so I could not catch the words.' This means that it is necessary to have a better teaching preparation in order that learning is optimum. However, the listening/watching activity prior to productive activity was quite useful receptive skill practice to the students. This is in line with what Alip (2009) argues for in another section of this article.

During the teaching and learning activities using the method, the students also benefited from pronouncing experience in oral activities, though they just rehearsed a monologue or dialogue in front of video camera. Pronunciation teaching was not explicit any more. Instead, it was immersed in spoken communication activities. This is highly consistent with the views of many researchers and experts, including Derwing (2009) that teaching pronunciation should be integrated into oral communication skills. When making a video clip task came, the students looked eager responding to it and were busy as well as serious to rehearse the text, record, review and correct their own production. Noise and serious faces were all the atmosphere of the class during this period of recording making. This was the impact of active involvement in doing learning tasks, as the result of having reflective learning. The students became accustomed to recognising suprasegmental features produced by speakers in the target model video files, then they tried out the ways the speakers pronounce the suprasegmentals, critically reviewed production (i.e. by comparing their own production to target model) and had self-correction or mutual correction with peers in teaching and learning activities.

Interestingly enough, this part of the lessons was always longed for by the students. A student wrote this: 'Making a video clip, it is fascinating. I can express...' While making a recording, the students listened to/watched themselves on the computer monitor while producing verbal as well as nonverbal expressions. Having finished recording, they immediately replayed their recording (perhaps more than once), critically reviewed their speech and nonverbal expressions, quite possibly remembered prior errors, and corrected or refined them. In other words, the students carried out self-monitoring and self-

evaluation for the pronunciation of English suprasegmental phonemes in terms of on-line listening or monitoring (while speaking), off-line monitoring (after speaking), evaluating (whether criteria are being fulfilled), and correcting orally. With pronunciation model as shown on the recording that was played before conversation recording activity (and already available on each lab's computer in the last session), it was assumed that progress checking process or monitoring and evaluating the process of learning the pronunciation of suprasegmental aspects, i.e. English intonation and stress patterns, by the students went on well.

As adult learners, the students took advantage of the development of self-awareness in the form of self-monitoring and self-evaluation, that does not exist in children (Thompson and Gaddes, 2005). Their self-awareness was fostered by reflective learning method adopted. Self-monitoring and self-evaluating were associated with ability to manage learning (Wenden, 1991). In the teaching of suprasegmental pronunciation adopting reflective learning method, most of the students perceived that they were self-aware of what was going on during, after and before learning. A student commented: 'My speech is a mess, but I am trying again. Honestly, I want this way of learning to take place so often that I get accustomed to speaking English, instead of nontarget-like English.' Some students not only expressed learning difficulty being encountered, but also a clear plan, as in the following '...today's lesson is confusing because verb and adjective stress seems uncertain. Need to learn much from dictionary, the internet, or wherever...' The students' capacity for managing their own learning has developed fast; hence, it is not hard to assume that the students' learning and practice has extended to outside classroom context.

One concern that emerged in the intervention implementation was the absence and lack of occurence of those three types of observed behavior, in spite of a particular effort done. However, relative to cultural perspectives, perhaps it is understandable. Indonesia has emerged as one of the most collectivist societies (Giles, 2003). According to Lee (2011), in most collectivist cultures, people tend to worry about losing face. Student culture exerts a potent effect on behavior in class. Taking this perspective into account, it is quite possible that students in the current study were afraid of losing face, so they avoided asking questions. If they asked questions it could mean showing-offs. If a student asked questions in class, it may also have been regarded as losing face because it indicated that he/she was not able to follow the lesson.

A student commented: 'I am still a bit confused, but if I want to ask a question to Mr. Ton using English I am afraid of making mistakes.' This was written in the diary in the last session of second cycle. It was a proof that the effect of the culture was so strong that the students got upset and forgot that they later would be permitted to ask questions in their mother tongue, and on a piece of paper if it was necessary.

In previous study conducted at secondary level, the similar crisis of self-confidence to ask questions had been resolved through encouragement and material reward, i.e. snack (Suwartono and Mayaratri, 2011). Nonetheless, this was not fully applied to the present research considering that it would not work equally well to adult learners. Giving extra points was chosen instead. Asking questions in class needs strong courage. A less self-confident student would rather wait than ask a question even when he/she does not understand something. This hinders learning, as things remained puzzled. Some data elicited through diaries also led to a conclusion that some students still encountered learning difficulties.

In addition, Lee (2011) states that in collectivist culture, it is quite rare that students in class would take the initiatives; usually they just keep silent. They are often reluctant to answer questions; they do not express their opinions freely in class. Bearing the finding above in mind, those three types of culturally bound behavior are a challenge faced by teacher-researchers, in this case those who work in the Indonesian culture.

The problems that emerged in the pre-intervention condition were no longer found in the teaching-learning of pronunciation of English suprasegmental features through reflective learning method. Previously, the "menu" of classroom activity was not appealing; after reflective method was applied, the students perceived that the classroom instruction was fascinating. The students had received inadequate listening to model activity prior to production practice; in the reflective learning, listening to/watching short segment of video file was a routine. Additionally, the greater portion of teacher talk time, too much drill, and teacher-centered activity in the former teaching-learning process was replaced by communicative, meaningful teaching-learning process through conversation during video recording task in reflective learning practice.

The use of reflective method in teaching and learning has impact on students' mastery of suprasegmental features being taught. Sufficient result of doing in-class learning tasks has affected their performance in completing outside-class task. An outside class pair-work conversation recording made by two

very weak students in first cycle, for example, contained mostly accented and connected utterances. In second cycle, another student even managed to use intonation, stress, and connected speech almost perfectly through their outside class work conversation video clips. With this improved use of intonation, stress, and connected speech, most students' pronunciation of English was to some extent no longer strong Indonesian or Javanese accent. Their utterances in monotones were less spoken; meanwhile, melodies of varying kinds became more often heard, with rising and falling intonation. In other words, their pronunciation sounded foreign-accented to some degree to be 'more English'. In previous study on connected speech by the author, it was revealed that songs helped students learn English connected speech (Suwartono, 2012). It shows how creativity in the part of teacher is vital.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

To sum up, the reflective learning method using video incorporated into oral communication activities has improved student learning process of English suprasegmental phonemes. The method adopted has boosted students' involvement in learning the pronunciation of English suprasegmental phonemes. The students got involved in adequate language practice and monitoring as well as evaluating their own learning. In addition, a majority of the students gave positive response to the instruction adopted.

The students' pronunciation mastery of English suprasegmentals considerably increased and reached the preset standard. With sufficient improvement in the mastery of suprasegmentals, notably intonation and stress, the conversation video clips handed in have apparently shown that most students' English pronunciation to some extent sounded "more English."

There are a number of implications and suggestions in light of the key findings of this research. As action research is unique within its context, for college instructors of English who face a similar problem teaching suprasegmental features, reflective learning method is a recommended solution to such problem with adaptations to existing condition. Teachers of English should care enough for suprasegmental features that are important to improve communicative competence yet have so far been neglected. Finding a way to encourage learners of English to convey intention through questions, comments, ideas is a challenge that faces instructors of English at tertiary education in Indonesia. Creativity and innovation is, therefore, quite needed by teachers, including

teachers of pronunciation. Through this being essentially *naturalistic* action research study, teachers can autonomously sharpen their creativity, innovation, critical thinking and reasoning skills while their students learn naturally. Finally, students are hopefully inspired with the learning experience obtained from the lessons. With the reflective learning experience, they creatively initiate search for relevant ways to learn pronunciation on their own, for instance, by using the video feature on cell-phones to make video clips. Control over own learning in class that extends to outside the class like this often leads to the growth of learner autonomy, as whether being aware or not learners feel committed to their own learning.

REFERENCES

Alip, F. B. (2009, October). Introducing segmental and suprasegmental aspects of English phonology to Indonesian students. *Proceedings of the 2009 UAD TEFL National Conference.*

Benson, P. (2001). *Teaching and researching autonomy in language learning*. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.

Bryman, A. (1988). *Quantity and quality in social research*. London: Unwin Hyman Ltd.

Cercone, K. (2008). Characteristics of adult learners with implications for online learning design. *AACE Journal*, *16*(2), 137-159. Retrieved from http://www.editlib.org/d/24286.

Derwing, T. M. (2009). Utopian goals for pronunciation teaching. *Proceedings of the 1st Pronunciation in Second Language Learning and Teaching Conference*, Iowa: Iowa State University.

Gay, L. R., & Peter, A. (2000). *Educational research: competencies for analysis and application*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Giles, S. (2003). Social support provision and cultural values in Indonesia and Britain. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 34*(10), 1-6.

Hillier, Y. (2002). *Reflective teaching in further and adult education*. London: Continuum.

Kemmis, S., & McTaggart, R. (Eds.). 1986. *The action research planner*. Geelong, Australia: Deakin University Press.

Kolb D. A. (1984). *Experiential learning experience as a source of learning and development*, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Lee, J. (2011). English learning styles of students from East Asian countries: a focus on reading strategies. *International Education Studies*, *4*(2), 75-81.

O'Neal, G. (2010). The effects of the presence and absence of suprasegmental on the intelligibility and assessment of an expanding-circle English according to other expanding-circle English listeners. *JAIRO (Japanese Institutional Repositories Online)*. Retrieved from http://www.dspace.lib. niigata.ac.jp:8080/dspace/bitstream/.../1/15_65-87.pdf.

Suwartono, T. and Puspita M. (2011). Handling the EFL students' crisis of self-confidence to ask questions. *Sino-US English Teaching*, *8*(1), 24-31.

Suwartono. (2012). Songs helped them learn the English connected speech. *Proceedings of International Conference on English Language and Literature (ICELL)*.

Suwatno. (2012). Pengembangan media VCD konteks pertanian pada pembelajaran bahasa Indonesia aspek mendengarkan dan menulis pengumuman di SD/MI kelas IV semester 2. *Seloka: Jurnal Pendidikan Bahasa dan Sastra Indonesia*, *1*(1), 63-68.

Thompson, T., & Matt G. (2005). The importance of teaching pronunciation to adult learners. *Asian EFL Journal*, *2*, 1-5.

Wenden, A. (1991). *Learner strategies for learner autonomy: Planning and implementing learner training for language learners*. Hertfordshire: Prentice-Hall Europe.

Wulandari, A., Malikatul L., & Aryati P. (2008). Improving students' pronunciation using audio visual Aids (AVAs) at the fifth year of Al-Azhar Syifa Budi Elementary School of Surakarta in academic Year 2007/2008 (a Classroom Action Research). *Kajian Linguistik dan Sastra*, *20*(1), 1-10.

LANGUAGE PROBLEMS IN APPLIED LINGUISTICS: LIMITING THE SCOPE

A. Effendi Kadarisman
(effendi.kadarisman@gmail.com)

Universitas Negeri Malang
Jalan Semarang 5 Malang 65145, Indonesia

Abstract: This article critically discusses the paradigmatic shift in applied linguistics, resulting in a claim that countless real-world language problems fall within its scope, but in reality they weaken the discipline and make it lack a focus. Then it takes a closer look at the nature of these language problems, and picks out, for analysis, real examples of writing problems in ELT in Indonesian context. It further argues that, by focusing primarily on problems in ELT and SLA, applied linguistics reaffirms its well-defined position and underscores its significant contributions to both disciplines. Finally, it concludes the discussion by adding some notes on the question of autonomy in both applied linguistics and in ELT in Indonesia.

Keywords: applied linguistics, language problems, paradigmatic shift, ELT in Indonesia, question of autonomy

In applied linguistics (AL) today the term 'language problem' has become a key concept. Davies (2004) argues that the discipline is primarily devoted to seeking "a practical answer to a language problem" (p. 19). Along this line of argument, McCarthy (2001, p. 1), citing Brumfit (1991, p. 46), states that applied linguistics tries to offer solutions to "real-world problems in which language is a central issue"; and hence it is appropriately called "a problem-driven discipline" (p. 3). Similarly, Cook and Wei (2009, p. 3) use the term "real-world language problems", and note that the International Association of Applied Linguistics specifies the term as "practical problems of language and communication" (p. 1). Likewise, Davies and Elder (2004) use a similar term "social problems involving language" (p. 1).

