Language Teacher Education for Primary School English Teachers in Indonesia: Policy Recommendations

By

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Declaration

I declare that the work in this thesis is original. It contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made.

Mochamad Subhan Zein

Acknowledgments

The completion of this PhD is overall extremely challenging, but I have found the final year of my candidacy in particular a massive test for both my endurance and commitment. At several points throughout 2012 I thought that I had got through the most difficult part, only to be challenged again and again. This led me to a point where surviving until the final printing stage of the thesis was my sole daily pursuit. This situation fortunately changes on the days near to submission. My heart is enveloped in blissful tranquility when I realize that I am close to the finish line. Now it is important to acknowledge the people who have helped me until I reached this point.

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Abstract

This study examines the needs of teachers of English at primary level in terms of knowledge and skills; the delivery of teacher education at pre- and in-service levels and the design of learning-teaching options; and the interplay of these aspects for the creation of policy recommendations on teacher education for primary school English teachers. Data were generated from teachers, teacher educators, members of educational board, school principals, and educational consultants using semi-structured interviews and classroom observations. The data were analyzed using grounded theory based on classification of initial codes and identification of sub-categories as generated from constant comparisons between data presented in NViVo9 and meticulous readings of interview transcriptions.

The first major finding of the study is that teachers' needs and profile are inextricably linked. Teachers' specific needs are influenced by factors such as pedagogy preparation, length of experience, and multilingual skill, which all must form comprehensive needs analysis prior to designing teacher education programs at both pre-service and in-service levels. The second major finding shows that pre-service education has not been adequate to prepare student teachers to teach English at primary level due to the lack of specificity and practical components, the fact that teacher educators have no expertise in EYL (English for Young Learners), and the lack of provision of English and other knowledge relevant to English in PGSD (Primary School Teacher Education). The third major finding reveals in-service education has not been adequate to prepare teachers to teach English at primary level due to a limited number of quality teacher educators; poor management in terms of planning, evaluation, and transparency in participant selection; impractical orientation; as well as discrimination against teachers with non-civil servant status.

The fourth major finding highlights a shift towards the constructivist paradigm in language teacher education that has placed a greater role on student teachers to be responsible with their own professional development. This is apparent in the incorporation of technologies, the employment of innovative teacher education that flexibly combines learning-teaching

options to generate critical discussion and empower reflection, and the creation of opportunities for student teachers to exercise their pedagogical practices and acclimatize to teaching environment.

The study argues that various policy reforms that are intended to prepare teachers with the demands of their vocation are groundless without specific policy measures. At pre-service level, the policy measures include the establishment of Concentration on EYL (English for Young Learners), Certification in EYL, and the provision of English skills for prospective primary school teachers in PGSD. At in-service level, policy directives also ought to specify the flourishing role of teachers groups (Kelompok Kerja Guru/KKG) to help sustain the professional development of teachers at the local level. A bottom up approach in teacher education policymaking has been suggested as necessary and culminates in the proposal to establish the Consortium in Primary School English Teaching.

Acronyms

BOS	Bantuan Operasional Sekolah (School Operational Fund)
Dikdas	Dinas Pendidikan (Educational Office at the District Level)
DIKTI	Direktorat Pendidikan Tinggi (The Directorate General of Higher Education)
DPRD	Dewan Perwakilan Rakyat Daerah (Provincial House of Representatives)
EC	Educational Consultants
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
EYL	English for Young Learners
FKIP	Fakultas Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan (Faculty of Teacher Training and Education)
IKIP	Institut Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan (Institute of Teacher Training and Education)
KTSP	Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan (Curriculum Developed at School Level)
LPMP	Lembaga Peningkatan Mutu Pendidikan (Institution for Educational Quality Assurance)
LPTK	Lembaga Pendidikan Tenaga Keguruan (Institute of Education and Teacher Education)
LPP	Language Planning and Policy
LTE	Language Teacher Educator
MBS	Manajemen Berbasis Sekolah (School-Based Management)
MEB	Member of Educational Board
PGSD	Pendidikan Guru Sekolah Dasar (Primary School Teacher Education)
PPG	Pendidikan Profesi Guru (Professional Education Program for Teachers)
P4TK Bahasa	Pusat Pengembangan dan Pemberdayaan Pendidikan dan Tenaga Kependidikan Bahasa (The Center for Development and Empowerment of Language Teachers and Education Personnel)
PSET	Primary School English Teacher
PSP	Primary School Principal
PusKur	Pusat Kurikulum (The Curriculum Center of the Ministry of National Education)
SD	Sekolah Dasar (Primary School)

SMP	Sekolah Menengah Pertama (Junior High School)
SMA	Sekolah Menengah Atas (Senior High School)
SKL	Standar Kompetensi Lulusan (Graduates Competency Standards)
SPG	Sekolah Pendidikan Guru (School for Teacher Education)
STKIP	Sekolah Tinggi Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan (College of Teacher Training and Education)
TEFL	Teaching English as a Foreign Language
TEFLIN	Teachers of English as a Foreign Language in Indonesia
TEYL	Teaching English to Young Learners

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Chapter 1

Language Teacher Education Policy: A Special Case for Language Policymaking

1.0 Introduction

This chapter aims to set out a unifying framework for policy on language teacher education as an integral component of Language Planning and Policy (LPP). This is particularly relevant in order to provide a theoretical standpoint against which the findings emerging in this study are examined. This means this chapter outlines the literature that will be revisited when discussing the findings of the study.

This chapter is divided into seven sections. The first section of the chapter discusses the worldwide introduction of English into primary schools in the light of relevant literature in LPP. The second section discusses policy measures undertaken by countries that introduce English into their primary school curriculum. While the third section argues for a place of policy on language teacher education in LPP scholarship, the fourth section proposes a unifying framework of policy on language teacher education. The fifth section reviews the scope of language teacher education, whereas the sixth section describes the use of learning-teaching options that are useful for the professional development of teachers in language teacher education. Finally, concluding remarks are presented at the end of this chapter.

1.1 English in primary schools: A new trend in Language Planning and Policy

Early works in LPP primarily centered on issues such as selection, functions and allocation of norms of a particular language as well as graphization, gramatication, lexication,

terminological modernization, and stylistic development (see Kloss, 1968; Neustupny, 1974; Haugen, 1983; and Nahir, 1984). These efforts are known as *corpus planning,* which is aimed to "change the shape of the corpus of a language by proposing or prescribing the introduction of new technical terms, changes in spelling, or the adoption of a new script" (Kloss, 1969, p. 81). Another dimension of planning is *status planning* "where one busies oneself not with the structure and form of language but with its standing alongside other languages or vis-à-vis a national government" (Kloss, 1969, p. 81). Relevant to this are works devoted to identifying typologies and approaches to language planning in response to newly formed developing nations (see Haugen, 1966; Kloss, 1966; Fishman, Ferguson, & Das Gupta, 1968) as well as country/region-specific language policies (see Lo Bianco, 1987; Hornberger, 1988).

LPP is however "not just an exercise in philosophical inquiry" (Ricento, 2006, p. 11) where alteration of use and systems of a language is made. LPP is in fact projected to intervene in the language practices and the beliefs of a speech community that are often influenced by non-linguistic factors (e.g. politics, demography, social, religions, cultures, psychology, and bureaucracy) (Spolsky, 2004). It has a functional dimension embodied in *acquisition planning* (Cooper, 1989). Definitions given by Cooper (1989), Hornberger (2006), and Wright (2004) provided a conjecture on *acquisition planning* as organized and considerable efforts to promote the learning of a language as well as to attain a certain level of competency in that language through which opportunities and incentives are given. The teaching of the mother tongue is an important aspect of acquisition planning (Wright, 2004).

Another significant spectrum of acquisition planning is the teaching of a foreign language in the school curriculum. The phenomenon is commonplace, especially when political and economic grounds affect language policymaking and are implemented through education (Kaplan, 1990). For instance, a major consequence of the supremacy of English in global affairs is the prevalent assumption that English is crucial for economic, social, and technological developments. Such commercially motivated demand results in the policy to

introduce English into primary school, which has been a worldwide phenomenon in the past decade, particularly in Asia (Lee & Azman, 2004).

Proponents of this policy largely associate early introduction of English with success in language acquisition. Although the benefits of early introduction to early acquisition for global competition are not empirically grounded, its popularity is undeniably striking. South Korea (Jung & Norton, 2002), China, (Hu, 2005; Li, 2007), Taiwan (Wuchang-Chang, 2007), Indonesia (Zein, 2009), and Vietnam (Hoa & Tuan, 2007) succumbed to a citizen-based pressure emphasizing the notion 'the earlier, the better'. In Japan, for example, providing English instruction at primary level is aimed to foster positive attitudes towards communication in English, which is considered an important human capital investment for gaining eventual economic advantages in global competition (Butler & Iino, 2005).

Clearly introducing English in primary schools is not merely a pedagogical response to the global political constellation in which English has permeated to arguably all spectrums of life. It is also a political exercise. It is a new trend in language policymaking whose attempts are meant to bring language changes to face a rapidly changing world.

1.2 Policy measures in response to introducing English in primary schools

The introduction of English at primary level has implications; the presence of a group of teachers who are well trained in language pedagogy and are also reasonably fluent in English is imperative. Baldauf, Kaplan, Kamwangamalu, & Bryant (2011, p. 317) however pointed out that the implementation of the policy is constrained by the fact that "there are not enough teachers, not to mention appropriately trained teachers". The shortage of qualified, proficient, and competent teachers who are able to carry out the teaching of the language in schools is a primary and complex issue facing the introduction of English into the primary school curriculum.

This section discusses policy measures aimed to overcome the adverse effects resulting from the shortage of qualified and competent primary school English teachers that have been taken by EFL (English as a Foreign Language) countries whose contexts are reasonably similar to Indonesia. These countries include China, Vietnam, South Korea, Taiwan, Japan, and Hong Kong. The policy measures discussed further in this section include allowing teachers with no English background to teach English in primary schools, the provision of in-service training by teaching colleges, the development of English program at pre-service level, standardizing the proficiency level of English teachers, and importing English native speaking teachers.

1.2.1 Appointing teachers without relevant background

The phenomenon of appointing teachers without relevant background to teach English at primary level is ubiquitous. It is present everywhere in which investment on early instruction of English is made; for example, in countries such as Vietnam and Japan (Lee & Azman, 2004; Hoa & Tuan, 2007; Butler, 2007). When English was introduced in primary schools in 2001, the Chinese government was confronted by an acute shortage of teachers. There was an estimated 200,000 primary school English teachers but approximately 300,000 new primary school English teachers were needed. The immediacy of the policy initiative and the huge gap occurring between the demand and supply of trained teachers forced the Chinese government to resort to a makeshift staffing measure. This was accomplished by assigning teachers of other subjects to teach English in the primary schools. Realignment was made on their employment status; the Chinese government stipulated that the teachers could teach English on either a full time or part time basis (Ministry of Education of People's Republic of China, 2001).

A quite similar situation also appears in Indonesia where most English teachers at primary level hold no relevant qualification. Classroom teachers with limited English proficiency are appointed by primary school principals to teach English, despite having no appropriate English qualifications. On the other hand, those with a non-English undergraduate degree are allowed to teach English in primary schools. They are employed to teach English even

though they have inadequate pedagogical experience and may only have some English proficiency (Agustina, Rahayu, Murti, 1997; Chodidjah, 2008b).

The implementation of such policy measure has nevertheless been a subject of criticism. Hu (2005) argued that assigning teachers with no English background provides an immediate solution, but the extent to which the solution is applicable on a long-term basis is arguable. He stated that the policy is a reflection of a "naïve conception of the professional qualities of primary foreign language teachers" (Hu, 2005, p. 20). Even now, the efficacy of such impetus has not been empirically proven to be positive to young learners' language development. It is unlikely that instruction resulting from the employment of teachers with no qualifications in English is ever effective. The reason is because young learners are typically characterized by their age with regards to aspects such as cognitive development, learning style, and attention span (Brown, 2001).

1.2.2 Conducting in-service training

A policy measure in which teaching colleges in association with the local governments conduct in-service training for teachers of other subjects is a popular one.

Universities, teaching colleges, and teacher training schools in China are required to provide English training for teachers of other subjects. Upon completion of the training the teachers are officially certified to teach English in primary schools (Ministry of Education of People's Republic of China, 2001). Nowadays, English language teacher education programs are provided by virtually all of the Chinese tertiary teacher education institutions. Various formal and non-formal in-service programs are also set up along with the expansion of pre-service English language teacher education. These include a whole range of short and long-term continuing professional development programs such as comprehensive universities, distance learning agencies, television universities, and self-study higher education (Li, 2007).

Similar policy measure takes place in South Korea. Since 1996, the local governments in the country have been providing training to incumbent teachers. From 1996 to 1999 there were 67, 976 teachers who attended the 120 hour General English teacher training and 50, 650 teachers who attended the 120 hour Intensive English teacher training under this scheme. A long-term English training program at the national level was also introduced by the central government. The training scheme has witnessed an increasing number of trainees since it was first implemented in 2003. It went from 200 in 2003 and 2004 to 333 in 2005, and 406 in 2006. Approximately 1000 trainees attended the training in 2007. A similar number is expected to appear every year up to 2015, accumulating in the participation of no less than 10, 000 teacher trainees under the training scheme (Shiga, 2008).

The Taiwanese government also provides funds for in-service training in English teaching to certified elementary school teachers who are lacking English proficiency and have not undertaken relevant training in English teaching (Tsao, 2008). In Japan, a five-year plan of in-service teacher training was introduced in order to support teachers. The training was aimed to improve the teachers' abilities to cultivate students' practical communication skills in line with the "Action Plan to Cultivate Japanese with English Abilities" imposed by the central government in 2003 (MEXT, 2003).

A major challenge with this policy measure is the ambiguity of the autonomy rendered to policy agents at the local level. In countries such as Japan (Butler, 2007) and Vietnam (Nguyen, 2011) educational administrators at the local level are unsure about the roles they need to play, and the extent to which these roles should be played when they are asked to coordinate teaching colleges to provide in-service training. The extension of roles of policy agents at the local level has resulted in the gap in the types and portions of support provided for English teachers.

Furthermore, seldom do policy agents at the local level amplify their roles and autonomy on the educational sphere, not to mention the professional development for English

teachers. This is present in Indonesia where in-service training programs for primary school English teachers have been primarily provided by private institutions such as British Council and individual teacher educators rather than government-based training institutions to train English teachers at primary level. In addition to the absence of clarity in terms of the shared roles exerted by the local governments and how they should share the roles with other stakeholders, the lack of enthusiasm displayed by educational administrators presents another challenge (Chodidjah, 2007).

1.2.3 Requiring teaching colleges to develop primary school English program

Some of the countries under scrutiny also initiate a policy measure to develop a program at pre-service level to help prepare student teachers to teach English in primary schools.

The Taiwanese government encourages colleges to set up new English teaching programs as well as different types of summer English teaching programs. These new English teaching programs specialize in Teaching English to Young Learners (TEYL). Some Taiwanese colleges also offer post-graduate English teaching programs in which students with a Bachelor degree from other major other than English are required to take classes for one year. The student teachers are also required to spend another year of teaching practicum to prepare them to be able to teach English to primary school children (Tsao, 2008).

In South Korea, the policy measure is conducted by increasing the number of university students majoring in English Language Education. Moreover, the number of hours for English instruction is also increased; those majoring in primary education are required to undertake 12 credit points of English classes. They are also required to pass an English conversation test before being considered eligible to teach in primary schools (Jung & Norton, 2002).

Similar policy measure however faces challenges in other countries. For example, the fact that the Chinese government does not provide clear policy directives of how this policy

measure should be executed has created confusion amongst relevant parties at the subsidiary levels. Universities and teacher colleges in the pre-service sector of the country have been left without guidance of how the scheme can be practically enacted. Often they are the sole executioners for the implementation of the policy with little support given by the central government (Hu, 2007). In Indonesia, there has been no program developed within English departments at pre-service level that is specific to TEYL. Preparation for student teachers wishing to embark on a career in primary school English teaching takes place in a unit called EYL (English for Young Learners), but the unit is not offered by all teaching colleges because not all are concerned with primary school education or have the necessary resources to offer the unit (Suyanto, 2010).

1.2.4 Standardizing the proficiency level of English teachers

Some countries under scrutiny have also decided to devise the standards of proficiency of primary level English teachers.

For example, the Taiwanese government recruits new teachers who have sufficient English proficiency (i.e. at least 213 points on the computer-based TOEFL) or the third level of Taiwan's General English Proficiency Test (GEPT) (Tsao, 2008). On the other hand, Hong Kong and Vietnam stipulate proficiency levels for English teachers in primary schools that are lower than teachers in secondary schools. Primarily stimulated by wide perceptions among the mainly English-educated business sector about the decline of English standards in Hong Kong, the government imposed the Hong Kong Examinations and Assessment Authority (HKEAA). The proficiency assessment enforces teachers to do HKEEA recertification; otherwise, they risk the chance of losing their teaching license (Hopkins, 2006). In Vietnam, English teachers in primary schools are expected to reach Level 3 according to the Association of Language Testers of Europe, but those at secondary levels are expected to reach Level 4 (Loc, 2007). Popular views in Vietnam and Hong Kong hold the idea that teaching a foreign language at primary level is not that difficult in comparison to teaching at secondary and tertiary levels.

The issue with this policy measure is that false assumptions have rationalized the establishment of a policy measure instead of prudent political decisions based on theoretical and empirical evidence. A lower requirement of proficiency for those teaching English in primary schools than those in secondary schools is erroneous (Loc, 2007). Teachers in primary schools are generally the first, and in some cases, the only exposure that students have to English. The presence of teachers with a good command of English is crucial for the development of students' language proficiency. Young learners at primary level are at the stage of oral language reproduction of the accent of their teacher with great accuracy. Since students at this level are good imitators of the sounds produced by their teacher, a high level of fluency and good pronunciation are essential in order for teachers to become good language models for their students (Cameron, 2003; Moon, 2006).

The issue with teachers' proficiency is deteriorated by the fact that while teachers are required to achieve a certain level of proficiency, an environment in which such level can be achieved is not provided. Specific training programs to assist teachers in achieving the desired level of proficiency have not been formulated. The case is even worse in Indonesia as the country has not created a policy that stipulates the minimum proficiency level for teachers of English at primary level. Various studies reported that most English teachers at primary level are those who have no background in pre-service English education and are limited users of English (Agustina, et al., 1997; Suyanto & Chodidjah 2002; Suyanto & Rachmajanti, 2008; Chodidjah, 2007).

1.2.5 Importing teachers from English speaking countries

The employment of English teachers from the United Kingdom, the United States of America, Australia, and Canada has been a continuously popular trend in some of the countries under scrutiny. The policy is introduced primarily to provide a rich provision of authentic English to primary school students, since only a few local teachers are proficient in the language.

Japan has been importing a large number of qualified and unqualified English speaking teachers from the USA, Australia, and the United Kingdom in the past few years. These teachers serve as Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) and are required to help local teachers in several primary schools in Japan. The ALTs work collaboratively with the local teachers to help improve the communicative competence of Japanese students (Butler & Iino, 2005). A recent report shows that in 2012 the Japan Exchange & Teaching (JET) generated the interests of 4, 360 participants (JET Program, 2012).

Although the policy of importing native speakers of English has been relatively successful in Japan, other countries do not seem to have experienced similar success. In Hong Kong the number of native English teachers stands around 470, although the recruitment process has taken place for seven years (Hopkins, 2006). In Taiwan, the number of successful applicants has also been relatively small; there were only 68 native English-speaking teachers recruited in 2005 and 104 in 2006 (Wuchang-Chang, 2007).

The major challenge of this policy measure is the fact that internationally competitive salaries and allowances to attract a high-caliber of applicants for the positions are imperative for success to take place. The implementation of the program has been a costly operation. Hong Kong, for instance, spends over US$50 million per year to support the NET Scheme (Hopkins, 2006). Some affluent primary schools under the JET Scheme find the policy is feasible, yet a large proportion of primary schools in Japan could not afford the employment of native speakers, so they have to share a native speaker of English in between two or three schools (Butler, 2007). In countries with limited spending on teacher education like Indonesia, the implementation of such a policy measure may not even be viable.

The second challenge is the local teachers' resentment. In Hong Kong, the Western teachers position themselves as the spearhead of the curriculum reformation and perceive themselves as better than the local teachers. On the other hand, local teachers feel that Western teachers actually have poor understanding of the local Hong Kong

Chinese educational culture. They argue that many Western teachers are inadequately trained but are employed merely due to their elevated status given to them as native English speakers. This has largely diminished the possibility of a positive collaboration between the English native speaking teachers and the local teachers (Hopkins, 2006). Research amplifies the notion that both native and non-native English speaking teachers are equally good on their own terms and that native speaking English teachers with no qualifications in TESOL are not necessarily better teachers. No distinctions or discriminations should therefore be made on the basis of being native or non-native. There is no reason why Western teachers should receive much higher salaries and allowances than their local counterparts (Medgyes, 1994, 1999; Liu, 1999).

The problematic situations resulting from the implementation of the policy measures above provide evidence that policymaking on teacher education for primary school English teachers has not been carefully planned. The ambiguity of roles exercised by local government in coordinating teaching colleges to provide in-service training, the absence of specific policy directive in the establishment of specific program in teaching EYL in English departments, and appointing teachers without adequate pedagogical preparation are examples of poor planning. The case of importing English teachers from English speaking countries also demonstrates that policymakers are more interested in providing some short-term policy measures rather than long-term ones. They are far more interested in meeting the immediate need of teacher supply rather than the education of local teachers. This explains why Nunan (2003, p. 607) stated that in countries in East and Southeast Asia where English is taught at primary level, “adequate and appropriate training is found to be a major problem.”

1.3 The need for policy on language teacher education

The lack of empirical grounds to help policymakers to make informed decisions has been demonstrated in the previous section. In this section, particular areas of contents and

designs of policies on teacher education as an underexplored area in the wider literature of LPP are demonstrated.

1.3.1 Policy on language teacher education in the literature

The intertwined relationship between LPP and language teacher education is best reflected in the notion that the success of a language policy depends largely on the efficacy of the teachers carrying out the policy proposals at pedagogic level. Assertions of the critical roles of language teachers in carrying out language policies were made by numerous scholars (Christ, 1997; Cooper, 1989; Djite, 1994; Spolsky, 2009; Hu, 2005; Ingram, 1990; Widdowson, 1993; Wiley, 2008). Statements from Widdowson (1993, p. 260), "whatever proposals are made at the macro-level of educational policy depend for their effectiveness on the interpretation by teachers at a micro-level of pedagogic practice and their abilities to carry out the proposals" and Hu (2005, p. 20), "without a strong contingent of professionally competent teachers, there will always be a gap between policy rhetoric and classroom reality" are explicit accounts demonstrating this hypothesis.

Furthermore, Kaplan & Baldauf (1997) asserted that "identifying, training, and maintaining a cadre of skilled language teachers" (p. 74) is a significant objective of the planning process. When this objective is not adequately met, it is unlikely that a language policy will succeed in implementation. More recently, Spolsky (2009) argued that the training, qualifying, recruiting, and hiring of teachers are a key aspect of managing language policy in the school domain. It is now apparent that the success of a language policy is contingent on the presence or absence of competent and professional teaching cadre, and this highlights the significance of *personnel policy* in language policymaking (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997). Kaplan & Baldauf (1997, p. 130) stated that

> "No matter what the duration of instruction, a planning issue that needs to be addressed is the teacher cadre which will deliver the instruction. There is a need for a group of teachers trained in language pedagogy and reasonably fluent in the target language."

Despite its significance, policy on language teacher education is a relatively underexplored area in both second and foreign language teaching contexts. Issues related to policy on language teacher education have been addressed to some extent in Naqvi & Coburn (2008), Wiley (2008), and Clarke (2007), but these are still an insignificant portion in comparison to other publications appearing in major journals in LPP scholarship such as *Current Issues in Language Planning, Language Policy,* and *Language Problems and Language Planning* which put larger emphasis on other fields of inquiry such as language assessment policy, language identity, and minority rights. Policies on language teacher education do not even appear in the wider context of language planning and policy as an independent field of inquiry (see Wright, 2004; Tollefson, 2002; Ricento, 2006; Spolsky, 2004, 2009; Ferguson, 2006, for example). It is apparent that exclusive considerations related to policy on language teacher education have escaped the attention of researchers. Christ's (1997, p. 224) argument more than a decade ago that "hardly any research has been conducted thus far on language policy in teacher education" remains intact today.

While policymakers need to consider theoretical and practical implications of policy on language teacher education in order to create informed decisions, language planning theorists need to pay more explicit and analytical attention to issues of policymaking on educating language teachers. The broader search for literature beyond the field of language planning from what is currently available is imperative (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997). This makes a case for a specific purpose of language planning. All this discussion has led to Freeman's (2001, p. 79) supposition that "we know that teacher education matters" but the real question is "how to improve it." The notion of how to deliver teacher education for language teachers is the underlying principle behind the emergence of Language Teacher Education (LTE) Policy. Since the core issue of LTE Policy is how to improve the quality of teachers, LTE Policy is best viewed as an integral component of *personnel policy* (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997), as shown in Figure 1.

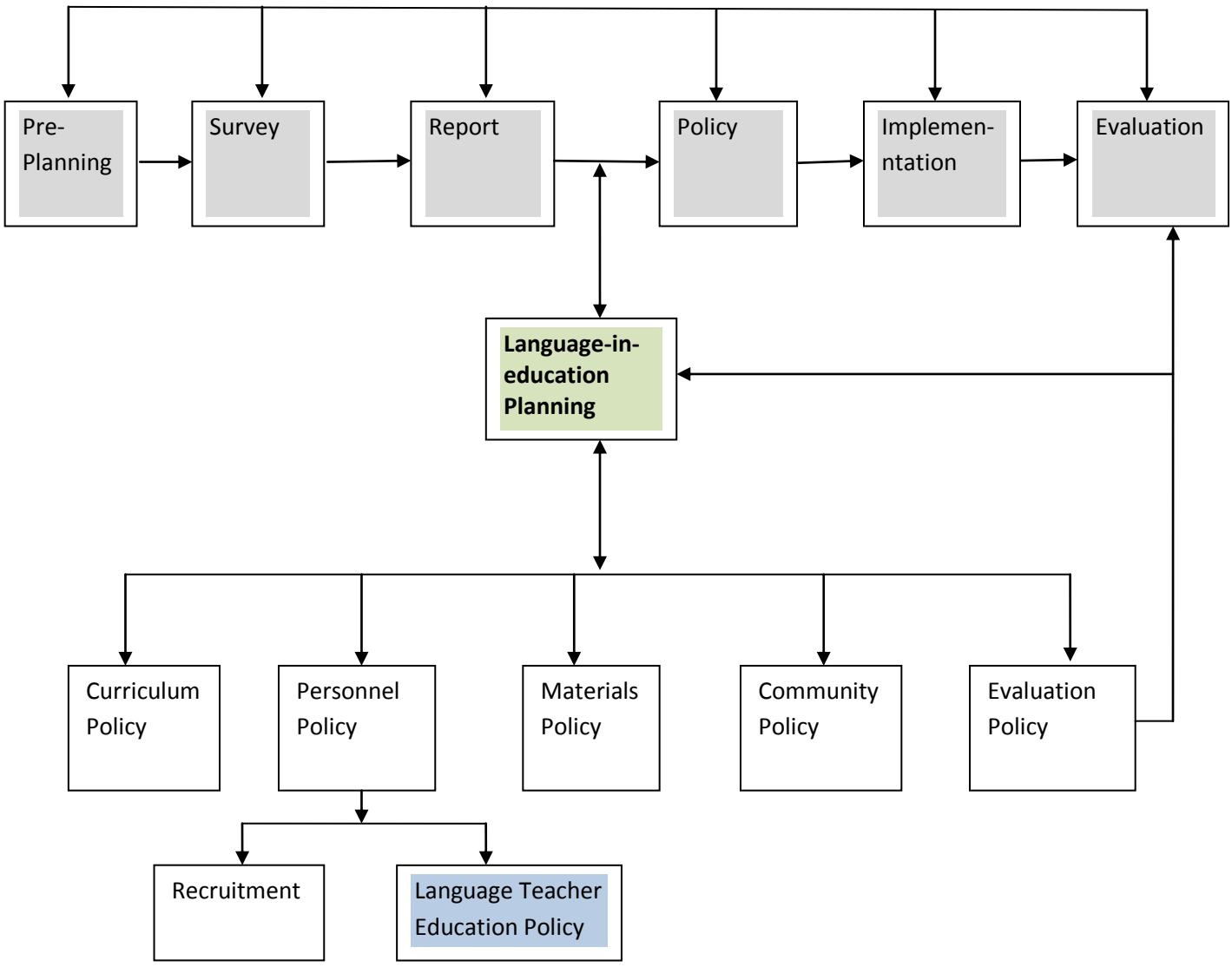

Figure 1 LTE Policy within Language-in-education Planning (Adapted from Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997)

1.3.2 A supporting framework for LTE policy

It has been argued that LTE Policy is vital for the success of a language policy. What remains missing however is a comprehensive approach to policy on language teacher education. An unequivocal overarching framework that outlines policy for educating language teachers is yet to be seen. Such framework needs to appear to situate research, teaching, and policy, as well as to provide all-inclusive analysis and practical implications.

Cooper (1989) suggested that “a descriptively adequate account of any given case of language planning ought to tell us, at minimum, what actors attempted to influence what behaviors, of which people, for what ends, by what means, with what results… and under what conditions” (p. 97). This indicates that principle variables of language teacher education policymaking must include policy agents, the desired goals, the people who are targeted in the policy, the contextual conditions that give impact on the survival of the policy, and theoretical and pedagogical considerations. These variables can be translated into a number of questions including: 1) What are the goals of the policy?; 2) Who are involved in the policymaking and how is it created?; 3) What kind of approach is used to prepare the teachers and how to best achieve it?; 4) What are the content issues in the language teacher education programs?; 5) What kinds of learning-teaching options may be used?; and 6) What are the socio-contextual factors that affect the implementation of LTE Policy?