A problem arises when applied linguistics tries to encompass all kinds of real-world language problems. This huge and unlimited scope of AL may suggest, on the one hand, that AL has become a very powerful discipline, taking up everything concerning language and any of its related problems. On the other hand, it implies that AL lacks a focus; for when it deals with everything, it eventually deals with nothing (Hult, 2008, p. 12).

'Language problems' in AL thus present themselves as puzzling phenomena, which deserve serious attention and need further investigation. Accordingly, the present article raises five inter-related questions. Why do language problems in AL seem to be limitless and endless? What is the nature of language problems in AL? What does ELT in Indonesian context look like, particularly in dealing with writing problems? What is the actual role of AL vis-à-vis ELT and SLA? What is the nature of AL relationship with theoretical linguistics? Answers to these five questions are the major concerns of this article; and they are presented in order.

PARADIGMATIC SHIFT: FROM *LINGUISTICS APPLIED* TO *APPLIED LINGUISTICS*

The seemingly endless 'language problems' making up the boundless scope of AL are probably the effect of paradigmatic shift in the discipline. Applied linguists today (see, e.g., Davies and Elder, 2004; McCarthy, 2001; Widdowson, 1984) claim that AL is *not* simply the application of linguistic theories, principles, methods, or techniques for the purpose of solving language problems at hand. On the contrary, AL is now an autonomous and independent discipline (Rajagopalan, 2004). Although the word 'linguistics' stands, syntactically, as the *head* being modified by 'applied' in the given name 'applied linguistics', AL is no longer under the shadow of linguistics, let alone an offshoot of it. In fact, (theoretical or context-free) linguistics is only one of the numerous disciplines (such as sociolinguistics, pragmatics, discourse analysis, psychology, sociology, education, and many more) to which AL relates in a collaborative, *not* a dependent manner (Cook and Wei, 2009; Spolsky, 2008).

Along this line of argument, Davies and Elder (2004), following Widdowson (2000), have distinguished between *Linguistics Applied* (LA) and *Applied Linguistics* (AL). The former, also termed 'applications of linguistics', refers to "the assumption that the [language] problem can be reformulated by the direct and unilateral application of concepts and terms deriving from lin-

guistic enquiry itself" (p. 9). In my opinion, one best example of LA can be seen in the direct application of Bloomfieldian linguistic principles in the field of FL teaching, producing the well-known Audiolingual Method (ALM), summarized in Table 1. As shown in this table, the relationship between the linguistic principles and their application in the ALM is quite straightforward. All the three principles and their applications are self-explanatory and need no further explanation.

Table 1. Bloomfieldian Principles and their Application in the ALM

Linguistic Principles	Application in the ALM
Language is primarily speech.	Teach speech before writing.
Language is a set of habits.	Do drilling as the best way of forming FL habits.
Every language is different.	Do contrastive analysis as the basis for material development and predicting errors.

The first scholarly attempt to build the ALM began with the work of Fries (1945) and reached its peak in the work of Lado (1964). Lado's book *Language Teaching* bears the sub-title *A Scientific Approach*, which implicitly refers to the claim that linguistics is a *science* in the sense that physics or chemistry is a science (Bloomfield, 1933, p. 33). One important characteristic of a science is providing "high precision" in describing its objects of investigation. Thus 'scientific approach' means linguistics-based approach and hence provides 'guidance of high precision' as how to conduct FL teaching.

By and large, Lado's *Language Teaching* can be seen as the 'holy bible' for the ALM. It succinctly outlines linguistic and psychological principles of language learning and language teaching (see chapters 4 and 5). It defines 'learning a second language' as "acquiring the ability to use its structure within a general vocabulary under essentially the conditions of normal communication among native speakers at conversational speed" (p. 38). Overall, the book is a complete manual of FL teaching geared toward helping the learners to achieve structural and lexical mastery as the basis for communicative ability.

In other words, according to the ALM, mastering a second language begins with mastering language form and moves toward proficiency in language function. The well-known instructional materials faithfully based on the ALM are *English 900* series, which had world-wide circulation during the 1970s. In Indonesia, during the 1970s through the early 1980s *Student Book* and its *Sup-*

plementary Reader (volumes 1, 2, 3, respectively) for senior high schools were also ALM-based materials. In sum, despite its failure owing to the wrong linguistic and psychological assumptions (Brown, 2001, pp. 23-24), the ALM is probably one best example of LA (Linguistics Applied) in the field of FL teaching.[1]

By contrast, while LA can be seen as direct application of linguistic principles to solve a given problem, AL requires "intervention [as] a matter of mediation"; [it] has to relate and reconcile different representations of reality, including that of linguistics without excluding others" (Davies and Elder, 2004, p. 9). An excellent example is given by Widdowson (1984, p. 14) in his critique of Chomsky's (1957, p. 87) famous examples:

(1) Flying planes can be dangerous.

This sentence is syntactically ambiguous, interpretable in two different ways:

(2) a. It can be dangerous to fly planes.
b. Planes which fly can be dangerous.

While paraphrase (2.b) is syntactically acceptable, it is, according to Widdowson, pragmatically vacuous. What a plane does is of course fly; and why should it be dangerous? He further goes on providing a pragmatically acceptable interpretation.

(3) a. Planes can be dangerous when they fly.
b. Planes can be dangerous when flying.
c. Planes can be dangerous flying.
d. Flying planes can be dangerous.

The series of paraphrases in (3) make up a brilliant argument. While sentence (1) by Chomsky is syntactically ambiguous but somewhat meaningless pragmatically, paraphrase (3.d) by Widdowson, which has gone through a long derivation from (3.a), is not only syntactically ambiguous but also pragmatically

---

[1] Another example of LA in the sense of 'applications of linguistics', particularly in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT), is Allen's (1964) *Readings in Applied English Linguistics*. This book is a collection of 62 articles, showing the practical use of linguistic knowledge—derived, then, mostly from the well-established Bloomfieldian school and partly from the newly emerging Chomskyan school—in teaching English, both as a national language in the United States and as a foreign language, in either the United States or other countries.

meaningful. This is a great example of providing 'a different representation of reality'.

Widdowson (1984, pp. 9-10) further notes the major difference between linguistic analysis and native speaker's intuition. In linguistic analysis, accurate description is the ultimate goal, allowing 'no tolerance for vague notion, imprecision, and ambiguity'. Conversely, 'communicative behavior' which represents native speakers' communicative competence 'is [often] vague, imprecise, and ambiguous'. This can be seen through the difference between 'syntactic ambiguity' and 'pragmatic indeterminacy'. Syntactic ambiguity can always be resolved by drawing different tree structures and providing paraphrases, revealing that a given syntactic construction (in natural language data) may be ambiguous in two or three different ways—as illustrated by *Flying planes can be dangerous* in (1).

On the other hand, pragmatic indeterminacy, as the term suggests, may have countless interpretations depending on the given context. Consider the following utterances by A and B in dialogue (4).

(4) A: Will you?
B: Of course.

The question and answer in elliptical forms here imply that the 'speaker meanings' are determined by a previous 'text', that is, a previous verbal communication by both interlocutors A and B. Now the reader can imagine unlimited numbers of previous conversations which allow the generation of both utterances in (4) and at the same time determine their communicative intents.

For the sake of economy, Table 2 gives a summary contrasting between LA and AL, or between the old and new paradigms pertaining to applied linguistics. As shown in Table 2, LA, which belongs to the old paradigm, is a dependent discipline subsumed under theoretical linguistics, whose primary task is applying linguistic principles to solve language problems, particularly those in the area of FL teaching and learning. In contrast, AL, which claims to have set up a new paradigm, relates to linguistics in a collaborative manner; and hence it is an autonomous problem-driven discipline. It is concerned with real-world language problems and tries to offer the best possible solutions by relating them, either directly or indirectly, not only to linguistics but also to other relevant disciplines. Briefly, the paradigmatic shift from LA to AL is not only a liberating move from affiliation to autonomy, but also an exploding coverage

of the subject matter: from the limited problems in the area of FL teaching and learning to a boundless scope covering practically all kinds of language problems.

Table 2. Comparing Linguistics Applied with Applied Linguistics

Parameter	**APPLIED LINGUISTICS**	
	Old Paradigm (LA)	**New Paradigm (AL)**
relation to theoretical linguistics	hierarchical or affiliated	partnership or collaborative
status as a discipline	dependent	independent or autonomous
*nam*e and method	*Linguistics Applied* = applying linguistic principles to solve FL teaching and learning problems	*Applied Linguistics* = identifying problems and finding solutions in a systematic way (problem-driven discipline)
scope of subject matter	limited to / focused on FL teaching and learning	any real-world language-related problem

A cautionary note is necessary here. The term 'LA' (as an old paradigm) is given by present-day applied linguists to justify that AL is an independent discipline, going far beyond the applications of linguistics and hence no longer under its domination. Former scholars such as Fries (1945) and Lado (1964), however, never saw themselves that way, but rather conceived themselves and were admitted by other contemporary and forthcoming scholars as pioneers in the field of FL teaching. By analogy, one often considers oneself 'a good guy' by pointing a finger at (frequently dead) enemies and calls them 'bad guys'. The derogatory term LA is probably needed to promote the position of AL and makes it look promising academically.

A CLOSER LOOK AT LANGUAGE PROBLEMS IN APPLIED LINGUISTICS

This section provides an answer to the second question: What is the nature of language problems in AL? Before answering this question, it is necessary to take a look at the 'lists of possible problems' making up the scope of AL, as proposed, for example, by Cook (2003), Davies and Elder (2004), and McCarthy (2001). Cook (2003, pp. 7-8) identifies three headings as follows: (1) language and education; (2) language, work, and law; and (3) language, infor-

mation, and effect. The *first* heading includes (a) first-language education; (b) second- and foreign-language education; (c) clinical linguistics; and (d) language testing. The *second* heading includes (a) workplace communication; (b) language planning; and (c) forensic linguistics. The *third* heading includes (a) literary stylistics; (b) critical discourse analysis; (c) translation and interpretation; (d) information design; and (e) lexicography.

Davies and Elder (2004, p. 1) present the language problems in a series of questions. They are problems in the areas of (a) language teaching; (b) speech pathology; (c) translation and interpretation; (d) language testing; (e) bilingual program; (f) literacy; (g) discourse analysis; (h) medium of instruction; (i) second language acquisition; and (j) legal language.

McCarthy (2001, p. 1) gives a list of 14 problems—in the following areas: (a) speech therapy; (b) foreign language teaching; (c) legal language; (d) advertising; (e) report writing; (f) historic naming; (g) language testing; (h) literary studies; (i) lexicography; (j) machine translation; (k) language planning; (l) international navigation; (m) primate/animal communication; and (n) medical sociology. Then McCarthy adds "the list could continue, and … is quite likely to grow even bigger over the years" (p. 2).

Under critical examination, the three long lists of language problems above teach us three important lessons. First, as noted earlier, AL has become so ambitious that it tries to claim that every language-related problem is within the confines of its subject matter. This has been criticized by Cook and Wei (2009), saying, "definitions of applied linguistics now are more like lists of the areas that make it up" (p. 1). In other words, AL has no focus of scholarly interest, making "the applied linguist a Jack of all trades", one who "knows a little about many areas" (p. 2). If so, then AL seems to have failed to become a field of specialization.

Secondly, it is doubtful that people encountering all of those language problems listed above will come and consult with applied linguists for the best possible solutions. Many areas listed above are academic disciplines of their own; discourse analysis, critical discourse analysis, lexicography, and forensic linguistics are sub-fields of linguistics. And language planning is much closer to sociolinguistics than to AL. Under the umbrella of 'language education', foreign language teaching, language testing, and second language acquisition are autonomous disciplines; and so is translation. Advertising probably needs more insight from stylistics than from AL; and stylistics is part of literary studies. Briefly, each of these well-established disciplines has produced scholars of

its own, whose expertise is much needed when problems arise in the discipline. A *Jack of all trades* can never compete against an expert.