These are didactic and political problems with a particular relevance to LTE policy in which governments, teacher educators, and teachers are confronted with today. Figure 2 proposes the framework for understanding LTE policy in order to provide the overarching conceptual scheme for describing policy design, the scope of LTE policy, and learning-teaching options on language teacher education. A single variable in the framework is inextricably linked to all other variables.

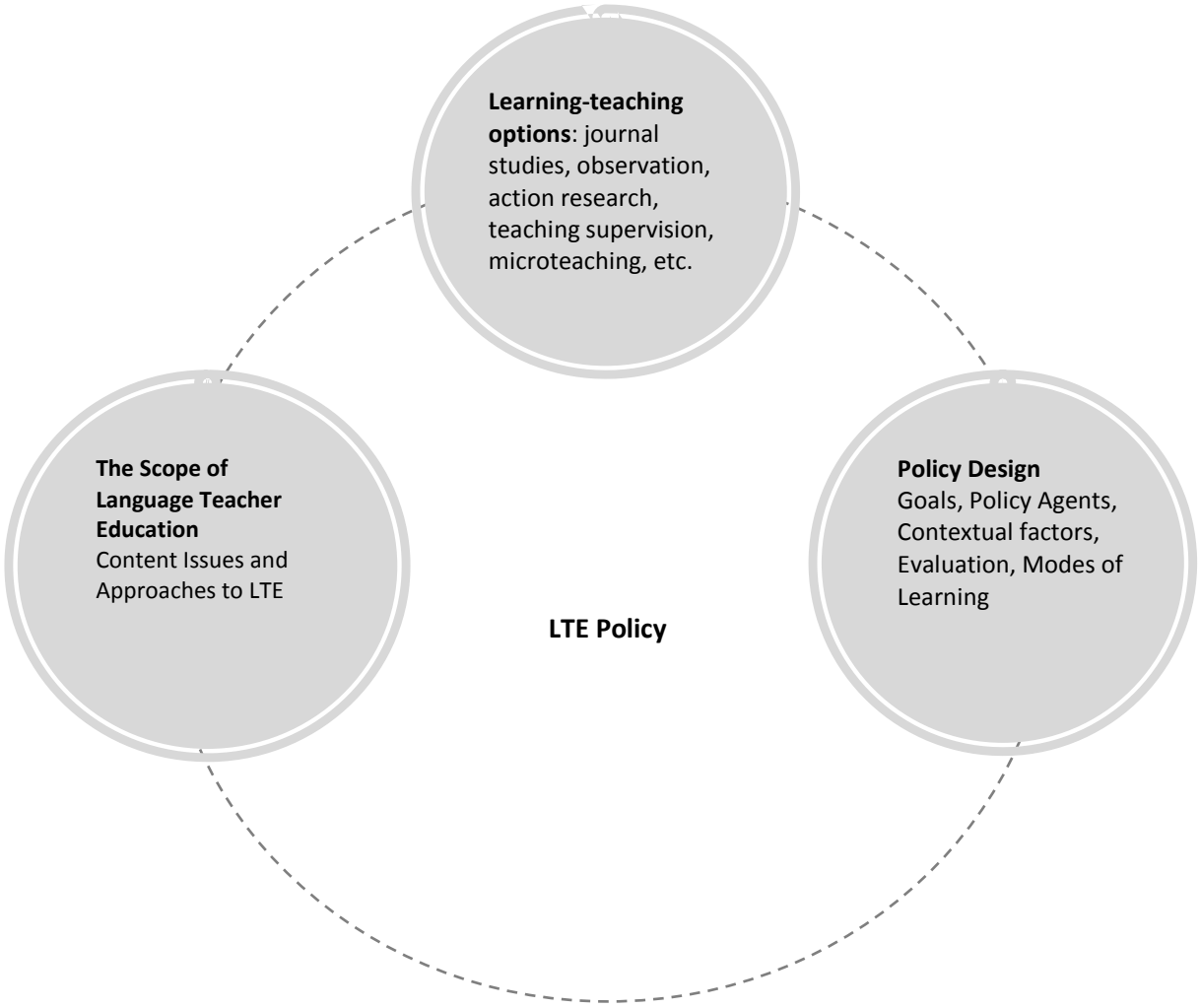

Figure 2 The framework of LTE policy

In an attempt to disentangle the complexities of LTE Policy, the sections that follow discuss the variables of LTE Policy as shown in Figure 2 above. In section 1.4, various components of policy framework of LTE Policy are discussed. These include policy agents, the goals of LTE Policy, access, continuity and evaluation, and contextual factors. In section 1.5, the scope of policy on language teacher education is examined by reviewing a number of approaches to and the contents of language teacher education. Section 1.6 provides various learning-teaching options (Richards, 1998b) to address what should be included in teacher education programs. Throughout the discussion, the interrelationships among these variables are also examined.

1.4 LTE Policy framework

Figure 2 overleaf shows a workable framework for policy design in LTE policymaking consists of several aspects, namely: 1) policy agents; 2) policy goals, 3) modes of learning, 4) contextual factors, and 5) accessibility, continuation, and evaluation. In the framework of language planning proposed by Cooper (1989), these aspects are a response to the questions: "what actors" to influence "which people", "under what conditions", and "for what ends". Such scrutiny is necessary in order to ensure the comprehensive nature of LTE policymaking. The following sub-sections discuss these variables in greater details.

1.4.1 Policy agents

Policy agents in LTE policy are those who are involved in the design and planning of the policy as well as those responsible for the enactment of the policy. Following Spolsky (2009), policymakers are the writers of the constitution, the legislators, and ministers who set regulations and determine budget; whereas the implementers include government agencies or ministries, members of educational boards, and bureaucrats carrying out and evaluating the policy. This division is however artificial, because implementers often "independently attempt to persuade governments or legislators to adopt or modify a specific language policy" (Spolsky, 2009, p. 225). An overlap is therefore expected, and to look behind policy statements to examine the policy agents involved is necessary.

A widely believed assumption using a top-down orientation in language policy is that language policy is often an effort largely exercised by policymakers without wide consultations with language experts or other stakeholders (Tucker, 1994). Language planners rarely inform public about their language policy endeavors. A top down approach is usually insufficient because it cannot explain the interactions that occur between language policy and classroom pedagogy. Therefore, a missing link between policymaking at the central government, the local policy agents, schools, teachers, universities, and teacher educators occurs (Cooper, 1989). More often than not, language teachers are victimized by the disoriented policy made by educational policymakers who often produce policies without sufficient input from relevant stakeholders or academic

experts. This implies the necessity to embrace a bottom-up approach in language teacher education policymaking (for review see Hogan-Brun, 2010).

As will be shown in sections 1.5 and 1.6, a large proportion of language teacher education policy is related to "what to teach" and "how to teach" student teachers in order to prepare them to become qualified and competent teachers (Cooper, 1989). These are theoretical and pedagogical inquiries that become the concerns of language practitioners, teacher educators, and researchers. Relying on policymakers to write a policy on language teacher education without consulting with researchers or teachers only makes the policy groundless because "sidelining those who do the research denies its potential value in designing policies that equalise students' opportunities to learn" (Bales, 2006, p. 397).

As suggested by Cooper (1989) a significant aspect in language planning is deciding "to whom" language planning efforts are made. In the case of LTE policymaking, this means the participants of teacher education programs. In the pre-service sector, student teachers are those at universities undertaking an undergraduate degree in language education. In the in-service sector, this includes novice teachers who have just started their teaching career in schools and language teachers with sufficient experience but hold no relevant language teaching qualifications. The personal beliefs of these training participants about language and language teaching are equally important to their roles in the enactment of a language policy. Almarza (1996, p. 76) stated that "if we design teacher education programs without an understanding of what the student teachers' conceptions are and the role they play in their education, we are implicitly assuming that our conceptions and theirs are the same".

1.4.2 Goals of LTE policy

At the core of language teacher education policy is the notion that teacher quality contributes to student achievement, and some authorities ought to be accountable for assuring that level of quality. The aim of language teacher education in broader context of

language policy is to provide those interested in teaching a language with opportunities to develop their teaching competence in order to teach the language successfully.

Recent development on the goals of language teaching competence has shown the inclusion of cultural competence to counter the overemphasis on language teaching methodology and classroom management (Crozet, 2005). This means teachers are required to be proficient in the language they teach, possess strong theoretical concepts of language and language teaching, are skillful in managing the classroom, and are able to demonstrate the links between culture and issues related to language as well as society and identity. This goal can be further specified into a series of instructional and pedagogical goals as directed in the content issues of LTE Policy (Section 1.5.2).

1.4.3 Modes of learning in language teacher education

The two main modes of learning in teacher education for language teachers are pre-service teacher education and in-service teacher education. While pre-service teacher education takes place *before* student teachers start their teaching career, in-service teacher education is normally held *during* their teaching career. Literature shows that pre-service teacher education largely deals with theories and philosophies of education as well as areas in subject-matter knowledge including language acquisition, analysis of teaching methods, curriculum and syllabus design, sociolinguistics, language testing and assessment. Practical components consisting of classroom observation and micro-teaching are also conducted within pre-service teacher education. On the other hand, in-service teacher education normally provides more reflective opportunities which relate student teachers' teaching beliefs and conceptions of language teaching to their current teaching practice (Richards & Farrell, 2005). Other modes of teacher education are viable and vary from one country to another. These include accreditation of professional programs, licensing via examinations, and certification based on set coursework (Wiley, 2009).

The introduction of a language policy in the national education system means that those involved in LTE policymaking need to fully consider whether language teacher education is

going to be implemented in the pre-service, in-service, or both sectors. Roberts (1998) suggested that considerations in regard to modes of learning in a teacher education program have parameters such as intake (number of students, full-time or part time involvement, and recognition to prior learning), course duration and structure, costs, and staff conditions (part-time or full time, and roles of teaching). These parameters are essential to answer *how* the program is going to be implemented.

1.4.4 Contextual factors

Cooper (1989) argued that various contextual conditions, either relatively transient or permanent, have immediate impact on policy. First and foremost, language policy is inextricably connected to linguistic culture, which is defined as "the sum of totality of ideas, values, beliefs, attitudes, prejudices, myths, religious strictures, and all the other cultural baggage that speakers bring to their dealings with language from their culture" (Schiffman, 1996, p. 112). The success of a language policy is determined by how the language and its associated culture are perceived in society. Since explicit accounts of a language policy are greatly affected by the linguistic culture within a society or a nation, to look more deeply than explicit policy is necessary in order to understand how the policy works in practice.

For example, various factors have been influential in the introduction of English teaching at primary level. As shown in Section 1.1, more and more primary schools are introducing English because it is considered a useful tool for economic advancement. While parents and society perceive early introduction to English as a necessary future investment, schools are certain of the value of English for uplifting their social prestige. The interplay of these factors results in the employment of teachers with inadequate preparation to teach English at primary level. All these factors form the linguistic culture of English teaching at primary level that bring impacts on the pedagogical practices of the teachers as well as the delivery of the English lessons. This inevitably brings implications for teacher education as teachers are now expected to learn about the linguistic culture of their country (Crozet, 2008).

The success of LTE policy also depends on the availability of accurate data; good policy decisions cannot be made without reliable and valid data. Although modern governments and language academies devote considerable resources to the gathering of information, serious questions are often posed on the basis of relatively little good data (Cooper, 1989). The number of the available teachers, how many of them are qualified, and how many of them are professionally certified are examples of data needed for policy input.

1.4.5 Access, continuation, and evaluation

Three emerging issues relevant to LTE Policy are access, continuation, and evaluation. Assurance of access is imperative to the introduction of a new language policy rarely attracts large participation unless social and economic advantages are attached to it. The intake of participants involved in various schemes of LTE Policy is subject to the availability of these advantages. Tuition fee exemption or subsidies may be provided to those intending to teach English in primary schools. Those majoring in English Language Education could be the recipients of this incentive scheme. Provision of incentives for prospective participants is a lucrative operation imperative to the success of the policy (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997).

No less political is the notion that the implementation of LTE Policy is a socially transformative agenda. The issue is most critical when local conditions are taken into account. In Japan, micro language policies are actively enacted by the local governments, but the country is confronted with the issues of equity and growing diversity. Minimal professional support to teachers and the lack of uniformity in the practices of English Elementary School Program are causative to the growing diversity presently occurring among different regions and social classes (Butler, 2007). In Japan, as is in everywhere else, the disparity presently occurring between rural and urban areas may deteriorate if this phenomenon persists. Primary school English teachers in urban areas are generally more privileged than their colleagues in rural areas because the latter receives minimal support.

High quality in-service teacher training is crucial but it needs to be conducted on an on-going basis. Continuation in language teacher education is essential (Richards, 1998a; Richards & Nunan, 1990; Burns & Richards, 2009). On-going in-service trainings are meant to assist teachers to: 1) be able to keep updated with the methodologies in language teaching. Quite often language teachers are far behind the latest methods and trends in language teaching. Attending continuous in-service teacher training will enable them to improve their teaching competencies and provide them with opportunities to try on new skills or technologies in language teaching; 2) maintain their language proficiency. It is common sense that language can atrophy over time if not used regularly for communicative purposes. In-service teacher training that provides classes in communicative skills will be very much useful for teachers to recharge or even improve their proficiency. Attendees often find themselves becoming more confident in communicating in the target language after completing a high quality teacher training course or after attending overseas training to improve their language skills (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997).

Another issue of interest is policy evaluation. The difficulties for evaluating the effectiveness of a language policy are considerable because language planning never occurs in a social vacuum. Even harder is determining the degree of success of a language planning goal and which factors contribute to that outcome (Cooper, 1989). Both language policymakers and policy implementers can evaluate the program through various means: interviews, meeting evaluations, etc. Listening to the voices of the student teachers can also be a mechanism of evaluation which allows them not only to be explorative in reflecting on their own teaching experiences, but also constructive for reporting what went well and what went badly. These voices are useful and carry implications for language teacher education so that teacher educators can better prepare their student teachers to meet the challenges they will encounter in their language classroom (Diaz-Greenberg & Nevin, 2003).

Understanding the intricacy and intertwined relationship of each aspect of this policy design is necessary, but specific policy considerations are no less important. Those who are involved in LTE Policymaking need to be aware of other theoretical and methodological aspects that constitute the underlying principles of LTE Policymaking. These issues are discussed in the following sections, which focus on the scope of and learning-teaching options in language teacher education.

1.5 The scope of language teacher education

Figure 2 (Section 1.3.2) shows that the scope of language teacher education is inherent within the policy framework of LTE Policy. According to Richards (1998b), this scope includes aspects such as pedagogical approaches to language teacher education and theoretical and practical contents that need to be included. In the framework of language planning that Cooper (1989, p. 98) proposed, the scope of language teacher education equates "attempts to influence what behaviors". Simply put, the scope of language teacher education is about "what to teach" to student teachers. The discussion of these aspects is presented in the following section.