Third and finally, the three lists have two things in common: foreign language teaching (FLT) and second language acquisition (SLA)[2]. In fact, they constitute the home base for AL. Despite its claim for such a broad coverage in subject matter, it is these two areas that have been in close contact with AL. Cook and Wei (2009) observe, "The International Association of Applied Linguistics Congress in 2008 had nine papers on first language acquisition compared with 161 on second language acquisition and 138 on foreign language teaching" (p. 1). Clearly, SLA and FLT made up the backbone for the congress. The close connection between FLT and AL is further confirmed by Hult (2008), "The predominant notion of applied linguistics is that it serves the needs of language teaching, particularly ELT" (p. 14).

In brief, the nature of countless language problems in AL is that they are conceived rather imaginary than real. The real problems AL has been dealing with in earnest are problems in FLT and SLA. In is in these two areas that AL has been most successful (Cook & Wei, 2009, p. 3). The following section will take a closer examination of EFL teaching and learning in Indonesia, and pick out examples of naturally occurring classroom problems.

ELT IN INDONESIAN CONTEXT: A CLOSER LOOK AT WRITING PROBLEMS

The term 'problem' is in itself problematic. As Cook and Wei (2009) puts it, "in one sense it means a research question posed in a particular discipline; in another sense it is something that has gone wrong which can be solved" (p. 2). A more careful scrutiny should reveal that, between 'something wrong' and 'research question', there are other possible interpretations of 'problem'. Thus 'problem' has multifarious meanings, ranging from the most negative to the near-neutral. I would propose that the semantic range includes (a) error; (b)

---

[2] The term "second language" or L2 in SLA literature refers to 'any language learned *after* learning the L1, regardless of whether it is the second, third, fourth, or fifth language'. The acquisition of a second language may take place in the formal classroom setting as well as in more natural exposure situations. It is differentiated from *foreign language learning* in that the latter refers to "the learning of a non-native language in the environment of one's native language" (Gass & Selinker, 1994, pp. 4-5; see also Saville-Troike, 2006, p. 4).

controversial issue; (c) difficulty; (d) challenge; and (e) curious phenomenon. 'Error' represents 'something wrong', and 'curious phenomenon' represents 'research question', which is near-neutral.[3] Between them lie 'controversial issue', 'difficulty', and 'challenge'. Each of these meanings requires some explanation.

Before we proceed further, it should be noted in passing that in the field of ELT, teaching and learning are equally important. In fact, the present trend in education suggests moving from the teacher-centered to the learner-centered perspective (Brown, 2001), implying that learning should shape and give direction to teaching rather than the other way around (pp. 46-47). In effect, learning problems often need to be taken into account before teaching problems. Going back to the term 'error', for instance, most likely we are dealing with learning errors, and not teaching errors. Recall that 'error' lies in the extreme negative side of the semantic range presented above.

And what is error? "Errors are the flawed side of learner speech or writing" (Dulay et al., 1982, p. 138). In other words, they are target language forms produced by an L2 learner which deviate from the standard norms. Obviously, errors are learning problems, since the learner has done *something wrong* and needs correction. Here, errors reflect *difficulty* of target language learning. At the same time, however, errors are also teaching problems; they *challenge* the teacher with how to help the learner correct the errors. During the heyday of audiolingualism, errors had to be avoided at all costs, or else they would become part of the new language habits (Brown, 2011, p. 23). However, since the publication of Corder's (1967) "The Significance of Learners' Errors", they have been considered natural and inevitable part of FL learning. These two different opinions of errors make them a *controversial issue*. So errors have now come up as a *curious phenomenon* which needs serious investigation.

This brief discussion of errors makes it clear that errors as language problems fall within all five categories in the semantic range. Errors can be *something wrong* and *difficulty* on the part of EFL learners; they can be a *challenge* for EFL teachers; and they may show up as a *controversial issue* as well as a *curious phenomenon* (a research problem) for L2 researchers. The learning and teaching problems can be very complex in nature; they may interrelate, mutually influence, or affect each other.

---

[3] The term 'near-neutral' is used to refer to 'research question', since the term 'neutral' will be used for 'topic of interest' which will be part of the discussion in the next section.

In their discussion of errors, Dulay et al. (1982) propose two types of classifying errors: linguistic category taxonomy and surface strategy taxonomy (pp. 138-199). Under the former, errors can be grammatical or lexical errors. Under the latter, errors can be errors of omission, addition, double markings, regularization, and misformation. To illustrate, below is a sentence from a narrative written by an Indonesian high school student.[4] The errors in (5) are shown by putting the words in italics.

(5) If they *fallen* down, certainly not *save*, *beside* the road is cliff.

To help identify the errors, a revised version of this sentence is given in

(6) If they fall down, certainly they will not be safe; on the right/left side of the road is a cliff.

By referring to (6) as the standard from, we can use the linguistic category taxonomy and identify the errors in (5): *fallen* is a grammatical error in verb form; *save* is a lexical error, a verb used in place of an adjective (*safe*); and *beside* is another lexical error, used in place of *on the right/left side of*. Using the surface category taxonomy, we can say that *fallen* is a misformation error. The intended sentence *Certainly not save* contains errors of omission and misformation; and the sentence *beside the road is cliff* contains an error of omission.

What do these errors reveal? If we take a psycholinguistic perspective and look at (5) as a partial manifestation of the learner's interlanguage (see Selinker, 1972), then we can say that those basic grammatical and lexical errors tell us that the learner (a boy) is still at the elementary level. His *interlanguage* or *transitional competence* is barely adequate for him to convey his message in good English. All of his errors are learning problems for him. For the teacher, these problems pose a challenge: how s/he should help the learner correct the errors. Obviously, the learner needs to improve his interlanguage competence; and it means that more intensive teaching is required. For L2 researchers, the errors require in-depth analysis—which reminds us of Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis. The former explains the nature of negative transfer; the latter tells us that the errors indirectly reflect the level of the learner's transitional

---

[4] I am grateful to Yadhi Nur Amin, M.Pd., an English teacher at MAN Lasem, Central Java, for providing me with writing data in the form of recounts written by his second-year students during the 2008/09 academic year.

competence. In a nutshell, errors can be learning, teaching, and research problems.

Now I would like to move ahead and dwell on a *controversial issue*, a doubtful grammaticality judgment on a particular form. Overall, this derives from a personal account of teaching Advanced Applied Linguistics to doctoral students at the School of Graduate Studies (PPs), State University of Malang (UM) during the second semester of the 2011/12 academic year. One brilliant student in the class wrote an excellent essay entitled "Making their Voices Heard: Introducing the Joy of Poetry Writing through Peer Analysis". In this essay, there was a sentence containing a phrase 'quality poems' that was puzzling to me.

(7) Given sufficient exposure to *quality poems*, the students might in turn develop an ability to produce their own piece of poems (italics added).

In my opinion, the phrase was not grammatical. So, I corrected it, changing the phrase into "high-quality poems". The following week, the student came up to me with two sentences (written by English native speakers) containing phrases similar to hers.

Getting more bewildered, I wrote an email to four American colleagues—three linguists (Thomas Conners, Ph.D., Thomas Hunter, Ph.D., and William O'Grady, Ph.D) and one expert in SLA (Margaret DuFon, Ph.D.).

> Dear …
>
> I need your help as a native speaker. Last week, while correcting a paper, I read the phrase "**quality poems**". Then I added "high" and "a hyphen" to the phrase, making it "**high-quality poems**". I thought then that the phrase "quality poems" was not acceptable in English. That is, I (still) think that "quality" cannot stand as a noun modifier standing by itself.
>
> Yesterday, the student came up with very good evidence in support of her phrase. She cited two examples from two different sources:
>
> > *Another quality product from us ...*
> > *They produce quality furniture ...*
>
> Now I realize that I was wrong and she was (and is) right. I need your comments on this matter. Thank you very much for your great help.

> Best regards,
> Effendi

Almost immediately, I obtained three answers: from O'Grady, DuFon, and Hunter. Here is the reply from O'Grady (greeting, closing, and other personal matters omitted):

> The simple answer to your question is that 'quality', used as a modifier, has come to mean 'high-quality'. We also see that even when it is used as a noun, as in 'a person/thing of quality'. Just another example of language marching on ....

DuFon gave a similar answer:

> She is correct. Quality is used as a noun modifier and is in many collocations of quality + noun. I'm not sure how long we've been doing that. It might be an innovation of recent decades. I think one of the first collocations I remember was **quality time**, often used when speaking of the time a single father might spend with his children on week-ends (i.e., though the quantity of time was little, it was more important that that little time be quality time). Also the use of **quality** would entail **high quality**. You wouldn't use it to mean low quality. For that you'd have to actually say low quality.

Interestingly, Hunter gave a different answer (some details omitted):

> In regards to using the noun quality as an adjective I'm on your side of the fence. …
>
> Basically I think the use of "quality" as an adjective is barbarous, and yet another sign that journalese is remaking the English language. Yes, we find "quality product" and "quality merchandise" etc. etc. but that is not the King's English. It is the language of advertising people who could care less about correct usage. …
>
> I would go with your side of things and prefer **"high-quality" poems**, which puts things into correct form, at the same time admitting to the student that there are plenty of examples out there of "quality" used as an adjective. If you are old-fashioned like me you can admit that to your student as your blood boils and

> you wish you could take an axe and go into some advertising agency somewhere and smash their furniture …

Therefore, this is the story of 'quality poems'; it is a 'controversial issue' in prescriptive grammar, a 'difficulty' that gives a 'challenge' to me as an instructor. Two native speakers judge it correct; but one native speaker considers it wrong. Personally, I feel relieved because Dr. Thomas Hunter goes along and agrees with me. At least, my grammaticality judgment is not as bad as I thought it was. This story relates to ultimate attainment in FL learning or L2 acquisition. Saville-Troike (2006, p. 17) argues that the ultimate attainment is called 'multilingual competence', significantly different from 'native competence' as the ultimate attainment in L1 acquisition. I completely agree with this statement. Upon reflection, I am fully aware that my multilingual competence in English can never compete against my native competence in Indonesian. Whenever I am in doubt about correct grammar or usage in English, I always seek help from my native-speaker colleagues.

To sum up, EFL teaching and learning problems in Indonesian context require serious attention from applied linguists. The two illustrative examples selected in writing errors and grammaticality judgment are meant to demonstrate that naturally occurring problems (even when limited to the classroom context) can be very complex in nature, and truly challenging to ELT and AL scholars. Of course, there are dozens or even hundreds of other real teaching and learning problems which need equally serious attention and investigation, and eventually well thought-out solutions. The urgent point now is that AL should stop claiming that any language-related problem falls within its scope, and go back attending to problems in ELT and SLA.

APPLIED LINGUISTICS IN INDONESIA: ELT AND SLA AS MAJOR CONCERNS

The claim for countless and ever-growing language problems as constituting AL subject matter has been prevalent in recent textbooks: Cook's (2003) *Applied Linguistics*, Cook and Wei's (2009) *Contemporary Applied Linguistics*, Davies and Elder's (2004) *The Handbook of Applied Linguistics*, McCarthy's (2001) *Issues in Applied Linguistics*, and Spolsky and Hult's (2008) *The Handbook of Educational Linguistics*. Thus the claim that AL scope has been continually expanding occurs in the international sphere. Therefore, the aims of

the critique launched in this article are twofold: first, to point out that the ambitious claim of AL in the global sphere is more pretentious than realistic; and secondly, to keep the current practice of AL in Indonesia that has remained faithful in serving the needs primarily of ELT and secondarily of SLA.

In support of the second aim, the 5th Conference on Applied Linguistics (CONAPLIN), held at Indonesia University of Education (UPI) in September 2012, can be taken as a useful reference. The theme of the conference was "Language Teacher Development in a Globalized World"; and as noted in the leaflet and cited in Table 3, the conference covers eight areas of specialization.[5]

Table 3 tells us that Language Teaching, with its seven sub-topics, is the most dominant area of the conference, followed by Language Acquisition, which of course includes SLA. To keep the 'applied' nature of AL, the next two areas are *Applied* Psycholinguistics and *Applied* Sociolinguistics (italics added), suggesting that it is the *application* or *practical sides* of both disciplines that are the major concerns. Discourse Analysis and Corpus Studies constitute part of macro-linguistics, or the study of language in *context*, reminding us that solving a real-world language problem is always framed in a particular 'context'. As for Translation and Interpretation, applied linguists are well aware that the act of translating and interpreting always involves *linguistic aspects* pertaining to both the source language and the target language, telling us that this act is partly 'applications of linguistics' is the real sense of the term. Finally, Literary Studies and Social Praxis, placed at the end of the list, looks more like an addendum: who knows there are language-related problems creeping around in literature or in the society that need attention from applied linguists.[6]

---

[5] In putting the areas of coverage in Table 3, I keep the contents of CONAPLIN 5 the same as those in the original leaflet, but organize them differently for the sake of effective discussion.

[6] It would be very useful if the organizing committee of CONAPLIN 5 could provide classifications of the papers presented at the conference. Just as "the International Association of Applied Linguistics Congress in 2008 had 161 papers on second language acquisition and 138 on foreign language teaching" (cited in the 2nd section of this article), I would assume that the majority of the papers for CONAPLIN 5 were also on ELT and SLA. Hence, there were probably only few papers on the other six areas of the conference.

Table 3. Areas of Specialization in CONAPLIN 5

1. Language Teaching a. Teaching Strategies and Techniques b. Teacher Training and Cultivation c. Trends and Challenges in Language Teaching d. Language Teaching Assessment e. Language Teaching Policies f. Curriculum and Material Development g. Language for Specific Purposes	2. First, Second and Foreign Language Acquisition 3. Applied Psycholinguistics 4. Applied Sociolinguistics 5. Discourse Analysis 6. Corpus Linguistics 7. Translation and Interpretation 8. Literary Studies and Social Praxis

This highlight on CONAPLIN 5 ties together three things. First, it is true that AL in Indonesia is primarily concerned with ELT and SLA. Secondly, there is overlap between AL and linguistics, as seen in the inclusion of (Applied) Psycholinguistics, (Applied) Sociolinguistics, Discourse Analysis, and Corpus Linguistics. They are well-known disciplines in linguistics, and are usually also included in linguistics conferences. Finally, the eight areas in CONAPLIN 5 may probably remind us of 'language problems' in AL. Definitely, these eight areas are *not* language problems. However, potentially there are countless *topics of interest* in each area, to be selected and developed into conference papers. Referring back to the *five meanings* of 'problem' discussed earlier (i.e., error, controversial issue, difficulty, challenge, curious phenomenon), a topic of interest sounds much like a curious phenomenon; but it is slightly different. A curious phenomenon is considered 'near-neutral', since it invites investigation; but a topic of interest invites discussion, and so it is considered 'neutral'. This is like doing a hair-splitting business; but for the purpose of achieving descriptive adequacy, the distinction is necessary.

After obtaining good support from CONAPLIN 5, I would like to find more support from the university where I teach. Now going back home and looking at the recent *Catalog, English Department* (2012), State University of Malang (UM), I feel relieved to find out that in the curriculum of each study program, AL goes hand in hand nicely, mostly with ELT and occasionally with SLA (noted in the course descriptions, to be discussed shortly), as shown in Table 4.

Applied Linguistics (shown in italics in Table 4) is there in the S1, S2, and S3 curricula at the English Department at UM; it is a compulsory course only in the S2 curriculum, but an elective course in both S1 and S3 curricula. In both curricula of the two S1 programs the official name of the course is 'Applied Linguistics', in the S2 curriculum 'Critical Review on Applied Linguistics', and in the S3 curriculum 'Advanced Applied Linguistics'. In the study programs of all levels, Applied Linguistics goes together with TEFL and SLA—with varied names for the last two courses.[7]

Notice that the official name for the S1, S2, and S3 study programs is ELT (English Language Teaching), with the S1 study program in English Language and Literature being a different program. Interestingly, all the three courses (AL, TEFL, and SLA) are offered in the study programs of all levels, including the S1 program in English Language and Literature, albeit as elective courses. When students at this S1 study program graduate and want to teach English, the Department has already provided them with some theoretical knowledge and practical skill of how to teach English as a foreign language.

Table 4. Applied Linguistics, TEFL, and SLA in the S1, S2, and S3 Curricula (cited partially) of English Department UM

No.	Study Program	Course	Credit Hours	Offering Status
1	S1 in ELT	*Applied Linguistics*	2	elective
		TEFL	4	compulsory
		Second Language Acquisition	2	elective
2	S1 in English Language & Literature	*Applied Linguistics*	2	elective
		TEFL	2	elective
		Second Language Acquisition	2	elective
3	S2 in ELT	Critical Review on *Applied Linguistics*	2	compulsory
		Methods of TEFL	2	compulsory
		Critical Review on SLA Research	2	compulsory

[7] The S1, S2, and S3 curricula of the English Department at UM are partially cited here as *an example* needed for analysis. S1 curricula of English Departments throughout Indonesia may probably be different from one another. However, I would assume that the curriculum of every S1 study program in ELT contains the three courses: Applied Linguistics, TEFL, and SLA—with TEFL being the most important. Of course, a survey is needed to verify whether or not my assumption is right.

No.	Study Program	Course	Credit Hours	Offering Status
4	S3 in ELT	Advanced *Applied Linguistics*	3	elective
		Topics in ELT	2	compulsory
		Research in SL Reading	2	elective
		Research in SL Writing	2	elective

Of greater importance are course descriptions for AL offered at the three levels (S1, S2, and S3) of the programs (only relevant parts of the course descriptions contained in the *Catalogue* are cited here, mostly through paraphrases). For both S1 study programs (p. 42), AL provides students with adequate knowledge of the relationship between research findings in linguistics and English language teaching and learning. Obviously, this is practicing AL of the old paradigm.

For the S2 study program (p. 55), AL is also concerned with the application of linguistic principles in FL teaching and learning, but the contents of the course include, among others, reorientation and redefinition of AL as a problem-driven discipline. Here we see that AL has moved one step ahead toward autonomy, although still showing strong dependence on theoretical linguistics.

For the S3 study program (p. 60), AL seeks to point out how linguistic theories influence and give shape to TEFL and SLA. Reorientation of AL is explicitly mentioned, from a theory-affiliated discipline to a problem-driven discipline. Moreover, the major concern is to keep its primary goal: bridging the gap between theoretical linguistics and TEFL as well as SLA. Here we see that AL has become more autonomous, while keeping harmonious relationship with linguistics.

The discussion of the three course descriptions for AL[8] boils down to three major points. First, in the study programs of all levels, AL has been designed to serve the needs of TEFL/ELT and to some extent SLA, suggesting that AL at the English Department at UM has been in the right direction. Secondly, as it redefines itself, AL has gained more freedom and become a *problem*-driven discipline (italics added). It is the term "problem" here that has led (or misled)

[8] The aims and contents of LA course descriptions for the S1, S2, and S3 ELT study programs here can be typical of English Department at UM. LA course descriptions in other English Departments in Indonesia may have different aims and contents. Again, the analysis is given here simply as 'one illustrative example' of what AL looks like in the Indonesian ELT context.

the discipline to claim that any language-related problem falls within the scope of AL. All the arguments presented earlier should be more than adequate in proving the falsity of the claim. Third and last, it is interesting to observe that AL—as going up through the S1, S2, and S3 course descriptions—seems to have been moving on toward much greater autonomy. Now, a crucial question arises. How much autonomy does AL need? This question needs long answers; and they will be given in the following section.

Upon reflection, referring to CONAPLIN 5 and the curricula of S1, S2, and S3 study programs in ELT at the English Department at UM, it is true that AL in Indonesia has been on the right track; it has been in good service to ELT and SLA. There is no need for AL in Indonesia to grab every language-related problem and make it part of its subject matter. Within ELT and SLA alone, there are innumerable problems waiting for AL to attend to. Recall that 'language problem' has a huge range of meanings: error, controversial issue, difficulty, challenge, curious phenomenon, and topic of interest. Accordingly, AL in Indonesia may make considerable progress by focusing on naturally occurring problems in ELT and SLA, which may become more abundant owing to the possibility that each problem may get multiplied by more than one interpretation.

QUESTION OF AUTONOMY IN APPLIED LINGUISTICS (AND ELT IN INDONESIA)

Let us go back to the question: how much autonomy does AL need? Or, in other words, how does AL relate to theoretical linguistics? This question has brought up different answers, settling down eventually to three types of relationship: minimum dependence on linguistics, mutual need between AL and linguistics, and (moderate or strong) reliance on linguistics.

The first position is stated clearly by Cook and Wei (2009), "Linguistics nowadays plays a minimum role in applied linguistics" (p. 2). In fact, linguistics is only one of the contributing disciplines. They further point out that "applied linguists have explored psychological models such as declarative/procedural memory and emergentism, mathematical models such as dynamic systems theory or chaos theory, early Soviet theories of child development such as Vygotsky, French thinkers such as Foucault and Bourdieu—nothing seems excluded" (Cook & Wei, 2009, p. 2). It seems that they have some feeling of dislike toward linguistics; and it turns out to be true. According

to Cook and Wei (2009), "indeed some practitioners radiate hostility toward linguistics, preferring to draw on almost any other area" (p. 3). These scholars have unintentionally dispelled the word 'linguistics' from 'applied linguistics', hence making the discipline in limbo. Most probably, this first position is the position of AL that takes every language-related problem into the confines of its subject matter; and this is a favorable position for the *Jack of all trades* applied linguists.

The second position is best represented by McCarthy (2001, p. 4-5), following earlier steps taken by Widdowson (1980, 1984). McCarthy argues that AL as a problem-driven discipline relates to 'linguistics as a partner', not a mother discipline. Scholars of both disciplines have different responsibilities. The responsibility of linguists is to build theories of language that are verifiable, and to offer models, descriptions, and explanations of language that satisfy not only intellectual rigor but intuition, rationality, and common sense. On the other hand, the responsibility of applied linguists is not simply to 'apply linguistics' but—by looking critically at theories, models, and descriptions of language—to work toward 'relevant models' of their own that best suit the purpose of solving language problems at hand. "The applied linguist is a go-between", noted Cook and Wei (2009, p. 3), whose primary task is "provide an interface between linguists and practitioners where appropriate, and to be able to talk on equal terms to both parties" (McCarthy 2001, p. 5). Although sharing different intellectual responsibilities, McCarthy continues, scholars of both disciplines "should adopt a critical position vis-à-vis the work of their peers, both within and across the two communities" (p. 5). Partnership and equal footing between both disciplines as suggested by McCarthy could be an ideal relationship; but the bare facts should not be overlooked: "theories, models, and descriptions of language" precede 'relevant models' designed by applied linguists. This suggests that, so long as AL derives its own models either directly or indirectly from research findings in linguistics, the claim for the equal footing remains an aspiring ideal rather than an accomplished fact.

The strong reliance on linguistics is proposed by The International Association of Applied Linguistics (AILA 2009), which proclaims that "applied linguistics is an interdisciplinary field of research and practice dealing with practical problems of language and communication that can be identified, analysed or solved by applying available theories, methods or results of Linguistics or by developing new theoretical and methodological frameworks in Linguistics to work on these problems" (Cook & Wei, 2009, p. 1). In this definition, AL

looks like a daughter discipline, whose job is to solve language problems by applying linguistics or inventing a linguistics-based framework. This position of strong dependence is probably rejected by most present-day applied linguists.

On the other hand, the moderate reliance on linguistics can be seen in the work of Cook (2003), who defines AL as "the academic discipline concerned with the relation of knowledge about language to decision making in the real world" (p. 5). He states that at present there is a difficult relationship between AL and linguistics. Both context-free linguistics (best represented by generative linguistics) and context-bound linguistics (as represented particularly by sociolinguistics, functional linguistics, and discourse analysis) have moved along at the conceptual level: trying to describe and explain, and eventually build a theory or draw general principles of language. This is of course so far apart from the AL decision-making business in dealing with real-world language problems (Cook, 2003, pp. 9-10).