1.5.1 The development of pedagogical approaches to language teacher education

Review of literature shows an evolvement in the approaches employed in language teacher education since its early development. Traditional teacher education programs employed *The Craft Approach* that allows the transmission of model knowledge through imitation. Teacher apprentices observe demonstrations of teaching, how instructions are made, how students are grouped, or how tasks are presented by an expert, and learn by "imitating the expert's techniques and by following the expert's instructions and advice" (Wallace, 1991, p. 6). The model is identified as 'teaching as doing', since the application largely emphasizes what teachers do after following a set of routines (Freeman, 1992, 1996a).

While the application of this model is claimed positive to build confidence amongst novice teachers, it is static when it comes to scientific development. It cannot keep abreast with the explosion of scientific knowledge in language teaching and learning and does not provide room for teachers to develop their cognitive skills in regard to the complexities of language teaching (Wallace, 1991).

Dissatisfactions over *The Craft Approach* led into the emergence of *the Applied Science Approach.* Also known as 'teaching as thinking and doing', the approach is predicated on the idea that knowledge about teaching and subject matters can be transmitted through processes of organized professional education (Freeman, 1992, 1996a). Pre-service teacher education programs subscribing to this approach generally provide student teachers with general theories about language learning, prescriptive grammatical information about language, and pedagogical methods (Freeman, 2001). After a series of continuous practice and periodic updating, student teachers are expected to be able to apply the knowledge in their own teaching contexts.

The Applied Science Approach promises to deliver a 'scientific' solution to the complexities of language teaching, but scholars argued the approach is flawed for two reasons. First, the approach has placed student teachers as mere passive recipients of knowledge rather than active participants in the construction of knowledge. Opportunities for student teachers to develop their own knowledge and make sense of their own pedagogical practices are non-existent. Student teachers are not provided with opportunities to develop their decision making skill in order to make teaching an engaging intellectual exercise. It is of no surprise that student teachers would find it difficult to develop a comprehensive understanding of the complexities of teaching (Freeman, 1994; Crandall, 2000).

Second, the *Applied Science Approach* seems to underestimate the value of classroom teacher's expertise deriving from experience. This contradicts the fact that many of the experiences in the learning process take place in on-the job initiation into the teaching

practices. The process of thinking and decision making of teachers in regard to the complexities of teaching and learning are not accounted for (Crandall, 2000; Freeman, 2001).

The *Applied Science Approach* later waned in popularity and was replaced by *the Reflective Approach.* Reflection commences when student teachers are acquainted with knowledge constituting necessary intellectual contents of their education. Trainees need to activate their schemata or mental construct about teaching. Later they establish *received knowledge* and *experiential knowledge* through continuous practice. The reflection takes place when they rethink about what went very well or very badly. Such process enables student teachers to develop their pedagogical reasoning and decision making. In addition, it also allows student teachers to identify, adapt, and possibly change their current practices and teaching strategies (Freeman, 1992, 1996a).

The strength of the *Reflective Approach* lies at its balance; it gives due weight both to experience and scientific knowledge at the right proportion. The model allows the provision of reflection on experiences that will make it possible for teachers to identify, adapt, and possibly change their current practices and teaching strategies (Wallace, 1991). Moreover, student teachers are seen as a primary source of knowledge rather than passive recipients. When greater autonomy to become active agents for their own development is conferred to student teachers, teacher educators will find assisting individual teachers in developing themselves to the fullest extent possible effortless (Pennington, 1990; Freeman, 1996b).

The latest paradigm shift in language teacher education is parallel to the shift of focus of second and foreign language teaching that has been occurring over decades. The traditional structured-focus approaches to language teaching, such as Grammar Translation Method and Audio-Lingual Method, have been replaced by more communicative-meaning-based approaches such as Communicative Language Teaching and Task-Based Language Teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Greater awareness of the

social and cultural factors in language teaching has been dominant in recent years as language is viewed inseparable from culture as it is from wider social contexts in which language is a part of (Kramsch, 1998; Corbett, 2003).

Co-relationships between language, culture, contexts, and identity are the main focus of Intercultural Language Teaching. This redirection should lead into new projections and practices of language teacher education both in second and foreign language contexts. A refocus on teacher education from what has been an overemphasis on language teaching methodology and classroom management now needs to assist teachers to be able to make links between language and its associated culture as thinkers, knowers, and creative pedagogues (Crozet, 2005).

These new projections and practices imply that "teacher education must take into account the social, political, economic, and cultural histories that are located in the contexts" (Johnson, 2009, p. 6). Teacher learning is understood as a dynamic process in which reconstruction and transformation of social practices are recognized as an enculturation process into social practices associated with teaching and learning. *The Socio-cultural Approach* redirects the views of teachers and teacher educators on how teachers learn to teach, how teachers think about language(s), how teachers teach language(s), as well as the broader social, cultural, and historical macro-structures of language teaching professions. A paradigm shift in these accounts helps teachers to demonstrate how social and cultural identities are interwoven with language and literacy development and how the design of practice in teacher education can facilitate deeper understandings of the nature of language, learning, and teaching (Hawkins, 2004).

Teacher educators are now expected to become more active to exercise critical and reflective practices in the student teachers they prepare. They need to envision their work to create learning communities within which they are engaged in the sharing and negotiation of new understandings of their professions and practices. Reflection is made on aspects such as who our language learners are, their goals of learning, what roles they

will take, what identities, cultural knowledge, or literacies will be needed, and how the learning process is best supported (Hawkins, 2004; Johnson, 2009).

1.5.2 Content issues in language teacher education

Section 1.3 demonstrated that no considerations related to the contents of language teacher education were taken by countries introducing English at primary level. Review of literature demonstrates that recent approaches in language teacher education such as *the Reflective Approach* and *the Sociocultural Approach* have placed an increasing interest in knowledge-base for language teachers, the role of reflection, pedagogical reasoning and decision making, and focus on practices (Freeman, 1989; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Johnston & Goettsch, 2000; Crandall, 2000; Bartlett, 1990; Richards & Lockhart, 1996; Richards, 1990a, 1998a). The greater role of non-native speaking teachers and the growing significance of the socio-cultural aspects of language teaching have also been integral to current research and practices in language teacher education (Johnson, 2009; Hawkins, 2004a; Cullen, 1994, Murdoch, 1994; Kamhi-Stein, 2004, 2009). These are all aspects that construct content issues in language teacher education as discussed in the following.

Knowledge-base in language teaching

The operation of language teacher education programs is based on the supposition that discrete amounts of knowledge such as general theories and methods are needed for effective instruction. These discrete amounts of knowledge to teach languages are mostly referred to as knowledge-base in language teaching. Following Shulman (1987) and Richards (1998b), aspects of knowledge-base of teaching include 'pedagogical knowledge', 'content knowledge', 'knowledge of learners', and 'knowledge of the contextual aspect'. Coverage of this knowledge-base in language teaching is essential because effective teaching is only viable when such knowledge is fully mastered (Johnston & Goettsch, 2000).

Theories of teaching or *pedagogical knowledge* provide the theoretical basis for a language teacher education program as well as the justification for both the approach to teaching and the instructional practices that the student teachers are expected to be able to develop (Richards, 1998c). Theories of teaching in the area of second/foreign language learning have existed since the 1940s and have contributed to the formation of methodologies of language teaching. Richards & Lockhart (1996) pointed out that teachers' understanding and beliefs towards these theories are vital because they shape their approaches to teaching.

Content Knowledge is subject-specific and is not shared with teachers of other subject areas. Appropriate subject matter knowledge in the field of teaching English as a second or foreign language are phonetics and phonology, English syntax, second language acquisition, curriculum and syllabus design, discourse analysis, cross-cultural understanding, sociolinguistics, analysis of TESOL methods, and testing and evaluation (Richards, 1998b). Perceptions of the nature of language and mechanisms of language acquisition are vital because they determine teachers' principles and methods of teaching and how these need to be addressed in teacher education. No less important is knowledge about learners because teachers' pedagogical decisions are affected by their beliefs and understandings about how learners learn and how they behave in the classroom (Oxford, 1990; Hedge, 2000).

The influential roles of context in shaping the practice of language teaching necessitate the presence of *contextual knowledge* in teacher education programs. Richards & Lockhart (1996) argued that the beliefs of language teachers are founded not so much on the values, goals, and beliefs that they hold in relation to the content and process of teaching, but more on their understanding of the institution where they work at and their roles within that institution. Other contextual factors include language policies, socio-cultural factors, administrative practices, school culture, school program, proficiency level, age of learners, learning factors, teaching resources, testing factors, and the social contexts of schools and schooling (Posner, 1985).

Pedagogical reasoning and decision making

Teaching is dynamic because it is largely "characterized by constant change" of learning and teaching behaviors (Richards, 1998b, p. 11). Quite often teachers are confronted with specific classroom dynamics that require them to make appropriate decisions or to continuously examine their teaching practices. Teachers in fact make decisions in all facets of language teaching inside or outside the classroom. *Pre-active planning* (planning made before the lesson) and *interactive planning* (planning made while the lesson is being carried out) are both major components of decision making. The presence of decision making is also apparent when teachers determine both the chronology of course components as well as the developmental progression of the course. The types of roles played by teachers in a lesson are a frequently cited illustration of teachers' decision making. While in tasks with specific and pre-determined outcomes, teachers can be quite distant and only adopt a facilitative or monitoring role; but they can also be actively involved in more open ended discussions that invigorate students' critical thinking (Smith, 1996).

Teachers' beliefs about language teaching and learning a language is an emerging factor that critically influences the types of decisions the teachers make. Beliefs play a central role not only in how teachers organize curricula and design lesson tasks but also in their approach to instruction. For example, teachers who prioritize grammar and accuracy in instructional goals unsurprisingly adopt a structural core for their curriculum design and develop lesson tasks that emphasize grammatical features (Burns, 1996; Richards & Lockhart, 1996; Smith, 1996).

Focus on practices

Inherent in language teacher education is a greater focus on practical aspects of language teaching to allow the acquisition of skills in teaching languages. Good teachers are capable of demonstrating pedagogical skills such as preparing students for new learning, presenting learning activities, asking questions, giving feedback and correctives on student

learning, eliciting dialogues and narratives, and setting up communication activities (Cole & Chan, 1994; Gower & Walters, 1983; Shulman, 1987). Providing controlled practices, motivating students to learn, promoting self-directed and independent learning, and creating tasks for students' assessment are equally important skills (Cole & Chan, 1994).

The implementation of these teaching skills is however contingent on the teaching methods being used. Different teaching methods employ different teaching skills. The skill to conduct drilling, for example, is fundamental in Audio Lingual Method, but it is less important in Communicative Language Teaching. The latter puts a great deal of emphasis on skills related to building communicative activities such as group work, role play, and simulations (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). No less influential is the fact that the skills that the teachers need are often determined by the level of the learners. For instance, the skills to motivate the students will be mostly needed by those student teachers who learn to teach English in primary schools than those who learn to teach English in high schools. On the contrary, promoting self-directed and independent learning may be an ultimate skill for teachers at tertiary level, but is not a major priority for those who teach at lower levels.

Greater focus on the practicality of teaching is not meant to undermine the roles of pedagogical knowledge in teacher education. It is instead to highlight the notion that a significant portion of teacher education should be given to the practicality of the knowledge (Richards, 1998b). More often than not language teacher education programs preparing student teachers to embark on language teaching professions are conscientious on the theorizations of language and language teaching rather than on the vital component that builds up the profession itself (Richards & Crookes, 1988). Comprehensive coverage of the multiple dimensions of language teaching skills is of significant importance in teacher education program preparing language teachers.

Communication skills

General communication skills such as personality, voice (audibility, ability to project, modulation, speed, and clarity), and ability to establish and maintain rapport are essential elements for effective communication in language classrooms (Richards, 1998b). While those communication skills are relevant to both native and non-native English teaching professionals, it is worth noting that the latter is in great need of improvement on language proficiency (Cullen, 1994).

Good pronunciation and fluency are essential for those non-native speaking English professionals teaching in an EFL context because they are language models for their students. Unfortunately, what is generally offered in most training and education programs for teachers of English as a foreign language at both in-service and pre-service levels is a blend of language teaching methodologies and language awareness. Second language teacher education programs for English teachers seldom take into account communicative approach: the ability to communicate in English fluently and accurately (Murdoch, 1994; Cullen, 1994).

Language teacher competence does not stand by mere pedagogical aspects; it has linguistic aspect too. Language competence components are skill-dependent but they may be present in the acquisition of the macro-skills (Listening, Reading, Speaking, and Writing) and the micro-skills (Grammar, Vocabulary, and Pronunciation) (Thomas, 1987). Language teacher education programs in EFL settings are meant for student teachers who are non-native speakers of English. In such programs, activities addressing language proficiency need to be designed to boost local teachers' language proficiency and thus increase their confidence (Cullen, 1994; Murdoch, 1994). No less essential is a degree of "coherence amongst the taught components by preparing teachers within the language component for the other components" (Lavender, 2002, p. 247). Activities that are aimed for developing student teachers' language proficiency must be well integrated with other professional development activities.

The role of reflection

Reflective practice originates from the work of Dewey (1938), who highlighted the importance of teachers to systematically reflect on their working contexts, resources, and actions in order to influence their future decision making. The significance of reflective teaching for developing teaching practices is apparent because it enables teachers "to develop strategies for intervention or change, depending on their needs" (Richards & Lockhart, 1996, p. 6). It also allows them to make tacit beliefs and practical knowledge explicit and provide them with opportunities to articulate what they know and lead them to new ways of knowing and teaching (Bartlett, 1990).

Reflective practice is a cycle with processes including mapping, informing, contesting, appraising, and acting. The exertion of these elements are reflected when teachers pose questions such as *'What do I do as a teacher?', 'What is the meaning of my teaching?', 'How did I come to be this way?', 'How was it possible for my present view of teaching to have emerged?', and 'How might I teach differently?'* (Bartlett, 1990).

When asking these questions, often teachers are confronted with constant need to make sense of their experiences in relation to theories. Schön (1987) distinguished *reflection-in-action* (e.g. when teachers explore theories to support experience) from *reflection-on-action* (e.g. when teachers explore experience to espouse theories). Reflecting on both theories and experiences provide teachers with opportunities to strengthen their beliefs, teaching philosophy, and pedagogical reasoning and decision making. Teachers' decisions and teaching practices are not made at random but should be informed by pedagogical theories. Sound language teacher education programs need to provide opportunities for student teachers to reflect on their teaching beliefs, pedagogical reasoning and decision making, and teaching practices.