And yet, despite the different goals of both disciplines, Cook still believes in the significant role of linguistics. He states that LA methodology is by necessity complex; "it must refer to the findings and theories of linguistics, choosing among different schools and approaches, and making these theories relevant to the problem at hand" (Cook, 2003, p. 10). On the one hand, this scheme is very similar to what Widdowson (1984) calls 'relevant models', which take into account not only linguistic descriptions but also native speakers' intuition. On the other hand, the scheme is in accord with McCarthy's (2001) proposal for "theoretical stance" without making "theoretical allegiance" (pp. 5-7). Theoretical stance means that AL should build its own 'theory' or systematic way of approaching L2 learning and teaching problems, whereas theoretical allegiance refers to choosing one particular linguistic theory with the belief that it is the 'best theory' for FL teaching.

In the past, theoretical allegiance showed up in the global sphere (with its massive influence in Indonesia during the 1970s and early 1980s) in the adoption of Bloomfieldian linguistics together with behaviorist psychology as foundations for the Audiolingual Method. Then, scholars came to realize that L2 acquisition is a lot more than habit formation through drilling; for L2 in the making is in fact an independent and dynamic language system of its own, called 'interlanguage' (Selinker, 1972) or 'transitional competence' (Corder, 1967). Notice that the term 'competence' here originates from Chomsky (1965, p. 4), carrying with it a strong flavor of mentalism that is in total opposition to

behaviorism. And mentalism has indeed succeeded in its attack on behaviorism, and pushing it off the stage.

Criticizing behaviorism and audiolingualism today is like killing a dead horse; but from this lesson a relevant question arises: does 'theoretical allegiance' that has failed with audiolingualism take place today? Strangely enough, it does; and *it does occur in Indonesia*. The 2004 curriculum for Indonesian high schools, under the big umbrella of communicative language teaching (CLT), has adopted the so-called *systemic functional linguistics genre-based approach* (SFL GBA), which relies heavily on Hallidayan linguistics. With audiolingualism, the prominent activity was drilling; with the GSA, the center of ELT is genre or text. But there is an important difference. The Audiolingual Method was so well outlined and straightforward that EFL teachers knew exactly what they were required to do. By contrast, the GBA, which seems to require the teachers to understand Hallidayan basic linguistic principles before doing the teaching, has caused much confusion.[9] Emilia's (2011) book, *Pendekatan* Genre-Based *dalam Pengajaran Bahasa Inggris: Petunjuk untuk Guru* (Genre-Based Approach in English Language Teaching: A Guide for the Teachers) is an excellent helping hand, which has done its best to sweep out the confusion and try to put the teachers back in confidence. But this generous intellectual help does not negate the fact that ELT in Indonesia has been trapped by the strong belief that a particular linguistic school can offer a 'best approach'. Moreover, AL and SLA were not there yet during the formation of audiolingualism; but in the first decade of the 21st century, when the GBA was adopted in Indonesia, all insights from highly well-developed AL, SLA, and TEFL were there at our disposal, but seemed to have been ignored.

So, the question of autonomy now turns from LA to ELT: how much autonomy does ELT in Indonesia need? It does *not* need autonomy. Just as audiolingualism was happy thriving under the domination of Bloomfieldian linguistics, the GBA is equally happy struggling under the shadow of Hallidayan lin-

---

[9] The confusion among Indonesian EFL teachers is clearly stated by Professor Fuad Abdul Hamied, Ph.D., current TEFLIN President, in his preface to Emi Emilia, Ph.D.'s book (p. iii). "*Berkenaan dengan SFL GBA, TEFLIN mengamati adanya kebingungan, kesalahpahaman di kalangan para guru, baik berkenaan dengan prinsip dasar maupun aplikasinya di kelas yang mengakibatkan terjadinya 'malpraktek' dari pendekatan itu*" [With regard to the SFL GBA, TEFLIN observes that there has been confusion or misunderstanding among teachers, concerning either its basic principles or its application in the classroom, which results in the "malpractice" of the approach.]

guistics. This GBA incidence makes the question of autonomy in ELT in Indonesia somewhat irrelevant. Some autonomy is there for EFL teachers to plan and implement the teaching-learning process; but the freedom is within the confines of Hallidayan linguistics. In other words, the practice of ELT in Indonesia is still much under the cast of linguistic shadow. Will the newly introduced 2013 curriculum change the present state of ELT Indonesia? We are all in the position of 'wait and see'.

From the off-side notes on ELT in Indonesia, let us go back to the question of autonomy in AL. While AL scholars have been so busy defining the position of AL vis-à-vis linguistics, theoretical linguists, to the best of my knowledge, are never aware of this AL hectic business. What they know is that AL is there as a sub-field of linguistics, just as other subfields (such as psycholinguistics, neurolinguistics, and forensic linguistics) are there making up linguistics a much richer, constantly growing discipline.

In fact, the tension or sometimes hostility has been there in linguistics between scholars of different schools or persuasions. During the 1960s there was a devastating attack by generative linguists on the Bloomfieldian school, claiming that it lacked descriptive and explanatory adequacy (Chomsky, 1965, pp. 4-8). Then there were 'linguistics wars' (Harris, 1995) between Chomsky and his former students, founders of generative semantics. For Chomsky, the most prominent part of linguistic theory was (and still is) syntax; but for his students it was semantics. The wars lasted for about a decade, with Chomsky coming out victorious. Next, sociolinguists such as Hudson (1970) and Hymes (1972, 1974) launched serious criticism of Chomsky for ignoring language use in social context; but, since Chomsky believes that language is a mental, *not* a social fact, he never gives any response to them. Another cause of resentment against Chomsky comes from proponents of linguistic relativity (see, e.g., Gumperz & Levinson, 1996) and linguistic particularity (Becker, 1995), especially for his insistence on linguistic universality, culminating in the theory of Universal Grammar (UG) which is so abstract in nature and detached away from actual language use (Chomsky, 1981, 1995). This list may go on and on; but it should stop at this point. At this point, it is Chomsky who has been at the center of linguistic turbulence for nearly four decades, and has remained a legend—adored as an angel, but also loathed as a devil (Harris, 1995, p. 77).

At this point, applied linguists should be well aware that their hectic business of defining AL position has no effect whatsoever on linguistics. In fact, the negative effect fires back on itself. A number of books bearing the name

Applied Linguistics can be difficult or very difficult for (prospective) EFL teachers to read. This is because, in discussing the position of AL, the authors assume that the readers have adequate knowledge about linguistic aspects they criticize. To illustrate, going back to Widdowson's (1984, p. 14) attack on Chomsky's example "Flying planes can be dangerous" discussed earlier in this article, I have found out that none of my EFL students, even at the doctoral level, understands the point Widdowson has eloquently made. Obviously, they lack syntactic knowledge on which Chomsky builds his argument for the necessity of the *deep structure* underlying the ambiguity of the sentence.

Another example is McCarthy's (2001) furious attack on 'sentence grammar', preferring implicitly to teach 'discourse grammar' (pp. 50-53). Putting a provocative sub-heading "Sentence: Friend or Foe", McCarthy argues along the way pointing out that sentences as linguistic units are inadequate for expressing speaker meanings in actual verbal communication. He sums up his argument, saying, "In language pedagogy, the sentence may be less than useful, even irrelevant, in performing mundane speech acts such as greetings, suggestions, thanks, and apologies, not to mention in the extended performance of spoken collaborative tasks" (McCarthy, 2001, p. 53). Briefly, for McCarthy the *sentence* is the *enemy*. This provocative argument must be confusing to EFL teachers; for when they teach grammar in their daily routines, they teach sentence grammar.

What is wrong with sentence grammar? Upon careful examination, what McCarthy says is nothing but an echo of arguments in pragmatics and sociolinguistics. Referring to pragmatics, he gives prominence to speaker meaning (illocutionary force) rather than sentence meaning (locutionary force). Referring to sociolinguistics, he believes more in *communicative competence* proposed by Hymes (1972) rather than in *linguistic competence* proposed by Chomsky (1965). When applied linguists have strong passion to carry over controversial issues in linguistics into AL, the result is confusion on the part of the practitioners.

To conclude this section, the real issue is not how much autonomy AL needs, but rather, how well the applied linguist understands linguistic theories, methods, and descriptions; and how well they are able to make the best use of these findings for the purpose of solving the problem at hand. Recall that a problem may have a huge range of meanings; and understanding the nature of a given problem will help provide the best possible solution. From my own experience of learning the two disciplines, as my knowledge of linguistics develops,

my understanding of AL and its directions goes deeper and becomes better. At the same time, from the personal experience of teaching AL through the years and looking carefully at its controversial issues, I have come to realize why parts of pure linguistics incite disappointment, frustration, or even resentment on the part of the applied linguists. Overall, the term 'linguistics' in 'applied linguistics' can be either a curse or a blessing, depending on how applied linguists relate the two disciplines.

The shift of paradigm from LA to AL is a historical construct invented by the 'good guys'. It is useful as an academic discourse, but of little value when AL has to come down to the actual problem-solving business. The claim for the ever-expanding scope of AL gives more disadvantage than advantage, since the discipline will fail to produce real professionals and produce only *Jack of all trades* applied linguists. So, going back to the essentials is necessary: focusing on real language problems in ELT and SLA.

In this respect, AL in Indonesia has all along been on the right tract, without neglecting the necessary exposure to the international sphere to keep itself well-informed. CONAPLIN at UPI has set up a good example of doing AL in the country. It focuses on language problems in ELT and SLA, while allowing other closely related disciplines to offer topics of interest to enrich the scholarly discussion. Looking at the seven sub-disciplines of ELT at the 5th CONAPLIN (i.e., (a) teaching strategies and techniques; (b) teacher training and cultivation; (c) trends and challenges in language teaching; (d) language teaching assessment; (e) language teaching policies, (f) curriculum and material development; and (g) language for specific purposes), the real need becomes clear—not the specific knowledge of linguistics, but the broad knowledge of language and other relevant disciplines.

The 'quality poems' example presented in the third section of this article is meant to tell the reader that there is nothing trivial in scholarship. Only by treating a minor problem in a serious manner can we solve bigger problems satisfactorily. Similarly, I am fully aware that both side-track notes in the last section may weaken the coherence of the essay. But their significant value is more important than the rhetorical structure of the essay. The adoption of the genre-based approach that bewilders Indonesian EFL teachers is deplorable, because it shows that the practice of AL in Indonesia has at one time stumbled on the stone of ignorance. From the heated debates among theoretical linguists arguing for the 'best theory', applied linguists should learn a good lesson. Now there is no need to define AL position against linguistics, since it has turned out

to be an energy-consuming, time-wasting, and fruitless attempt. In fact, it has backfired and made some AL books and reading materials less accessible to (prospective) EFL teachers.

The right way of doing AL expectedly yields a systematic attempt to correct learning errors, settle controversial issues, face challenges, overcome difficulties, conduct research on curious phenomena, select and discuss topics of interest, and make right decisions on issues concerning ELT and SLA problems. By doing so, AL has clearly defined itself as a problem-driven discipline, not a problem-inciting discipline. Keeping and blowing up trivial issues on its relationship with linguistics would not make AL gain better academic standing, but would make it part of annoying language problems!

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank, first, Nurenzia Yannuar, an M.A. degree holder in Linguistics and a colleague at the English Department, State University of Malang, for proofreading and suggesting improvements of the earlier draft, and, secondly, an anonymous reviewer for suggesting important revisions and correcting errors of the submitted manuscript. Any possible shortcomings and deficiency, however, are my responsibility alone.

REFERENCES

Allen, H. B. (1964). *Readings in applied English linguistics*. New York: Appleton-Century-Croft.

Becker, A. L. (1995). *Beyond translation: Essays toward a modern philology*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.

Bloomfield, L. (1933). *Language*. Chicago/London: The University of Chicago Press.

Brown, D. H. (2001). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy* (Second Edition). New Jersey: Prentice Hall Regents.

Brumfit, C. C. (1991). Applied linguistics in higher education: Riding the storm. *BAAL Newsletter, 38*, 45-9.

Catalog, English Department (2011). Malang: Faculty of Letters, State University of Malang.

Chomsky, N. (1957). *Syntactic structures*. The Hague: Mouton.

Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: The MIT Press.

Chomsky, N. (1981). *Lectures on government and binding*. Mouton: The Gruyter.

Chomsky, N. (1995). *The minimalist program*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: The MIT Press.

Cook, G. (2003). *Applied linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Cook, V., & Wei, L. (2009). Applying linguistics and language teaching in the twenty-first century. In V. Cook & L. Wei (Eds.), *Contemporary Applied Linguistics: Language Teaching and Learning* (Vol 1), (pp. 1-9). New York: Continuum.

Corder, S. P. (1967). The significance of learner's errors. In J. C. Richards. (Ed.), *Error analysis: Perspectives on second language acquisition* (pp. 19-30). London: Longman.

Davies, A. (2004). Introduction to part I: Linguistics applied (L-A). In A. Davies & C. Elder (Eds.), *The handbook of applied linguistics* (pp. 19-24). Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.

Davies, A., & Elder, C. (2004). General introduction, applied linguistics: Subject to discipline? In A. Davies & C. Elder (Eds.). *The handbook of applied linguistics* (pp. 1-15). Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.

Dulay, H., Burt, M., & Krashen, S. (1982). *Language two*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Emilia, E. 2011. *Pendekatan* genre-based *dalam pengajaran bahasa Inggris: Petunjuk untuk guru* [Genre-based approaches in English teaching: Guidelines for teachers]. Bandung: Rizqi Press.

English 900: A basic course (volumes 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6). (1964). New York: Collier Macmillan International, Inc.

English for the SLTA series: Students' book I, II, III, and supplementary reader I, II, III. (1981). Jakarta: Balai Pustaka.

Fries, C. C. (1945). *Teaching and learning English as a foreign language*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.

Gass, S. M., & Selinker, L. (1994). *Second language acquisition: An introductory course*. Hillsdale, New Jersey: Laurence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Gumperz, J. J., & Levinson, S. C. (1996). *Rethinking linguistic relativity*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Harris, R. A. (1995). *The linguistics war*. New York/Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hudson, R. A. (1970). *Sociolinguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hult, F. M. (2008). The history of educational linguistics. In B. Spolsky & F. M. Hult (Eds.), *The handbook of educational linguistics* (pp. 10-24). Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.

Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. B. Prides & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics* (pp. 269-85). Harmondsworth: Penguin.

Hymes, D. (1974). *Foundations in sociolinguistics: An ethnographic approach*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.

Lado, R. (1964). *Language teaching: A scientific approach*. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc.

McCarthy, M. (2001). *Issues in applied linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Rajagopalan, K. (2004). The philosophy of applied linguistics. In A. Davies & C. Elder (Eds.), *The handbook of applied linguistics* (pp. 397-420). Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.

Saville-Troike, M. (2006). *Introducing second language acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. In J. C. Richards (Ed.), *Error analysis: Perspectives on second language acquisition* (pp. 31-54). London: Longman.

Spolsky, B. (2008). Introduction: What is educational linguistics? In B. Spolsky & F. M. Hult (Eds.), *The handbook of educational linguistics* (pp. 1-9). Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.

Widdowson, H. G. (1980). Models and fictions, *Applied Linguistics 1*(2), 165-70.

Widdowson, H. G. (1984). Applied linguistics: The pursuit of relevance. In H. G. Widdowson (Ed.), *Explorations in applied linguistics, 2* (pp. 7-20). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Widdowson, H. G. (2000). On the limitations of linguistics applied. *Applied Linguistics, 21*(1), 3-25.

CRITICAL PEDAGOGY(IES) FOR ELT IN INDONESIA

Kasey R. Larson
(klarson@hawaii.edu)

University of Hawai'i at Mānoa
Department of Second Language Studies
Moore Hall 570, 1890 East-West Road, Honolulu, Hawai'i 96822

Abstract: This paper will explore the theoretical underpinnings that present a rationale for the use of critical pedagogy as an English Language Teaching (ELT) approach in Indonesia. A brief description of critical pedagogy is given, followed by a detailed rationale for its use including an overview of critical pedagogy studies done in Asia, an exploration of the curriculum and teaching approach decreed by the Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture, and calls for critical pedagogy by Indonesian scholars and teachers. This paper will conclude with some beginning steps that can be undertaken by teachers who want to implement a more critical approach to teaching.

Keywords: critical pedagogy, banking approach, transformative approach, dialogue, code, negotiated syllabus

English is a compulsory subject for secondary school students in Indonesia. Unfortunately, despite studying English for six years in junior and senior high school, overall Indonesian students exhibit low proficiency in English upon graduation from senior high school (Imperiani, 2012; Lie, 2007; Marcellino, 2008). This is attributed to many factors including: large class sizes, the low English proficiency of teachers, low salary, not enough teacher education to teach the new curriculum, and cultural barriers hindering teachers from adopting a facilitator role in the English as a foreign language (EFL) class (Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Nur, 2004). It could also be argued that this is a result of the curriculum not reflecting the needs and local contexts of the learners and a negative result of the banking approach (Freire, 1997) that is used in English

language teaching (ELT) in Indonesia (Marcellino, 2008; Hayati, 2010). Many have commented on the need to change this teacher centered, banking style approach to ELT in Indonesia so that more learning takes place (Coleman 1987; Imperiani, 2012, Musthafa, 2002; Marcellino, 2008). Critical pedagogy could be one way to make the EFL curriculum more meaningful and locally relevant to Indonesian students which could result in better language proficiency. In this paper I will briefly describe critical pedagogy and then move on to providing a rationale for its use in the EFL classrooms in Indonesia. The paper will conclude with a description of some beginning steps that ELT professionals in Indonesia can take to begin to implement a more critically orientated pedagogy that takes into account the local problems and issues faced by their students in their classes.

CRITICAL PEDAGOGY

Critical pedagogy is mainly attributed to the work and philosophy of Paulo Freire. In a nutshell critical pedagogy is a learner-centered approach to education that is focused on problem posing in which the students engage in critical dialogue. This approach has the aim of improving social justice with an emphasis on action. Duncan-Andrade and Morrell (2007, p. 183) summarize critical pedagogy quite nicely as

> an approach to education that is rooted in the experiences of marginalized peoples; that is centered in a critique of structural, economic, and racial oppression; that is focused on dialogue instead on a one way transmission of knowledge; and that is structured to empower individuals and collectives as agents for social change (as cited in Hayati, 2010, p.80).

This *transformative approach* is contrasted to a *banking approach* to education "in which the students are the depositories and the teacher is the depositor" of knowledge (Freire, 1997, p. 53). The *banking approach* to education maintains the status quo whereas the *transformative approach* challenges it (Freire, 1997).

Some key Freirean concepts of critical pedagogy include problem posing, dialogue, praxis, and codes. In critical pedagogy problems are posed by the learners, which forms the main content of the lesson; this is called problem

posing. Freire's problem-posing educational method includes three stages, "listening, dialogue, and action" (Wallerstein, 1987, p. 35). Dialogue is key to problem posing. According to Freire (1997), "problem-posing education regards dialogue as indispensable to the act of cognition which unveils reality" (p. 64). Dialogue requires critical thinking and equality among all participants (Freire, 1997). Praxis, another key component of critical pedagogy, is "reflection and action" (Freire, 1997, p. 106). Praxis consists of an ongoing cycle of reflection that leads to action that results in more reflection, further action, and so forth. Codes are "concrete physical expressions" that represent all of the aspects of a theme surrounding a problem and "they can take many forms: photographs, drawings, collages, stories, written dialogues, movies, songs" (Wallerstein, 1983, p.19). They are used to promote critical thinking and dialogue.

Wallerstein (1983) nicely outlines some basic steps for critical pedagogy. First the instructor listens to the learners and identifies their problems. Then the instructor provides codes based on the problems identified by the students to elicit further critical thinking and dialogue. Within this process students should "name the problem, understand how it applies to them, determine the causes of the problem, generalize to others, and finally, suggest alternatives or solutions to the problem" (Wallerstein, 1983, p. 17). The last of these steps involves action on the part of the learners.

It is important here to note that there is not one sole kind of critical pedagogy. Critical pedagogy is flexible so that it can fit the local context of the learning (Morgan 1998; Crookes, 2013; Norton and Toohey, 2004). This is highlighted when we look at Norton and Toohey's edited collection *Critical Pedagogies and Language Learning* (2004). Right from the beginning in the title we can see that pedagogy is used in the plural and in their introduction they state, "critical pedagogy cannot be a unitary set of texts, beliefs, convictions, or assumptions" (p. 2). Since critical pedagogy is flexible and its aim is to use experiences and issues that are directly relevant to the students as the learning material it makes sense to use critical pedagogy in a nation as diverse as Indonesia. Indonesia needs a more flexible ELT approach that takes into account the diversity that exists in the classroom. I will argue that critical pedagogy not only can but should be implemented in EFL classrooms throughout Indonesia as it is by its very nature a more meaningful approach to ELT.

RATIONALE FOR CRITICAL PEDAGOGY IN EFL INSTRUCTION IN INDONESIA

Coleman (1996) in his analysis of higher education in Indonesia and Britain makes the point that the role of education is different in different societies. This is because of the different roles higher education plays in different contexts. Therefore there is not one correct methodology for teaching in higher education settings. He argues against the myth of the "universality of the academic enterprise" (Coleman, 1996, p. 7). He elaborates his position in reference to EFL further by saying that:

> [w]hen making recommendations for innovation in English language methodology, we must carry out the equivalent of an environmental audit of the impact of our proposed changes. In other words, we must seek to predict what the knock-on effect of methodological change is likely to be (p. 13).

When teaching English, not only in higher educational settings, but in any and all educational settings, educators must take many considerations into account, especially what effect the implemented methodology is likely to have on the learning situation. In this section I plan on doing just as Coleman insists above. I will provide a rationale for the use of critical pedagogy in ELT in Indonesia for all different educational contexts.

Many scholars and practitioners have argued against the implementation of (Western) pedagogical imports into EFL classes, because they argue they are not effective in their contexts and adversely affect learning. Sonaiya (2002) has argued that the autonomous method for language teaching is not suitable to the Yoruba people of Sub-Saharan Africa because of a mismatch between the teaching methodology and the culture of the Yoruba. She clearly agrees with Coleman (1996) when she argues that "a teaching method is a product of the society in which it was developed; that is, teaching methods are cultural products...[and] [g]iven this (culture-specific) nature of teaching methods, it becomes pertinent to ask whether teaching methods are globally applicable (p. 107)". LoCastro (1996) looks at the curriculum in Japan based on communicative language teaching (CLT) and makes the argument that this approach is unlikely to be effective because of the mismatch of the approach to the sociocultural context of Japan. LoCastro (1996) lists the following as reasons for the curriculum's ineffectiveness: lack of a high level of communicative compe-

tence by teachers, lack of teacher education, a banking education system, societal roles and hierarchies, importance of national examinations testing written English, and teacher centered classrooms. Hu (2002) discusses the mismatch between CLT and the culture of learning in China to explain the ineffectiveness of the communicative approach in ELT there. Some of the reasons for this mismatch come from the way Chinese students learn, teacher centeredness of the classroom, learning through reading, teacher authority in the classroom, and the downplay of speaking skills.

Many, along the lines of the scholars and practitioners above, would argue that critical pedagogy will not work in Indonesia as it is a pedagogical import that is not in line with the culture of learning. The reasons they would cite would be similar to the reasons given above: the authority of the teacher, the passiveness of the students, a *banking approach* to education, and the importance of written examinations. However I will attempt to show that critical pedagogy in fact can be (and has been) implemented successfully in Indonesia for the following reasons: critical pedagogy has been to varying degrees successfully implemented in Asia, including Indonesia; critical pedagogy is not in conflict with the curriculum and objectives as proposed by the Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture (Kementerian Pendidikan and Kebudayaan, 2013a, 2013b); and the implementation of critical pedagogy has been called for by Indonesian scholars and teachers (Susanti, 2011; Paat, 2011; Wisudo, 2011; Hayati, 2010; and Mambu, 2012).