Since policy is an exercise for constructing outcomes in teacher education (Cochran-Smith, 2001), policy agents need to be well aware of the scope of language teacher education. The employment of a particular approach to teacher education programs determines both the content issues and the learning-teaching options available. This explains why the

design of teacher education programs needs to include what contents will be addressed and how they will be addressed. The contents in themselves are more than a sum of discrete knowledge of language and pedagogy; they represent a continuation of the approach chosen. It is inherent within language teacher education and is aimed at addressing the focal areas of content stipulated in the language policy. Policy planners and decision makers in LTE Policy need to ensure that the curriculum of the teacher education programs well articulates the myriad of these focal areas of content. The question as to how the focal areas of content are best presented leads into the following section on learning-teaching options in language teacher education.

1.6 Learning-teaching options in language teacher education

As shown in Figure 2 (page 28), learning-teaching options are tools to materialize what is included in the scope of language teacher education. In other words, they are tools for teacher educators to execute the approaches and content areas of language teacher education (Richards, 1998b). These include information-oriented activities, action research, language improvement classes, classroom observations, teaching journal, teaching supervision, teaching practice, video analysis, and teaching practicum. These learning teaching-options are discussed in the following sub-sections.

1.6.1 Information-oriented activities

A body of information-oriented activities such as lectures, workshops, and teachers' group can be used to allow the transmission of knowledge about methods, theories of teaching and other foundation courses (Richards, 1990a, 1990b, 1998b).

Lectures

In lectures, provision of subject matter knowledge (e.g. English syntax, phonetics and phonology, second language acquisition, curriculum and syllabus design, discourse analysis, sociolinguistics, testing and evaluation) is made. Theories of teaching,

approaches and methods in language teaching (Communicative Language Teaching, Task-Based Language Teaching, and Intercultural Language Teaching) may also be provided in lectures (Tedick & Walker, 1994).

Workshops

Workshops are more practical than lectures. They are useful to provide input from experts, to offer teachers practical classroom applications, to increase teachers' motivation, to develop collegiality, to support innovations, and to provide a specific topic within a non-lengthy period of time (Richards & Farrell, 2005).

Teachers support groups

Teachers can work collaboratively with others in order to achieve their individual or shared goals. In the meetings teachers can review and reflect on their teaching practices. Teaching strategies, approaches, methods, and the evaluation of the course are best discussed and shared within the group. Meetings amongst the groups may also be used for evaluating materials; teachers can bring their materials and discuss them with the group. Furthermore, teachers can develop materials as a collaborative effort that meets the needs of the individuals involved in the project (Richards & Farrell, 2005).

1.6.2 Action research

Teachers often have to exercise their cognition and teaching inquiry when dealing with the dilemma between *the ideal* (the most effective ways of doing things) and *the real* (the actual ways of doing things). Exercise as such presupposes certain skills and knowledge as well as the ability of the teachers to theoretically conceptualize their ideas. These skills and knowledge can be developed through action research that provides teachers with opportunities to constantly intervene, monitor, and modify their own classroom practices (Nunan, 1990).

Action research and reflective teaching are not alike. Action research is a further impetus of reflective teaching; it trains teachers to pose research questions, gather and analyse data, design research methodologies, and discuss the findings in the light of relevant literature (McKay, 2009). By doing action research, teachers are able to increase their understanding of classroom teaching and learning, and to bring about change in classroom practices (Kemmis & Mactaggart, 1988).

1.6.3 Teaching journal

In the available literature various terms used equivalent to teaching journal are 'journal writing' (Richards & Ho, 1998), 'journals' (Richards & Lockhart, 1996), 'learning diaries' (Bailey, 1990), and 'learning logs' (Porter, Goldstein, Leatherman, & Conrad, 1990). In this thesis, 'teaching journal' is the term used to describe any activities in which student teachers are engaged with the records, descriptions, and narratives of the classroom events and observations as a means of reflecting on their learning and teaching experiences. Observable behaviors recorded in a journal include personal reactions, questions, notes on problems, description of significant aspects of lessons and ideas for future analysis (Richards & Lockhart, 1996). These could be written in computer word-processing, electronic mail, written diary, autobiography, as well as speech by speaking journal entries into a recorder for later analysis (Richards & Lockhart, 1996; Bailey, 1996; Bailey, 1990).

The primary goal of a teaching journal is the promotion of self-examination and introspection of teaching philosophy. Identifications of variables that are important to individual teachers and learners as well as awareness about the way a teacher teaches and a student learns are underlying principles of this philosophy. These variables are explorable when teachers write their journals. Writing a journal also allows teachers to find out recurring issues and important questions that arise in the teaching practices and to classify issues and projections that can be posited to overcome those issues. It further provides invaluable personal feedback, the discovery of one's strengths and weaknesses,

and underlying factors that influence their success or lack thereof in learning a language (Bailey, 1990; Brock, Yu, and Wong, 1992; Gebhard, 1999b; Richards & Farrell, 2005).

1.6.4 Classroom observations

In pre-service teacher education, novice teachers have the opportunities to observe experienced teachers. While the novice teacher is seen much like an apprentice, the experienced teacher is seen as an expert who acts as a model teacher. Observation provides novice teachers with an opportunity to see what more experienced teachers or their peers do in teaching a lesson and how they do it. A number of advantages of conducting classroom observations for student teachers includes: 1) developing a terminology for understanding and discussing the teaching process; 2) developing an awareness of the principles and decision making that underlie effective teaching; 3) distinguishing between effective and ineffective classroom principles; 4) identifying techniques and practices student teachers can apply to their own teaching (Day, 1990).

Classroom observations can be very overwhelming due to the simultaneous occurrence of a plethora of events. Teaching behaviors and learning behaviors, patterns of interaction, different learning styles, concentration spans, and pattern of group dynamics are just among the prominent events occurring in the classroom. Observation should therefore have a clear focus of what is going to be observed, and student teachers should be given "a focused activity to work on while observing a lesson in progress" (Wajnryb, 1992, p. 7).

Strong association between observation and evaluation results in the reluctance of many language teachers to take part in observations. Many teachers feel distracted by the presence of an observer and thus would work hard to make a good impression on the observer. However, this is not the point of conducting an observation. Conducting observations in a language classroom is a means of gathering information about teaching rather than a way of evaluating it (Richards & Farrell, 2005). The observed teachers need to be reminded that much can be learned by prospective teachers from observation, especially if the models are "presented and seen as samples of possibilities or prods to

question what we do" rather than prescriptions of what they should do (Fanselow, 1997, p. 167).

1.6.5 Language improvement classes for non-native speaking teachers

It is unfortunate that a significant proportion of language teacher education is given to linguistics and methodology but not to language training. This contradicts the expectations of non-native language teachers who "perceive language improvement as the number one priority in their professional preparation, rather than theory or methodology" (Kamhi-Stein, 2009, p. 92). Modalities of training that can develop the most valued aspect of non-native English teacher's competence, that is, strong English language proficiency, must be given a central place in the curricula for foreign language teacher development (Cullen, 1994; Murdoch, 1994).

A number of principles of language training program for non-native teachers have been largely grounded on conceptions developed by Cullen (1994) and Murdoch (1994). First and foremost, the improvement of language proficiency is integrative with other tasks or activities in language teacher education. Either it is run in the form of activities dealing with language instruction in the classroom [e.g. asking questions, eliciting information, giving feedback, etc.] or autonomous learning wherein student teachers can improve their proficiency independently in a SAR (Self Access Room), opportunities for student teachers to improve their proficiency need to be provided. In other words, language improvement activities must be incorporated into pedagogic related activities. An area of major focus is *classroom language* such as asking questions, eliciting information, giving feedback, and responding to questions. Other activities such as preparing materials and presenting them before peers in the training group and keeping a diary of training and teaching practice experiences are also useful.

Secondly, student teachers must be given wide autonomy to exercise independent learning. More contact hours to provide student teachers with opportunities to self-develop their language proficiency are needed. Self-correction on pronunciation errors

using multimedia is exemplary to this. Not only this is useful for them to improve their proficiency during training but also it develops habits that can enable them to maintain their standard of English when they are teaching in a less-linguistically rich environment (Murdoch, 1994).

1.6.6 Teaching supervision

Teaching supervision in language teacher education is an opportunity in which "the supervisor observes what goes on in the teacher's classroom with an eye toward the goal of improved instruction" (Gebhard, 1990, p. 1). The central roles of a supervisor in a teaching supervision include: to guide the way student teachers teach, to offer suggestions on making appropriate decisions in teaching, to model teaching, to advise teachers, and to evaluate the teacher's teaching (Gebhard, 1990).

Teacher educators could play more or less directive roles in supervising student teachers depending on the types of teaching supervision they are using. Teacher educators may conduct *directive supervision* where they direct and inform the teacher, model teaching behaviours, and evaluate the teachers' mastery or defined behaviours (Gebhard, 1990). Contrary to this, teacher educators may conduct *non-directive supervision* to provide student teachers with a forum to clarify perceptions of their teaching practices. A focus may be initiated by the supervisor but the course is very much determined by the student teachers (Freeman, 1990). Teacher educators can also conduct *alternative supervision* where they suggest a variety of alternatives to what the student teachers have done in the classroom in order to develop the student teachers' awareness of the choices involved in deciding what and how to teach (Freeman, 1990). *Collaborative supervision* occurs when teacher educators work closely with the student teachers but have no roles to direct them. Hypothesis, experiment, and strategies that offer a reasonable solution to the problem under consideration are posed collaboratively by the student teachers and the supervisor (Gebhard, 1990). Finally, teacher educators may conduct *creative supervision* where they could combine different models of supervisory behaviours. A particular supervisory approach can be selected according to the type of information that the

teacher is seeking (Freeman, 1982). For example, if student teachers are trying to find out 'what' to teach, then the supervisor might employ the *directive approach*; but if they want to know 'how' to teach, it is the *alternative approach* that is used by the supervisor.

1.6.7 Teaching experience

Teaching experience provides student teachers with opportunities not only to familiarize themselves with teaching situations, but also to actively make pedagogical decisions in language lessons. The most commonly used teaching experience activity is microteaching, which is defined as "a training context in which a teacher's situation has been reduced in scope or simplified in some systematic way" (Wallace, 1991, p. 87). Often the reduction or simplification of the teaching situations includes the reduction of the number of students, the topic(s) covered in the lesson, and the simplifications of mode of instructions and tasks of the teachers. Microteaching is a safe experimentation that allows student teachers to try teaching themselves.

1.6.8 Video analysis

Classroom observations are useful to develop critical and reflective teaching but a large portion of it has been subjective. Often observations are also time demanding and are relatively impractical especially when conducted in remote areas. The fullest accounts and more objective ways of viewing and interpreting classroom behaviors can be provided through analysis of video recordings (Richards & Farrell, 2005). Video analysis also allows a great degree of flexibility in terms of time management and is more practical especially with the advancement of new technologies such as digital videos.

Student teachers can be digitally recorded during their microteaching or peer teaching practices and they can also view videos of experienced teachers. Both ways are useful to fully reflect on teaching practices. When it comes to viewing their own videos, they could develop meaningful and engaging discussion about various teaching behaviors. A useful and effective technique is often simply to stop the recording at particular significant

moments in order to allow commentaries from the supervisor or the other trainees (Wallace, 1991). Then they could discuss the extent to which a particular teaching behavior can be fully adapted for future practices considering various resources and constraints. Critical and reflective discussions may be best generated when student teachers are asked to share their views and perceptions of others' teaching practice.

1.6.9 Teaching practicum

The provision of opportunities for teachers to interact more fully and with greater integration to see the application of theory to their practice of teaching is an important aspect in language teacher education (Gaudart, 1994; Richards, 1990). This is feasible through teaching practicum that allows pre-service teachers to investigate their practices and make connections between theories and practices before starting their teaching career (Gebhard, Gaitan, & Oprandy, 1990; Crookes, 2003).

During practicum, student teachers visit a school or other institutions to endeavor in various aspects of the profession. Various learning-teaching options in teaching practicum are all meant to provide student teachers with knowledge about what the students are like, and to see students as individuals with unique needs, interests, aptitudes, and personalities. It also means providing pre-service student teachers with opportunities to understand their conceptions of themselves as a teacher, of their limits, and of their visions of teaching (Crookes, 2003). This experience can be provided through observation of experienced teachers, observation of peers or other teachers, viewing of videotapes of sample lessons, and observation of sample lessons (Richards & Crookes, 1988; Johnson, 1996).

Similar to other variables in LTE Policy, learning-teaching options are inherent within the larger body of language teacher education. This variable attempts to provide answers to the question, "How do we teach student teachers who execute the language policy?" It is aimed at providing opportunities to tackle the content issues in order to prepare the language teachers with various pedagogical issues. These however are not an expertise

specific to educational policymakers, but remain an area best understood by language experts, researchers, practitioners, and teacher educators. In addition, the interplay of various contextual factors is also best enacted with the active participation from local policy agents. This reiterates the contention made in Section 1.2 that learning-teaching options cannot be exclusively formulated by policymakers without wide base participation from other stakeholders such as language planning theorists and teacher educators. An emancipatory approach in which various stakeholders actively take part in policymaking is crucial in teacher education policy (Proudford, 1998; Hopkins & Stern, 1996).

1.7 Concluding remarks

The chapter has demonstrated that sufficient knowledge and skills on language teacher education policymaking have been predominantly absent in most instances, and this has made explicit account for a particular reference in Language Teacher Education (LTE) Policy. LTE Policy can be defined as deliberate attempts to design programs in language teacher education that will fully support the implementation of a language policy. LTE Policy is particularly relevant amidst the increasing interest in the policy to introduce English at primary level, which is often enmeshed by inadequate planning and unclear directions.

Specific and analytical attention to issues related to educating language teachers are the main focus of policymakers involved in LTE policymaking. A model of LTE policy that supports both language policymakers and teacher educators in addressing issues such as what focal areas of content need to be integrated in the language teacher education program and the kinds of learning-teaching options that need to be employed has been conceptualized in this chapter. It has been shown that current approaches to language teacher education emphasize the interplay of concepts such as knowledge-base in language teaching, the role of reflection, pedagogical reasoning and decision making, teaching practicum, communication skills, focus on practices, and socio-cultural approach in the development of a language teacher education program. These concepts are

materialized through learning-teaching options such as teaching practicum, action research, language improvement classes, classroom observation, journal study, teaching supervision, information oriented activities, teaching practice, and video analysis.

The discussion in the chapter has also indicated that a large portion of LTE policy remains theoretical. The contents of teacher preparation programs are theoretically framed and the exertion of various leaning teaching options is best enacted through a wide base participation involving various stakeholders such as language experts, language practitioners, and teacher educators. Political prescription should not override professional judgment in teacher preparation, and therefore a bottom up approach in LTE policymaking is best for LTE Policymaking. Direct actual policy planning and its implementation require the involvement of those stakeholders who are often underrepresented (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997; Cooper, 1989).

Since this thesis is about the policy on teacher education for primary school English teachers in Indonesia, what remain to be assessed are the views and practices of teachers as well as the views of relevant stakeholders on the needs of the teachers. It is the focus of this thesis to investigate how these needs are contextually shaped within educational and social spectrums as they concomitantly relate to current policies of the Indonesian government on teacher education. Only then can the theories outlined in this chapter be revisited and conclusions be drawn on what ought to constitute the needs of teachers and how these needs shape the formulation of policy recommendations.