Critical Pedagogy in Asia

Despite many disagreeing with the effectiveness of pedagogical imports, critical pedagogy (in some form or another) has been practiced in Asia and with various degrees of success. I am aware of nine instances of critical pedagogy being implemented in Asia (Flowerdew, 2005; Miyo, 2005, as cited in Konoeda & Watanabe, 2008; Shin & Crookes, 2005; Sekigawa, Sugino, Mimura, & Chaikul, 2007; Saft & Ohara, 2004; Mambu, 2009; Mambu, 2010a, as cited in Mambu, 2012) and one instance of critical pedagogy being integrated into a curriculum but not yet implemented (Konoeda & Watanabe, 2008). I am also aware of one study where critical pedagogy was implemented in Iran, where the majority of the population is Muslim, like Indonesia. These studies are described below.

Flowerdew (2005) implemented a more critical approach for one of the aspects of her course. The course was an English for Academic Purposes course at a tertiary institute in Hong Kong. The critical aspect of the curriculum was titled "Why are things the way they are? Who decides? What are the possibilities?" (p. 144). For the critical aspect of this course students were required to complete a task-based group project looking into a school or work related problem. One group of biology students examined the mismatch between the biology curriculum and career prospects upon graduation and recommended more Mandarin courses. Flowerdew (2005) showed that a critical approach to teaching can be implemented alongside more traditional notions of syllabus design.

Miyo (2005, as cited in Konoeda & Watanabe, 2008, p. 47) reported on a study in a foreign language high school in Korea where Korean students of Japanese as a foreign language critically investigated their school and looked into what "learning" meant for them. Also in Korea, Shin and Crookes (2005), investigated the possibilities of a critical approach to teaching through the use of critically-orientated material and critical dialogue in two EFL classes. They found that students were not resistant to the critical approach to teaching EFL and were able to engage in critical dialogue in English.

Sekigawa et al. (2007) describe three different attempts to incorporate critical pedagogy into EFL classes in Japan including implementing critical literacy into an English conversation course for nursing students, taking a more critical approach in an EFL class for international students, and incorporation of critical pedagogy into leadership education. The objectives for the English conversation course for the nursing students were "(a) to encourage the students to voice their opinions and improve their speaking abilities, and (b) to promote their critical consciousness" (Sekigawa et al., 2007, p. 953). Chaikul (in Sekigawa et al., 2007), who carried out this study, stated that at first it was difficult to implement critical pedagogy because of the students' apprehensions to this different teaching style and because of a lack of sufficient language competence to express opinions. However, Chaikul determined that eventually students were able to use the language to express their opinions and many students made positive comments on the topics discussed in class.

Sekigawa (in Sekigawa et al., 2007) carried out a study of an EFL elective course of international students at a Japanese university that was content based and focused on current issues with a goal of developing reading abilities, self-expression, critical thinking, and intercultural awareness. Students read and en-

gaged with essays written by an expatriate African-American journalist who gave "critical insights into the Japanese society and her cross-cultural experiences" (Sekigawa et al., 2007, p. 955). Sekigawa (in Sekigawa et al., 2007) comments that many students had difficulty expressing their opinions. However they were engaged in the group discussions and had opportunities to express themselves in English on topics such as "gender, racism, individualism, globalization, advancing technology, traditional culture, generation gaps, violence, and international marriages" (Sekigawa et al., 2007, p. 958). In addition to this,

> students learned that everything they personally experience is linked to the larger society, and everything they see in the society is associated with their individual lives…[and] [b]y critically attending to these international and intercultural issues, their EFL learning not only provided them with improvement of their English language skills and understanding of the abstract concepts but also led them to an examination of their own internationality and interculturality (Sekigawa et al., 2007, p. 958).

Sugino (in Sekigawa et al., 2007) implemented a "weakened form" of critical pedagogy "to nurture students' critical thinking" (p. 958) into leadership education at National Defense Academy. The reason for the implementation of critical pedagogy at this location was because of the multitude of "politically incorrect remarks made by Japanese political leaders and many others" and because of the nature of the school which stresses that "cadets should broaden their perspectives and enrich their sense of humanity" (Sekigawa et al., 2007, p. 958). In the class students focused on topics such as racism, sexism, and lingualism. Content for the course came from multiple sources. They also researched and participated in debates. Sugino (in Sekigawa et al., 2007) comments that the first classes did not go very smoothly because of students' different classroom expectations. Later students' comments reflected how much they gained from this more critically orientated class. Sugino (in Sekigawa et al., 2007) states "they learned not only social issues but also various values and the historical and social backgrounds related to the topics they chose, and the skills for arguing not emotionally but objectively" (p. 961).

In their study with a freshmen EFL class at a large national university in Japan, Saft and Ohara (2004), attempted to "promote critical reflection about gender in Japanese society" (p. 143). Saft and Ohara (2004) specifically stated that they followed a critical perspective based on the education philosophy de-

veloped by Freire with a focus on dialogue. Their study consisted of a module to investigate the topic of gender. The module lasted four class days. The results of the study show that "students were willing to voice their own opinions and engage in dialogue about gender with [the teacher] and their classmates" (Saft & Ohara, 2004, p.148). As part of the study the teacher also gave the students a questionnaire that asked about their feelings on gender issues in Japan. The responses to the questions on the questionnaire displayed their critical consciousness.

Despite not being carried out, Konoeda and Watanabe (2008) developed a task-based critical pedagogy that could be implemented into EFL classrooms in Japan. They argued that it could address some of the problems the students are facing. In addition to this they showed that a task-based critical pedagogy was suited to the context.

Sadeghi (2005) describes an EFL class at a language institution in Iran that "investigated how the problem-posing process of learning helped students maintain discussion, dialogue and raise critical consciousness" (p. 282). The purpose of this class was to see if after one semester students in the course changed their "a) definition of social justice, b) recognition of practices relevant to social justice in their organizations, and c) sense of responsibility for contributing to change in the distribution of justice" (Sadeghi, 2005, p.282). The findings from this study show that "the class engaged in discussing issues that were derived from their own living experience, instead of practicing decontextualized exercises" (p. 291).

The above studies are proof that critical pedagogy can and has been successfully implemented in various contexts of Asia. It can be argued that since critical pedagogies have been successful in these contexts in Asia they would also be successful in a country like Indonesia which shares a similar culture of learning. In the next section studies of critical pedagogy in Indonesia will be described in more detail as further evidence that critical pedagogy can and should be implemented in some form or another in EFL classes in Indonesia.

Critical Pedagogy in Indonesia

According to Mambu (2012) "the seeds of CP in Indonesia have actually grown rapidly especially after the former authoritarian Indonesian second pres-

ident Soeharto stepped down from power in 1998" (p. 114). However he notes that critical pedagogy in ELT in Indonesia is still lacking.

The only critical pedagogy cases in ELT in Indonesia that I am aware of are Mambu's studies (Mambu 2009; Mambu 2010a, as cited in Mambu, 2012, p. 114). In a teacher educator course for students studying to become English teachers in Indonesia, Mambu (2009) used thematic investigation, as outlined by Freire, to encourage critical dialogue in response to four pictures (codes), an advertisement for McDonalds, a beauty pageant, a crowded city, and a beggar. Prior to the collection of data on the comments that students made in regards to the pictures, the students investigated various themes including: oppression in Indonesian education, conscientization (critical consciousness, see Freire, 1997), and humanizing pedagogy. Through the use of English the students commented and interpreted these pictures with various levels of criticality (Mambu, 2009). The level of criticality of students' comments was determined using a coding system. The breadth of the students' thinking was measured using a number scale (0-2) where the numbers were linked to definitions of levels of critical thinking, 0 being low and 2 being high. The depth of their meaning was measured using a letter scale (A-C) where A represents a poor description and C represents the deepest level the students were able to express. The breadth and depth scales were placed on a rubric so students could be assessed. After analysis of this data Mambu (2009) concludes that the student teachers "showed various degrees of criticality" (p. 66). Mambu (2010a, as cited in Mambu, 2012, p.114) also instituted a form of critical pedagogy with EFL high school students in Indonesia using a similar structure (thematic investigation) to the class described above. Mambu used the same codes as his previous study and the results of this study show that to varying degrees the students in the class were critical of the codes presented before them.

The above studies in Indonesia are further proof that critical pedagogy can be implemented successfully in Asia where many have claimed the culture of learning is contradictory to a critical approach to ELT. In all of the studies presented previously students were able to engage critically with the materials and topics presented in the class. It can be argued that because of the successes that critical pedagogy has had in Asia it is not in conflict with the culture of learning in Asia and can be a successful ELT approach that can result in improved English proficiency. Since it has been successful it should be implemented on a wider scale throughout Indonesia. In the next section I will continue my rationale for using critical pedagogy in Indonesia by looking at the pedagogical

approach and curricular objectives proposed by the Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture.

Critical Pedagogy and the New 2013 Curriculum in Indonesia

In 2013 the Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture introduced a new curriculum for public schools from elementary through high school. Under the new curriculum English is a mandatory subject in both junior and senior high school. There are many aspects of the new curriculum that are complementary to critical pedagogy.

Within the new curriculum the *pola pikir* (thinking patterns) have greatly changed. Many of the changes are in line with the ideas of critical pedagogy. The first change listed in the *pola pikir* of the new curriculum is "the learning process which was centered on the teacher will become centered on the student. Students must possess choices in the material that will be studied…" (Kementrian Pendidikan dan Budaya, 2013a, 2013b / Larson Translation). As previously mentioned student centeredness and choice is one of the foundations of critical pedagogy. The second change in *pola pikir* listed is that "the one direction learning process (interaction from teacher to student) will become an interactive learning process (interaction between the teacher and students, the students and society, the environment, and other resources)" (Kementrian Pendidikan dan Budaya, 2013a, 2013b / Larson Translation). This (at least in writing) effectively changes the banking approach to education to a more transformative approach to education which is what Freire (1997) calls for in a more critically orientated pedagogy. In addition to the above changes the fourth change to the *pola pikir* states that "the passive learning process will become an active-searching learning process" (Kementrian Pendidikan dan Budaya, 2013a, 2013b / Larson Translation). Again this concept is parallel to critical pedagogy. The last change to the *pola pikir* is that "the passive learning process will become a critical learning process" (Kementrian Pendidikan dan Budaya, 2013a, 2013b / Larson Translation). This is the heart of critical pedagogy, learning based on being critical and not just accepting what is being taught.

In addition to the changes in the *pola pikir* there have been changes to the material that is taught. In terms of the material taught, within the new curriculum the Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture is strengthening the materials used by "expanding materials to include those that are relevant to the students" (Kementrian Pendidikan dan Budaya, 2013a, 2013b / Larson Transla-

tion). Again this is another key component of critical pedagogy. The materials used in critical pedagogy should be relevant to the students to ensure more meaningful education. The materials also need to be relevant to the students so that the students can take what is covered in class and apply it to their lives outside of the classroom that will hopefully lead to some type of action.

Lastly ideas that form the basis of critical pedagogy can be found in the educational philosophy that was proclaimed by the Ministry of Education and Culture in the new 2013 curriculum. The philosophy behind the new curriculum aims to "develop the lives of the people now and in the future" (Kementrian Pendidikan dan Budaya, 2013a, 2013b / Larson Translation). Freire's educational philosophy came from the need to help develop the lives of the underprivileged in Brazil. The educational philosophy supported by the Ministry of Education and Culture in this regard is similar to the educational philosophy behind critical pedagogy.

As can be seen above, many of the ideas that are central to critical pedagogy such as student centeredness, transformative education, relevant materials, and active and critical learning are also found in the new 2013 curriculum that was just instituted in Indonesia by the Ministry of Education and Culture. Therefore critical pedagogy should be tried out on a wider scale in Indonesia as it is not in conflict with the new curriculum.