The following chapter reviews relevant studies on language teacher education and policies on English education at primary level and establishes the rationale for a new study in Indonesian context.

Chapter 2

A Review of Studies on Policies on Teacher Education for Primary School English Teachers in Asia

2.0 Introduction

Policies on language education at primary level are an issue of interest in European countries such as Serbia (Filipovic, Vuco, Djuric, 2007) and Ireland (Wallen, Kelly-Holmes, 2006), but for the purpose of the study it is necessary to review studies undertaken in Asian countries. The inclusion of Asian countries, namely Vietnam, China, and Taiwan in this chapter is particularly relevant given the fact that these are EFL countries with quite similar teaching contexts to that of Indonesia. This chapter reviews eleven recent studies that focus on policies on teacher education, language teacher education, and teachers' practices in those countries. The studies discussed in this chapter are:

1. Vietnam: Nguyen (2011) and Hamano (2010)
2. China: Li (2010) and Song & Cheng (2011)
3. Taiwan: Su (2006) and Liaw (2009)
4. Indonesia: Rachmawati (2010), Lengkanawati (2005), Chodidjah (2007), Chodidjah (2010), and Luciana (2006)

The studies range from 2005 to 2011, which is the most significant period of interest to this work. It is during this time span that an increasing interest in policies on English education at primary level started to develop in the broader dimension of teacher education and language planning and policy in Asia (Baldauf, Kaplan, Kamwangamalu, Bryant, 2011).

Comparisons between these studies are not always possible because they were carried out in different countries with various specific contexts, asked some similar and different

questions, and employed a combination of methods for both collecting and analyzing data. Nevertheless, a review of these studies is particularly relevant and useful for two reasons. First, the identification of results from previous studies is beneficial for future comparisons in subsequent chapters on the case study. Second, the elicitation of issues in this chapter will be taken into account and will be compared to the findings of this study in order to offer policy recommendations on English language teacher education in primary schools in Indonesia.

The review initially presents the contexts of the studies, the approaches they used for data collection techniques, and the general findings of each study, before drawing conclusion in order to support the rationale for a new study in Indonesia.

2.1 Studies in Vietnam

While Nguyen (2011) provided relevant insights on issues that need to be taken into account for future studies that aim at developing teacher education in response to policy on primary schooling English education, Hamano (2010) examined the roles of foreign institutions in developing teacher education for primary school English teachers in Vietnam. Both studies are reviewed below.

2.1.1 Nguyen (2011)

Nguyen conducted an exploratory case study in order to shed light on the practices of EFL teaching in Vietnam in response to the national language policy on the introduction of English in primary schools. The study involved one private school and one public school with data collected from multiple sources, including 16 observed lessons as well as 45 minute focus group interviews with stakeholders such as teachers and school principals.

It was reported that teachers in the public school were reluctant to attend in-service training programs due to various reasons such as a clash with the school timetable, the

poor content of the programs, and the inability of the programs to meet the needs of teachers. Various in-service development programs in the form of class observations, workshops, or informal talks to exchange ideas and share experiences and innovations were absent in the public school.

Contrary to these situations is what appears at the private school whose teachers had satisfied the requirements for teaching English at primary level. They were recent graduates from university or teacher training colleges with relevant qualifications in English pedagogy. In the private school financial resources to employ and adequately pay qualified teachers were available. As a consequence, teachers in the private school were committed to their job and had higher level of motivation in comparison to the teachers in the public school. Professional development activities were more frequent and were better organized in the private school than they were in the public school. Relevant activities such as workshops with experts in English language teaching, peer observations, and sharing were held regularly and were positive to build a supportive environment. Opportunities to observe their colleagues and engage in professional development activities were available and were developed using in-house resources.

The differences in the teacher's professional development activities between the two schools are indicative of the importance of adequate financial resources for language-in-education programs and management mechanisms. Sufficient funding has been demonstrated as having one of the largest influences on whether, or to what degree, the objectives of the new policy are successfully attained. This is a reflection of the dilemma of how teachers who are the spearhead of the policy of English education at primary level were not prepared for the changes in response to the policy, which is omnipresent in all countries introducing English in primary schools (Baldauf, et al., 2011).

It is of no surprise that both teachers in the public and private schools all agreed that they did not receive sufficient preparation to teach English to students at primary level. Nguyen (2011) pointed out that the pre-service education they undertook were specifically

designed to prepare them to teach English in secondary schools and did not provide them with provision on teaching English at primary level. Even when some of the teachers reported that they undertook related subjects such as psychology for primary students or methodology for teaching children, these subjects were inadequate and too general to prepare them to successfully teach English at primary level.

The teachers at both schools expressed that they require more opportunities to attend in-service teacher education and professional development programs. Significant evidence generated from the study demonstrated that teachers needed more professional development activities such as phonetics training and teaching methodology. The study reiterated the need for an increase in the number of institutions offering teacher education at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels specializing in primary English education.

2.1.2 Hamano (2008)

Hamano's (2008) paper was a review of the literature which examined closely the current context and challenges faced by teachers and teacher education in Vietnam, while analyzing international aid projects providing support to teacher education in the country.

Hamano highlighted the features of in-service teacher training in Vietnam including summer training, qualification improvement training, demo lesson training, and in-school training. Summer training was held during summer vacation in conjunction with the introduction of the new curriculum, whereas qualification improvement training had the objective to upgrade the qualification of primary teachers over a period of two years. Demo lessons were given by supervisors to provide opportunities to teachers in a particular district to observe and participate in discussion, while in-school training was conducted by teachers in the school wherein they were able to conduct a lesson and exchange views on the lesson with others.

The implementation of these training programs was however confronted with the occurrence of various problems. It was pointed out that many of the teachers were unable to attend demo lessons by supervisor due to difficulty in timetabling. The training was also considered more theoretical rather than practical and was delivered in lecture style. Hamano (2008) also demonstrated the big regional gap presently occurring between remote rural areas and urban areas is parallel to the gap existing between schools in low socio-economic backgrounds and that of higher socio-economic backgrounds. He argued that upgrading the teachers' proficiency is important, while at the same time efforts need to be made to close the presently occurring gaps between the two contrasting phenomena.

In a globalized world where assistance from foreign institutions is ubiquitous, it is interesting to note how these institutions play an indispensable role to the development of teacher education in Vietnam. Hamano (2008) stated that numerous training projects in Vietnam were funded by international institutions such as The World Bank, the Belgian Technical Corporation, and JICA (Japan International Corporation Agency) to improve the quality of teacher education in the country.

The World Bank provided support to teachers by creating a 'teacher profile' that lists the professional competence that teachers need to acquire, developing teacher training materials, and implementing training programs that utilize these materials. The World Bank implemented a cascading system in which key teachers were selected and trained before returning to their district to deliver training to their colleagues.

The cascading system was also implemented by the Belgian Technical Corporation which had been providing training to key teachers in 14 provinces from 2005-2009. The implementation of the new project was the second of its kind. It involved the seven provinces participating in the previous project with the aim to match the instruction and materials with the new educational curriculum imposed by the government.

JICA provided an 'In-service Teacher Improvement Program' that aims to develop an effective trial model of the new curriculum in pilot provinces. Clusters of schools were designed for improving the quality of teachers and for enhancing planning and management ability of provincial educational administrators. The training scheme developed training materials, implemented training, and strengthened the abilities of administrators. The training emphasized a new teaching method called 'child-centered learning' to be taught parallel to the new curriculum and to tackle the needs of the students more comprehensively.

Finally, Hamano pointed out that "teacher education also needs to be seen in the larger context of decentralization" (Hamano, 2008, p. 409). It was suggested that education funds should be provided by a variety of actors outside the central government who are involved in a variety of programs to support basic education. The central role of policy agents at local level is apparent because they can play an invaluable role in teacher training when the central government lacks ample resources.

The findings of the two studies in this section highlighted several key issues pertinent to the present study. Nguyen's (2011) study is significant in outlining issues frequently occurring in teacher education such as theoretical orientation in teacher education, inadequate preparation at pre-service level, and insufficient financial support for professional development activities. On the other hand, Hamano's (2008) study is important because it pointed out the indispensable roles of foreign institutions and governments at the local level in improving the quality of teachers in Vietnam. Both studies highlighted the challenges that teachers face in their pedagogical practices in implementing the policy on English education at primary level. All these aspects taken together are particularly relevant considerations to the present study especially because the teaching of English as a foreign language in Vietnam shares very similar contexts to that of Indonesia.

2. 2 Studies in China

Two studies by Li (2010) and Song & Cheng (2011) were selected as they represent the most recent findings on the perspectives and practices of teachers in relation to the implementation of a language policy on English education in China as well as the professional development of the teachers.

2.2.1 Li (2010)

In her paper Li (2010) explored the relationship between the national policy on English language and its implementation at the local level in Chinese primary and secondary schools from the perspectives of in-service teachers. To generate data for her case study she conducted semi-structured and focus group interviews to eleven groups of 73 in-service EFL teachers spread over three cities in a province in the People Republic of China. The involvement of the teachers in the three cities were claimed to be representative of the developed, developing, and underdeveloped cities in that particular part of China.

A significant finding of the study was that teachers were not given opportunities to participate in policy making in relation to English language education at both primary and secondary levels. All the teachers interviewed in the study reported that they had never participated in the curriculum policymaking process, while a few were consulted in the selection of the prescribed teaching materials for schools in their cities. The word “policy” had been considered synonymous with any decisions made by leaders at higher levels, leaving them to mere implementation roles. The teachers expressed their desire to become more involved in policymaking in various areas such as curriculum design, the selection and construction of teaching materials, and the selection of teaching methodology. They believed that they could exercise a larger role in providing data from their actual situations in schools in order to assist policymakers and experts in policymaking.

Second, the results of the study demonstrated that there was a lack of teachers’ involvement in the development of curriculum. A large majority of the teachers provided

no input in curriculum design and the selection of teaching materials, neither were they consulted in such processes. They were as a consequence indifferent to policies related to their teaching due to the fact that they had almost zero contribution in educational policymaking. Li pointed out that this "indifference has become inimical not only to the curriculum reform but also to any educational reforms" (2010, p. 448). Inaccurate or fabricated information was obtained from lower levels, which might have misguided the decisions made by policymakers. In relation to this, Li pointed out that the involvement of teachers in curriculum development or educational policymaking seems unlikely to occur in the near future in China. The findings above suggested the extent to which the policies can be implemented and the actual needs and contextual situations of the target groups were not properly examined by policymakers. The implementation of the policy is likely to be difficult or may even be futile in a more open educational system, as it effectively requires teachers in the educational policymaking process.

An implication of the study is that the empowerment of teachers in language policymaking is imperative to encourage them to undertake wider responsibility and active participation in the construction of language education policies. But Li argued that at the same time teachers also need to create a more democratic environment by trusting and supporting the government. They need to be more enthusiastic in doing so in order to be able to make progress professionally and to contribute to successful educational reforms.

2.2.2 Song & Cheng (2011)

Song & Cheng (2011) examined the relationship between the backgrounds and practices of teachers with their professional development as they become an integral part of the national policy on primary English education. The data collection technique was a questionnaire consisting of close-ended items that attempt to reveal data on the teachers' educational background and instructional contexts, their professional development activities, and their perceptions about English immersion in primary schooling education.

Forty-seven teachers from three immersion schools were involved in the study, and the data gathered from these teachers were analyzed using SPSS16.

The results of the study demonstrated that teachers most frequently participated in professional development activities related to the implementation of the new curriculum, the design of materials, and collaborative planning and teaching. It was shown that the majority of the teachers had limited educational qualifications or relevant training in teaching immersion classes. Student teachers who had received pre-service teacher preparation from universities were automatically certified teachers in regular or immersion schools. Teachers also mentioned the rationale for their involvement in the professional development programs, including improving teaching strategies and teaching immersion English. The fact that the respondents participating in the study were non-native English speakers with limited educational qualifications was a major constraint that compromised the quality of immersion education in China. Much room for improvement in terms of English language proficiency was needed for this group of primary immersion teachers.

The results revealed a lack of systematic training on bilingual education, and these were consistent with what was claimed to be one of the main constraints in bilingual education in China (Feng & Wang, 2007; Hu, 2007). Song & Cheng (2011) argued the improvement of China's immersion programs requires the presence of in-service and ongoing professional development activities that provide more specialized preparation in immersion teaching. Furthermore, they pointed out the urgent need for further engagement in a combination of pre-service education, in-service training and continuous professional development to improve teachers' teaching competence so that they can meet the demand for high-quality English immersion education in China (Hu, 2007).

The results of the study rendered support to the previous studies that claim educational background and teacher characteristics are significant indicators of immersion teachers' professional development (Day & Shapson, 2001). In the context of Chinese immersion

programs and with this group of immersion teachers, the results showed that teachers with higher teaching competence received better training in subject and linguistic knowledge. They were also more involved in professional development activities. These demonstrated that while teacher training was more accessible to teachers with better teaching competence, this group of teachers was also the one who had higher motivation. What this means for the development of professional development activities is that teachers' motivation, backgrounds, and characteristics such as level of proficiency must be taken into account in the development of teacher education or professional development activities.

The findings of the two studies in this section demonstrated issues pertinent to the present study. Li's (2010) study is significant in highlighting the minimum roles that teachers play in the creation of language policies and how the involvement of teachers in policymaking may help the national language policy become more implementable. Song & Cheng's (2011) study is important because it showed that the development of a teacher education system that comprehensively caters for the need of a group of teachers of specific area requires ample data on the backgrounds of the teachers and even their teaching practices. The two studies also echoed the contention made in the literature that the creation of a successful language policy cannot ignore the presence of teachers who are the spearhead of the policymaking especially in the domains of teacher education and curriculum design (Nunan, 2003; Hu, 2005; Ricento & Hornberger, 1996). This is particularly relevant in order to highlight the focal role that teachers may play in language teacher education policymaking, especially in the generation of reliable and comprehensive data on their specific teaching practices.

2.3 Studies in Taiwan

Two case studies are discussed in this section: Su (2006) and Liaw (2009). Both studies investigated the perceptions of teachers regarding the national policy on English as a compulsory subject at primary level as well as the pedagogical practices of the teachers and how these may carry implications for teacher education.

2.3.1 Su (2006)

Su's (2006) study was carried out to investigate the perceptions of Taiwanese primary school English teachers in Taiwan towards the policy of introducing English as a compulsory subject as well as the benefits and obstacles of the policy's implementation. The study involved ten elementary school English teachers who completed certification in Elementary English Teacher Training Program (EETTP) as well as those with a master's degree in English from Taiwan and the USA. The data for this study were collected through teachers' interviews, observation of teachers, and analysis of relevant documents.

Su (2006) pointed out that all teachers supported the policy of compulsory English at primary level. English was identified as useful for a wide range of purposes including global business, communications, technology, education, and travelling. Despite this, teachers still perceived English as a language with both negative and positive impacts. While earlier exposure to English was suggested beneficial to help enhance students' language skills, the teachers claimed that the result of an overemphasis in promoting English had indirectly undermined the students' motivation to learn other foreign languages such as Japanese, French, German and Spanish. It was also feared that English would have negative impacts on the teaching and learning of the local dialects.

The findings from both the interviews and observations demonstrated that lessons were developed in Year 1-6 by following the curriculum prescribed by the government in sequential order from phonological and orthographic developments to syntax and semantic developments. Lessons in the lower level classes (Year 1-3) were focused on listening and speaking with a large emphasis on authentic and communicative activities.

On the contrary, lessons in the higher classes (Year 4-6) were focused on speaking and reading with large emphasis on traditional skill activities such as modeling, demonstration, drill practice, exercises, worksheets, reading aloud, etc.

The study further showed the difficulties teachers faced in implementing the government's language policy. Their teaching practices were adversely affected by a number of constraints including a large number of students with mixed levels of proficiency, limited teaching hours, and limited teaching resources. The assessment system that requires students to undertake a proficiency test provided by the local education bureau in the middle of the second semester was also claimed detrimental to students' learning. Teachers expressed their concern that students at primary level should not be required to sit the test because of its inappropriateness in measuring English learning. Often teachers had to devote excessive time, energy, and resources for the tests, "depriving students of the time needed for learning English in more interesting, authentic and communicative ways" (Su, 2006, p. 277). Furthermore, parental involvement was an impediment. Parents' over-reaction and high expectations for academic success in English was found to be detrimental to students' learning progress and increased their negative attitudes.

2.3.2 Liaw (2009)

Liaw's (2009) study reported a nation-wide survey and in-depth interviews to investigate the perceptions of primary school teachers toward the effectiveness of the policies related to English language education in Taiwan. The study employed a triangulation of data collection techniques including questionnaires and in-depth interviews with primary school English teachers spread in 11 southern counties and cities.

The findings of the study demonstrated that English education in Taiwan is best implemented with flexible English teacher recruitment policies, the establishment of Central Advisory Team and Regional Instructional Consulting Teams, and National Standards for Elementary and Junior High School English Teachers.

It was suggested that the implementation of non-traditional recruitment process would allow the presence of talents to contribute to their diverse professional education and expertise to elementary English instruction. Two alternative sources of recruitment were implemented: 1) certified elementary and secondary school teachers who were encouraged to take English pedagogical courses to satisfy the English teaching accreditation requirement; and 2) university students who majored in English or English-related departments. While the recruitment plan was able to meet the need on English teaching vacancies in 2009, it was later revealed that a serious oversupplying problem occurred when teachers were unable to undertake employment in English language teaching. Liaw (2009) suggested that it is necessary to find ways to establish flexible recruitment process to solve this complicated issue.

The study also highlighted the establishment of Central Advisory Team and Regional Instructional Consulting Teams that could act as a bridge for the communication between teachers and the Ministry of Education. Teachers felt that the presence of such a body is beneficial to enable them to learn creative teaching ideas from workshops and seminars held by the advisory and consulting teams. The success of these consulting teams was however compromised by various problems. The consulting teams were loaded with responsibility to visit campuses throughout the country but only received limited rewards and recognition. The overwhelming demands in carrying out their roles had caused them exhaustion resulting in a reasonable percentage of attrition.

The relevance of the two studies above to the present study is summarized as follows. Su's (2006) study provided thorough analyses on the focus that teachers had in different levels of primary education as well as the challenges they encountered in their pedagogical practices, including a large number of students with mixed levels of proficiency, limited teaching hours, inadequate resources, and unreasonable parental demands. Liaw's (2009) study highlighted the importance of measures such as the

establishment of advisory and consulting teams as well as national standards of English teachers in relation to policy on improving the quality of teachers. The significance of both Su's (2006) and Liaw's (2009) studies is apparent in the fact that they made the views and perceptions of teachers an ultimate source of reference in determining what has been missing in the quality improvement of the English teaching professionals. These are useful signposts for considerations on the study on policy recommendations on teacher education for English teachers at primary level.

2.4 Studies in Indonesia

Six studies were conducted in Indonesian contexts focusing on the implementation of a learning-teaching option (Rachmawati, 2010), standards on pre-service teacher education (Luciana, 2006; Lengkanawati, 2005), and examination on the efficacy of in-service programs (Chodidjah, 2002, 2007).

2.4.1 Rachmawati (2010)

Rachmawati's study investigated the practice of student teachers of English department of Indonesian University of Education who were undertaking teaching practicum. Three data collection techniques, namely observations of teachers, questionnaires, and interviews were employed to obtain data.

The findings of the study demonstrated the adequate competence of teachers in the areas of lesson planning and preparation, organization of activities, the use of assessment to assess students' skills and encourage students' learning, and interpersonal skills. The study also suggested that even though the student teachers encountered a number of difficulties especially in the areas of designing learning materials, giving clear and effective instruction, and dealing with students' behaviors, they were confident with their English proficiency. The findings were indicative of the sufficient preparation of the pre-service education to provide them with invaluable teaching experience and opportunities to link

theory and practice. The teaching practicum was particularly useful to equip student teachers with skills on planning and preparation, organization of activities, and the use of test to assess students' language skills.

Room for improvement of the currently implemented teaching practicum however appears. Rachmawati argued that more effective system of teaching supervision is imperative in order to provide further assistance to student teachers. Opportunities for them to be able to observe the teaching practice of senior teachers are equally necessary in order to establish a more overt link between theories and practice.

2.4.2 Lengkanawati (2005)

Lengkanawati (2005) reported on a qualitative case study involving 66 teachers in West Java to obtain data on their language proficiency and the problems they encountered in their profession. The study employed a triangulation of data collection techniques through the use of paper-based TOEFL test, a writing test, and interviews.

The findings of the study demonstrated that of the 66 teachers participating in the study, only 11 of them achieved a TOEFL score of 500, while the rest of the teachers scored 290-499. It was reported that most teachers were adequately proficient in terms of English grammar but showed inadequate proficiency in terms of listening and reading skills. Analysis of the composition of the teachers using an ESL Composition profile also showed that teachers had demonstrated major weaknesses in a number of areas including organization of ideas, poor use of grammar, and very limited range of vocabulary. Lengkanawati (2005) argued that with such poor language proficiency, it is extremely difficult for teachers to successfully implement the new English curriculum that places great emphasis on the communicative competence of the teachers.

Data generated from the interviews revealed that assessment was an area of difficulty for teachers. This is because the introduction of a portfolio assessment at secondary level was not met with adequate preparation for teachers to be able to conduct it properly.

Furthermore, an issue related to the low reward or salary received by teachers to compensate their professional service was also raised and was argued to be one of the factors impeding the quality of their professionalism.

In response to the findings, Lengkanawati (2005) called for a set-up of standards within teacher education institutions to be tailored to help prepare teachers meet the demands of the new curriculum, while different kinds of in-service training at the district level are imperative to take place to help enhance the quality of teaching-learning activities. She argued that one the one hand, the welfare of the teachers needs to be raised to the level that is equivalent to the service they provide; and on the other hand, more competitive and selective teacher recruitment process is necessary to ensure quality of the teaching professionals involved in primary English education.

2.4.3 Chodidjah (2010) and Chodidjah (2007)

In a study conducted in 2010, Chodidjah reviewed the implementation of five in-service training programs aimed for primary school teachers, namely Primary School Teachers In-Service Training by Independent Learning, Radio In-Service Training For Primary School Teachers, Diploma II Equivalence By Distance Learning, In-Service Training Through Teacher Professional Enhancement Group (PKG), Professional Competency Training For Primary School Teachers (PEQIP Project).

Primary School Teachers In-Service Training by Independent Learning targeted the involvement of 80, 000 teachers at the early years of Indonesian independence. The objective of the project was to develop a model of accredited independent learning and support other in-service training programs through the provision of relevant facilities and materials. Participants were given full independence in selecting the time frame, content options, location of training, and forms of instruction (individual or group settings). The materials were developed through a meticulous process of curriculum analysis, syllabus preparation, text writing, evaluation, review and editing, field test, and printing. Participants were evaluated on the basis of their participation in formative test, individual

assignment including papers, reports, clippings, and portfolio, as well as summative tests and final examinations. Chodidjah argued that the fact that this training project survived for more than five decades indicates the promising future of the project as a model of in-service training.

Radio In-Service Training for Primary School Teachers was aimed for primary school teachers those who were unable to attend face to face training programs, as they lived in remote areas. The training was conducted in order to improve the professional competence of the teachers in terms of both teaching methods and subject-matter contents. To do so, the transmission of the program was conducted by RRI (Radio Republic of Indonesia) from its national network and was relayed by its local and commercial stations. Listening recordings and printed reading materials were provided for teachers so they could discuss the topics during school break or after hours. Thorough supervision was carried out to monitor the efficacy of this training project. A twice a year written test was conducted by the local evaluation team to assess the progress of teachers throughout the training. Chodidjah (2007) argued that the efficacy of this training program was dependent on intensive and collaborative efforts between schools, teachers groups, and the local governments.

The Diploma II Equivalence by Distance Learning training was conducted in response to the new policy established in 1989 by the Ministry of Education and Culture that required a Diploma II qualification for those teaching at primary level. A distance learning mode was selected by the government to train teachers to improve their qualification to the Diploma II level to reach teachers in remote areas, so they needed not to abandon their job. The training lasted for six semesters and consisted of general courses, education courses, subject area and teaching-learning process courses, integrated learning, multi-grade teaching, teaching practicum, and local content program development. While independent study played a significant role in this training, students were also encouraged to participate in tutorials and teaching practicum under the guidance of a supervisor. Take home exams, a final exam, practicum report, and teaching examination were assessment tools employed for the assessment in the training. While the implementation of the

program resulted in the graduation of 75, 615 teachers within 7 years, Chodidjah argued that the bureaucratic factor was an obstacle that hampered the flexibility of the training scheme.

The In-Service Training through Teacher Professional Enhancement Group (PKG) was launched in 1985 and was aimed for Junior High School and Senior High School teachers. The training placed a great emphasis on the practical side of teaching and was conducted with the primary aim to improve the professional competencies of teachers through problem solving activities. The activities within PKG were not limited to mastery of subject matter, but also classroom management and emphasis on the improvement of teaching skills. Group activities were carried out on a regular basis in *Sanggars*[1] in a time that does not disrupt the timetable of the students. Despite the claim of success of the program in improving the professionalism of teachers, evaluation of the program was not meticulously carried out. Chodidjah also argued that a nationwide implementation of this program faces challenges especially on the geographic conditions of the country as well as the reluctance of teachers in applying the discovery or problem solving methods when designing their lessons.

The implementation of Professional Competency Training for Primary School Teachers (PEQIP Project) was conducted primarily to enable teachers to modify learning materials. The training was also aimed to assist teachers develop competence in using and producing instructional media, to develop competence in the teaching of Indonesian language, mathematics, physical science, and social science, and to develop competence in the management and evaluation of instruction program. Face to face mode of training was conducted within four weeks involving fifty to sixty teachers in a cluster of training block. The participants of the program claimed that the training had made little impact on their

[1] A *Sanggar* is a workplace consisting of a room or building in which movies, TV shows, or radio programs are produced. The fact that sanggars are normally located at the centre of each province is convenient for teachers to conduct professional development activities.

teaching and learning activities, while the evaluation of teachers participating in the program was not conducted meticulously.

In another study, Chodidjah (2007) reported the implementation of a teacher training program held by Jakarta Local Education and Training Center. Involving 120 teachers of English at primary level, the training consisted of two aspects: 1) English language improvement (4 weeks); and 2) methodology (2 weeks). The training employed a task-based approach with a particular emphasis on the improvement of oral skills of the students through the provision of classroom language and opportunities to practice classroom instruction in various functional settings. The topics chosen in the language improvement classes were those commonly presented in coursebooks such as *greetings, numbers, alphabets, colors, things in the classroom, daily activities, appearances, describing people, food and drink*, and other similar topics. It was also demonstrated that the training employed teaching techniques appropriate to young learners along with the use of teaching media such as pictures, flashcards, puppets, stories, songs, etc. Combining workshops and presentations, the methodology training listed a module consisting of training regulations and policies, children's characteristics, how children learn a foreign language, lesson planning and classroom management.

It was reported that the training was effective in increasing the confidence of teachers in using English and benefitted the teachers in employing various teaching techniques to teach English to young learners. Despite this, Chodidjah pointed out that the training was quite problematic in a number of areas. Favoritism had become the basis of the selection of the participants because only teachers who were close to power wielders had the opportunity to take part in the training. In addition, it was also reported that the training was conducted by supervisors with no knowledge and experience relevant to English language teaching. Those who were assigned as supervisors were not people with expertise in language teaching supervision; they were educational administrators assigned by the local governments.

2.4.4 Luciana (2006)

Luciana's (2006) study did not investigate the perspectives of teachers or their pedagogical practices, but examined the practices of English programs in various teaching colleges. In her study she examined both the curriculum and its implementation on ten pre-service programs in Central Java, East Java, Bali, and Lampung in order to explore the standardized professionalism of these programs. The study revealed findings on various issues such as the curriculum and the facilities at pre-service education but the discussion presented in this section is limited to issues relevant to teacher education.

The results of Luciana's study demonstrated wide discrepancies in terms of the knowledge-base of English teachers and the development of student teachers' teaching skills in each program. Discrepancies also appeared on how these knowledge-base and teaching skills were imparted to the students. Teaching practicum was seen as mere obligatory subject to pass and is often formatted resolutely. This made it impossible for student teachers to use teaching practicum as a forum to project their resources and to evolve their teaching skills and capacity within the period of their pre-service education. The short timeframe of teaching practicum prevented students from making direct links between the theory they had studied at pre-service education and the practices they encountered during their apprenticeship.

Luciana (2006) also pointed out that a wide gap is also present in terms of human resources. She stated that only a small portion of teacher educators working in the English departments have relevant academic qualifications such a master's and doctorate degree from an English speaking country but the large majority of teacher educators do not have relevant qualifications. Luciana argued that those teacher educators who have no relevant qualifications provided minimum support to student teachers in developing their reflective teaching and critical thinking. Therefore, their teaching efficacy is questionable.

The six studies above revealed several issues pertinent to language teacher education for primary school English teachers in Indonesia. Rachmawati's (2010) study is important because it provided insights into the efficacy of teaching practicum as a learning-teaching option to contribute to the professional development of teachers. The extent to which the learning-teaching option is positive to the development of teachers' quality and how strategies may be developed to improve its efficacy inspire the present study to incorporate discussion on learning teaching options in language teacher education for primary school English teachers. The importance of both Lengkanawati's (2005) and Luciana's (2006) studies is apparent especially because they provided insights on teachers' areas of weaknesses that are useful for considerations in the development of teacher education. Their studies also revealed the challenges obliterating the practice of pre-service teacher education for English teachers. Relevant issues such as unsystematic teaching practicum and a wide gap presently occurring in terms of human resources in the area of pre-service education were revealed. These are useful signposts for investigating typical problems in pre-service education that will be discussed in the subsequent chapters in the study. Both of Chodidjah's studies (2002 and 2007) are useful accounts in examining the efficacy of in-service teacher training programs that address the needs of teachers. Furthermore, the innovations of in-service training programs laid out in her two studies are also useful for comparisons on the discussion related to policy recommendations on in-service teacher education presented in the subsequent chapters.