Calls for Critical Pedagogy in Indonesia

The implementation of critical pedagogy in Indonesia has been called for by Indonesian scholars and teachers. In general critical pedagogy has been called for in Indonesia by Susanti (2011). She makes the argument that critical pedagogy is very relevant to Indonesia as a means to solving the educational problems that exist in Indonesia that are related to the development of Indonesian politics and economy. Paat (2011) calls for critical pedagogy more specifically in foreign language classes. Wisudo (2011) calls for the implementation of critical literacy at all stages of education in Indonesia. Hayati (2010) and Mambu (2012) call for the implementation of critical pedagogy in EFL contexts in Indonesia. With these calls for critical pedagogy coming from Indonesian scholars and practitioners it is clear that critical pedagogy is not just a pedagogical import. It is valued by those who are most familiar with the issues and problems of education in Indonesia and therefore should be attempted in some form or another.

IMPLEMENTING CRITICAL PEDAGOGY IN INDONESIA: BEGINNING STEPS

In this final section I will describe two helpful tools that EFL teachers can use for beginning to implement a more critically orientated pedagogy in EFL classes in Indonesia. These tools are the negotiated syllabus (Clarke, 1991) and codes (Freire, 1997: Wallerstein, 1983, 1987).

The Negotiated Syllabus

The negotiated syllabus is defined by it is unique quality that "allows full learner participation in selection of content, mode of working, route of working, assessment, and so on" (Clarke, 1991, p. 13). Within the syllabus "the learner's needs are of paramount importance" (Clarke, 1991, p.13). The learners are key players in the decision making process. The use of a negotiated syllabus works towards equalizing the power hierarchy within the student-teacher relationship by allowing the learners to contribute to the discussion of topics, materials, assessment, etc. Shortening the power distance between student and teacher is one of the essential aspects of critical pedagogy according to Freire (1997). The negotiated syllabus can constitute the first step in critical pedagogy, which was described previously as to listen. By using a negotiated syllabus the teacher is listening to the issues faced by the students and incorporating them into the materials that will be used for class.

In most situations a full negotiation of the syllabus is out of the question. Clarke (1991) mentions many reasons why a full negotiation of a syllabus may not work. The reasons he gives include that: it increases demands on teachers, it would not be practical where there is an emphasis on exams, it is in contradiction with the culture of learning in different contexts, and it is impractical for young and low level learners. However he does mention that a semi negotiated syllabus could also be beneficial for learners as it helps localize the material. I think it is important to note here that any attempt (even small) at allowing students to have more control over the decision making process is better than nothing as it will help equalize the power relationships present in the classroom and help ensure that the content of the course is more relevant to learners, critical components in any critical pedagogy orientated class. As Crookes (2013) states any move towards critical pedagogy is better than nothing and any teach-

er who is interested in implementing a more critically oriented approach needs to start somewhere.

As one first step to implementing a more critically orientated approach in the ELT, teachers can try out a semi-negotiated syllabus where students have some choice in the materials, topics, assessment, etc. for their courses. Explicitly ask your students what topics they are interested in and what problems or issues they are facing in their everyday lives. This can be done through a questionnaire, survey, or class discussion. If necessary some of this negotiation could be done in the first language. Critical pedagogy is not averse to using the first language in the second language classroom as it may help with negotiation of meaning.

The teacher has the most experience to decide what amount of negotiation of syllabus would work for their class. Teachers may be constrained by a mandated syllabus and predetermined set of materials where there may not be room for much negotiation but again any little bit is better than nothing.

Codes

In addition to using a semi negotiated syllabus, one way to begin to approach learning in a more critical way would be to use codes, in the *Freirean* sense of the word. Again as described above codes are "concrete physical expressions" that represent all of the aspects of a theme surrounding a problem and "they can take many forms: photographs, drawings, collages, stories, written dialogues, movies, songs" (Wallerstein, 1983, p.19). They are used to promote critical thinking and dialogue. Codes according to Wallerstein (1983) should be used once problems have been identified by the teacher after listening to their students. When using a code students again should "name the problem, understand how it applies to them, determine the causes of the problem, generalize to others, and finally, suggest alternatives or solutions to the problem" (Wallerstein, 1983, p. 17). With the advance in technology codes are everywhere. Newspaper articles, YouTube videos, cartoons, drawings, commercials, magazine ads, short stories, and blogs can all be used as codes.

Again many teachers may be restricted by a predetermined curriculum but the use of codes could be implemented periodically to take a critical look at some of the topics that are addressed in the typical EFL class in Indonesia. Many common topics addressed in EFL classes in Indonesia include the fami-

ly, occupations, travel to an English speaking country, and carrying out everyday activities (e.g. shopping and eating out). All of these topics could be investigated in a more critical light through the use of codes. Again even if this was done to a small extent it would be better than nothing.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

I have argued in this paper that critical pedagogy is a viable ELT method that could be rationally implemented in Indonesia. Its implementation would result in a move from a *banking approach* to education to a more *transformative approach* (Freire, 1997). This would not only make the materials more relevant and meaningful to the learners and hopefully result in increased language proficiency but would also raise students' awareness to the issues and problems they face in their everyday lives. Critical pedagogy is viable in Indonesia because critical pedagogies of some form or another have been successfully implemented in the Asian context, critical pedagogy is not in conflict with the ELT approach and curricular objectives supported by the Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture, and lastly critical pedagogy has been called for by Indonesian scholars and teachers. The evidence in this paper provides support for the use of critical pedagogy in EFL classes throughout Indonesia. Finally this paper provided two tools that EFL teachers in Indonesia could use to begin to implement a more critically orientated pedagogy: the negotiated syllabus and codes. My hope is that those reading this paper are now convinced that critical pedagogy is not only possible in Indonesia but it is a more meaningful approach to teach the English language there.

REFERENCES

Clarke, D. F. (1991). The negotiated syllabus: what is it and how is it likely to work? *Applied Linguistics*, *12*(1), 13-28.

Coleman, H. (1987). Teaching spectacles and learning festivals. *ELT Journal*, *41*(2), 97-103.

Coleman, H. (1996). Shadow puppets and language lessons: Interpreting classroom behaviour in its cultural context. In H. Coleman (Ed.), *Society and*

the language classroom (pp. 64-85). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Crookes, G. (2013). *Critical ELT in action: Foundations, promises, praxis*. New York: Routledge.

Dardjowidjojo, S. (2000). English teaching in Indonesia. *EA Journal*, *18*(1), 22-30.

Flowerdew, L. (2005). Integrating traditional and critical approaches to syllabus design: The 'what', the 'how'and the 'why?' *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *4*(2), 135-147.

Freire, P. (1997). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. New York: Continuum.

Hayati, N. (2010). Empowering non-native English speaking teachers through critical pedagogy. *TEFLIN Journal*, *21*(1), 78-89.

Hu, G. (2002). Potential cultural resistance to pedagogical imports: The case of communicative language teaching in China. *Language Culture and Curriculum*, *15*(2), 93-105.

Imperiani, E. (2012). English language teaching in Indonesia and its relation to the role of English as an international language. *Passage*, *1*(1), 1-12.

Kementrian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan (Ministry of Education and Culture) (2013a). *Kerangka dasar dan struktur kurikulum sekolah menengah pertama/madrasah tsanawiyah*.

Kementrian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan (Ministry of Education and Culture) (2013b). *Kerangka dasar dan struktur kurikulum sekolah menengah atas/madrasah Aliyah*.

Konoeda, K., & Watanabe, Y. (2008). Task-based critical pedagogy in Japanese EFL classrooms: Rationale, principles, and examples. In M. Mantero, C. P. Miller, & J. L. Watzke (Eds.), *Readings in Language Studies (Vol. 1)*. St. Louis, MO: International Society for Language Studies.

Lie, A. (2007). Education policy and EFL curriculum in Indonesia: Between the commitment to competence and the quest for higher test scores. *TEFLIN Journal*, *18*(1), 1-14.

LoCastro, V. (1996). English language education in Japan. In H. Coleman (Ed.), *Society and the language classroom* (pp. 40-58). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mambu, J. E. (2009). Thematic investigations with Indonesia EFL pre-service teachers: From descriptions to social critiques and beyond. *Indonesian Journal of English Language Teaching*, *5*(1), 57-78.

Mambu, J. E. (2012). English for advocacy purposes: Critical pedagogy's contribution to Indonesia. In K. Sung & R. Pederson (Eds.), *Critical ELT practices in Asia* (pp. 111-136). Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.

Marcellino, M. (2008). English language teaching in Indonesia: A continuous challenge in education and cultural diversity. *TEFLIN Journal*, *19*(1): 57-69.

Morgan, B. (1998). *The ESL classroom: Teaching, critical practice, and community development*. University of Toronto Press.

Musthafa, B. (2002). English teaching in Indonesia: Status, issues and challenges. *ESL Magazine*, *5*(1), 26-28.

Norton, B., & Toohey, K. (Eds.). (2004). *Critical pedagogies and language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nur, C. (2004). English language teaching in Indonesia: Changing policies and practical constraints. In H. W. Kam & R. Y. L. Wong (Eds.). *English language teaching in East Asia today: Changing policies and practices* (pp. 178-186). Singapore: Eastern Universities Press.

Paat, J. (2011). Pedagogik kritis dan pengajaran bahasa asing [Critical pedagogy and the teaching of foreign language]. In H. A. R. Tilaar, J. Paat, & L. Paat (Eds.). *Pedagogik kritis: Perkembangan, substansi, dan perkembangannya di Indonesia* [Critical pedagogy: Its growth, substance, and development in Indonesia]. Jakarta: Rineka Cipta.

Sadeghi, S. (2005). Critical pedagogy in an EFL teaching context: An ignis fatuus or an alternative approach. *Journal of Critical Education Policy Studies*, *6*(1), 1-9.

Saft, S. & Ohara, Y. (2004). Promoting critical reflection about gender in EFL classes at a Japanese university. In B. Norton & A. Pavlenko (Eds.). *Gen-*

der and English language learners (pp. 143-154). Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speaker of Other Languages, Inc.

Sekigawa, Y., Sugino, T., Mimura, C., & Chaikul, R. (2007). Taking a critical pedagogic turn in L2 teaching. In K. Bradford-Watts (Ed.), *JALT2006 Conference Proceedings* (pp. 948-964). Tokyo: JALT. Retrieved from http://jaltpublications.org/archive/proceedings/2006/E034.pdf

Shin, H., & Crookes, G. (2005). Exploring the possibilities for EFL critical pedagogy in Korea: A two-part case study. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies*, *2*(2), 113-136.

Sonaiya, R. (2002). Autonomous language learning in Africa: A mismatch of cultural assumptions. *Language Culture and Curriculum*, *15*(2), 106-116.

Susanti, D. (2011). Mengapa pedagogik kritis yang berkenadilan sosial sulit dijadikan pedagogik bagi pendidikan formal?: Sebuah provakasi. [Why is critical pedagogy, which focuses on social justice, difficult to become the pedagogy for formal education?: A provocation]. In H. A. R. Tilaar, J. Paat, & L. Paat (Eds.). *Pedagogik kritis: Perkembangan, substansi, dan perkembangannya di Indonesia* [Critical pedagogy: Its growth, substance, and development in Indonesia]. Jakarta: Rineka Cipta.

Wallerstein, N. (1983). *Language and culture in conflict: Problem-posing in the ESL classroom*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

Wallerstein, N. (1987). Problem-posing education: Freire's method for transformation. In I. Shor (Ed.). *Freire for the classroom: A sourcebook for liberatory teaching* (pp. 33-44). Portsmouth, NH: Boynton, Cook, Heinemann.

Wisudo, B. (2011). Literasi kritis, alternatif melawan pendangkalan pembelajaran di sekolah. [Critical literacy, the alternative to combat the superficiality of study in school]. In H. A. R. Tilaar, J. Paat, & L. Paat (Eds.). *Pedagogik kritis: Perkembangan, substansi, dan perkembangannya di Indonesia* [Critical pedagogy: Its growth, substance, and development in Indonesia]. Jakarta: Rineka Cipta.