2.6 Conclusion and rationale for a new study

The discussion of the studies above has provided insights into policies on teacher education for primary school English teachers. The obstacles that teachers face in the implementation of policy on English education at primary level as well as issues related to pre-service and in-service education including various foreign aid projects and the efficacy of various training programs, among others, have also been highlighted. Nevertheless, room for further inquiry on various accounts is present as suggested in the following:

a) Three studies by Nguyen (2011), Song & Cheng (2011), Lengkanawati (2005) revealed the necessity to take into account the backgrounds, the challenges teachers face, and perspectives of teachers and pedagogical practices of teachers to unravel their needs to well inform innovations in teacher education for primary school English teachers. However, no study was specifically aimed to design policy recommendations on teacher education for English teachers at primary level based on the interplay of those factors. Despite the rapid increase of interest in primary school English teaching as shown in the previous chapter, it seems that creating policy recommendations on teacher education for English teaching force at primary level has not received sufficient attention as yet.
b) Studies by Li (2010), Nguyen (2011), Liaw (2009), and Su (2006) reiterated the importance of generating data from teachers in language policymaking and how teachers play a much more central role in the policy implementation. However, to date no studies in Indonesian context have specifically evoked the involvement of teachers in policymaking on teacher education.
c) The study by Luciana (2003) highlighted the problems in the implementation of pre-service teacher education for English teachers and the importance of establishing standards, while Nguyen (2011) and Song & Cheng (2011) showed that teachers were not sufficiently prepared at pre-service level to teach English successfully at primary level. However, none of these studies offered strategies to improve the pre-service education in an attempt to help prepare primary level English teachers.
d) Studies by Chodidjah (2002 and 2007) examined the efficacy of various in-service training programs, while Nguyen (2011) identified key areas in which teachers need help from in-service training. Unfortunately none of the studies offered suggestions to help improve in-service education in an attempt to assist the professional education of primary English teachers.
e) Only the study by Rachmawati (2010) investigated the use of teaching practicum in the development of teachers' quality, but it remains unclear as to how learning-

teaching options in teacher education may be best developed to help improve the professionalism of English teachers at primary level.

f) None of the studies above took into account the interplay of the issues mentioned above (a-d) for the development of policy recommendations on teacher education for primary school English teachers.

The results from this study that will be presented in this thesis (chapters five to nine) directly address issues 'a' to 'f'. The studies by Nguyen (2011), Hamano (2010), Li (2010), Song & Cheng (2011), Su (2006), and Liaw (2009) were all conducted in EFL countries whose contexts are quite similar to that of Indonesia. Comparisons on the similarities and differences as to how these contextual factors may affect the practice of policy on teacher education for primary school English teachers in Indonesia are of significant value in the discussion presented in the chapters on findings (chapters five to nine).

The next chapter provides more contextual information on primary school English teaching in Indonesia with specific emphasis on the overview of primary schooling education, English education at primary level, teachers of English at primary level, and relevant government policies affecting English teachers and teacher education.

Chapter 3

Primary School English Education in Indonesia and Relevant Policies Affecting English Teachers and Teacher Education

3.0 Introduction

Chapter one reflected on theoretical perspective on the interface between language planning and policy and teacher education. Chapter two provided a rationale for a new study in policy on teacher education for primary school English teachers in Indonesia. This chapter discusses issues pertinent to the teaching of English as a foreign language at primary level in Indonesia such as overview of primary education, the teaching of English at primary level, and the English teachers at primary level. It also discusses relevant government policies that impact on the teachers of English at primary level and teacher education. A summary is provided at the end of the chapter.

3.1 Overview of the primary schooling education in Indonesia

The Article No. 14 of Act No. 20/2003 on National Education System stipulates the inclusion of primary schooling education consisting of *Sekolah Dasar* (henceforth SD) and *Madrasah Ibtidaiyah* (henceforth MI) as part of primary education in the scheme of formal education. Children whose age range from 7 to 12 are required to attend 6 years of SD or MI, starting from Year 1 to Year 6. Students at Year 6 are required to sit the National Exam at the end of the academic year. Completion of the exam guarantees admission to Junior High School (*Sekolah Menengah Pertama* - henceforth SMP) and then Senior High School (*Sekolah Menengah Atas* - henceforth SMA) later on (Kementrian, 2009). A diagram outlining the Indonesian education system is available in Appendix 1.

According to the national educational statistics reported by the Ministry of National Education there are currently 144, 228 SDs. This figure includes 131, 490 SD Negeri (public) and 12, 738 SD Swasta (private). Of the total figure of 1, 569, 326 teachers and school principals in Indonesia, 1, 412, 699 work in SD Negeri whereas 156, 627 work in SD Swasta (Kementrian, 2009) (See Appendix 2). While SD is administrated under the bureaucracy of Ministry of National Education, MI is administrated by Ministry of Religious Affairs (MoRA). It is SD that is bureaucratically administered by MoNE that becomes the focus of this study. The present section of this study reviews relevant issues to primary schooling education in Indonesia, namely school-based management and curriculum developed at the school level.

3.1.1 School-based management

The reign of New Order regime from 1966-1998 was distinctively featured by top-down approach in policymaking and centralistic governance. This was fervently opposed by proponents of the Reformation who called for more decentralized government. The decentralization was pioneered through the establishment of Act No. 22/1999 and Act No. 25/1999. In education, decentralization was expected to result in a more simple educational bureaucracy as well as more effective pedagogic delivery. This led to the implementation of School-Based Management (*Manajemen Berbasis Sekolah*-henceforth MBS) in Indonesian schools (Indriyanto, 2003).

According to Indriyanto (2003), the establishment of MBS puts more emphasis on autonomy being rendered to schools to manage their operational and administrative functions of education. Within MBS scheme, schools are provided by the Ministry of National Education a yearly financial assistance called School Operational Fund (*Biaya Operasional Sekolah*-henceforth BOS) in the sum of thirty million rupiahs (approximately AUD 3,500) as well as technical assistance and consultancy. Schools are rendered autonomy in utilizing these funds, while the government places itself as a partner that helps facilitate schools to achieve their goals on both academic and non-academic areas.

The MBS scheme is based on the philosophy that the extent to which a school is successful in attaining its goals and implementing its program largely depends on the intensive collaboration it creates with the community. This has contributed to the creation of a group consisting of key figures in the community, parents, and teachers that are united in the School Committee (*Komite Sekolah*). The committee has the function to provide consultancy for school principals in implementing a school's programs and achieving its goals. Further support for the improvement of the quality of education under a decentralized scheme is also gained from the local governments that are expected to refocus the allocation of the district budget (Indriyanto, 2003).

Despite these, the implementation of MBS has unfortunately resulted in the centralization of power occurring at the district level. The accountability of The Educational Office from Primary School at the district level (*Dinas Pendidikan Dasar*-henceforth Dinas Dikdas) has now been relegated from the Ministry of National Education to the Provincial House of Representative (*Dewan Perwakilan Rakyat Daerah*-henceforth DPRD). Realignment to this accountability system has adversely affected the supervision system presently exercised by Dinas Dikdas.

The appointment of school superintendents whose prime responsibility is supervising and examining the performance of school principals and teachers is prone to political intervention and is often made on personal rather than professionally rigid assessment. Indriyanto (2003) pointed out that more often than not those appointed superintendents displayed little knowledge about educational as well as school managerial practices. For example, physical appearance of the school and other superficial measures such as fulfilment of administrative criteria were more appraised and were more likely to lead to promotions than school principals' and teachers' actual performance.

It was also widely reported that little or even no positive outcomes for English teachers in primary schools were generated from the supervision. The supervision system appeared to offer no assistance to the examination of teachers' performance. Often those

supervising English teachers had limited English proficiency and were not familiar with English language teaching. English teaching supervision was primarily aimed for fulfilling an administrative task rather than providing constructive feedback to teachers (Waspada, 2010).

3.1.2 Curriculum at Primary Level

The most notable manoeuvre of the government to redistribute powers to local authorities is the introduction of Curriculum Developed at the School Level (*Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan*-henceforth KTSP) in 2003 through the issuance of Act No. 20/2003 about National Education System and The Government Law No. 19/2005 about National Education Standard.

The implementation of KTSP

KTSP is a revolutionary policy directive which marks a significant departure from previous practice. In the past, both the curriculum and syllabus were centrally developed by The Center of Curriculum of the Ministry of National Education (*Pusat Kurikulum*-henceforth PUSKUR), but classroom practitioners are now expected to collaborate to develop their own. A set of instructional guidelines and educational objectives are developed to conform to the standards of competence established by the Ministry of National Education. This means schools are now required to have a curriculum that is locally designed and enacted.

The development of the KTSP curriculum by the schools needs to conform to Graduate Attributes (See Table 3.1) and is conducted under the coordination and supervision of Dinas Dikdas. The principles underpinning the development of KTSP are: 1) the development of the curriculum focuses on the potential, development, and needs of students; 2) the diversity of the students and characters are taken into account in developing the curriculum; 3) the school needs to be able to keep abreast with the advancement of technologies in designing the curriculum; 4) the curriculum needs to

consider its relevance with skills development; 5) the substance of the curriculum is holistically created and is implemented on an on-going basis; 6) life-long learning is encouraged through topics introduced in the curriculum; 7) a balance between the needs of the central government and that of the local government is created (Pemerintah, 2005a).

Responses to the implementation of KTSP

The implementation of KTSP as a decentralization measure has nonetheless been a subject of wide debate. The attempt of the government to apply decentralization of education by devolving control over the curriculum to the provinces, districts, and schools alters how the individuals at all levels of the system play their roles. The authority over the actual design and implementation of the new curriculum is now concentrated at the school level. Those whose job descriptions are most directly affected are by all means teachers (Bjork, 2003), because they are now given the responsibility to act as educational leaders and decision makers in the selection and shaping of the new KTSP curriculum.

What is unclear is how teachers would respond to the challenges delivered to them. A more decentralized system that empowers local actors is favorable but a socio-political context conducive to such a transfer of authority has not been created (Bharati & Suwandi, 2006; Bjork, 2003, 2004). There is little evidence that the immediate environments are supportive of the exertion of autonomy. Pressures to local English teachers to revise their roles have been made by the government, but the foundation that anchors the education system has not been created.

As a consequence, a large number of primary school English teachers have not changed their mindset and have not been able to keep up with the rate of change in the newly introduced policy initiative. Quite often peer pressure is high and is detrimental to professional duties. Having lived in a culture that shapes their professional behavior to become loyalists to the top-down policy, the teachers have learned that the safest response is to follow policy directions without questioning them. This explains their

unenthusiastic response to a reform designed to amplify their authority and extend their autonomy. Teachers resist opportunities to increase their autonomy bestowed upon them since they have been conditioned to act as loyal implementers of directives passed down from above (Bharati & Suwandi, 2006; Bjork, 2003, 2004).

Second, teachers are confronted with the complexities of meeting the needs of the students with the context of the school, the curriculum stipulation, and the importance of keeping abreast with technological advances and innovations in education (Suherdi, 2003; Tedjasukmana, 2003). By the same token, they find it difficult to keep abreast with the overwhelming demands of the curriculum. Teachers at primary level are now burdened with new tasks such as determining the contents of the curriculum, creating syllabi, and communicating the program design and implementation to the community. Yet their competence to accomplish these tasks is still far from sufficient even for the less-demanding previous curricula (Suherdi, 2003). Autonomy and authority conferred to teachers as mandated in KTSP are unfortunately not met with adequate preparation in curriculum and syllabus-making (Pusat Kurikulum, 2008; Lengkanawati, 2005).

Curriculum 2013

Recent educational policy development in the country has shown that the Ministry of National Education plans to establish a new curriculum by July 2013. At the time when the drafts of the thesis were being written (June-December 2012), discussions regarding the formulation of the curriculum were held at the national level involving policymakers, educational planners, and researchers. The curriculum places a large emphasis on the character building of the students to correspond to the Principles of the State, Pancasila and the 1945 National Constitution. Core Competencies as well as Basic Competencies are essential in the implementation of this curriculum for each subject taught at all educational levels (Year 1 and Year 4 at primary school level, Year 7 at junior high school level, and year 10 at Senior High School level). In the first year, the curriculum would however be only implemented in 6, 325 schools with “A” accreditation in order to assess

the potential of the schools as well as the obstacles that may impede a nationwide curriculum implementation (Kompas, 2013a).

The government's plan to introduce the curriculum by July 2013 however faces strong resistance from both the public as well as educational practitioners. A large number of demonstrations and protest marches involving teachers have taken place in various places throughout the country since early 2013. Educational experts in particular view that on the one hand, the new curriculum is detrimental to the development of students' creativity; while on the other hand, many teachers would potentially lose employment. Furthermore, at a time when only a few teachers are able to implement the KTSP Curriculum successfully, they deem it imprudent to introduce a new curriculum of which many teachers are not familiar with. It is feared that the implementation of the new curriculum would bring nothing but another educational catastrophe because teachers are not capable in carrying out the tasks being mandated in the curriculum (Kompas, 2013b).

With the implementation of the 2013 Curriculum, English at primary level will either: 1) have no official place in the primary school curriculum; 2) be removed from the primary school curriculum and be part of the extra-curricular activities; or 3) remain as a local content subject as its present status. The status of English within the new curriculum will inevitably affect the kinds of policy recommendations made in this thesis and how these recommendations will be best implemented. Up to the time when this thesis is being amended (May 2013) however there has been no further development as to how English will officially be placed in the curriculum and how the subject will be taught in the future.

The only thing certain is that parents are worried that the implementation of the 2013 Curriculum may result in the absence of English from primary school timetable. Parents were opposing the implementation of the curriculum if it only results in the abolishment of English from the primary school timetable because they view the importance of the language as a necessary future investment for their children (TVRI, 2013). Suyanto (2013)

also reported that some educational units at provincial level such as Dikdas East Java had confirmed that they would maintain English at primary level timetable. There is a tendency that educational units at other provinces would undertake a similar stance. This indicates that educational units at provincial level are in favor of teaching English in primary schools and would rather maintain English at primary level as a curricular activity than to abolish it entirely from the primary school curriculum.

3.2 The teaching of English in SD

This section discusses the teaching of English in SD by reviewing the introduction of English in SD and the status of English in the curriculum and its impacts on teachers.

3.2.1 The introduction of English in SD

The introduction of English into the curriculum of SMP and SMA was legalized under The Decree of Ministry of Education and Culture No. 096/1967. English was taught as a compulsory subject in SMP and SMA with its primary aim to build a working knowledge of English in four areas of macro-skills: listening, reading, speaking, and writing. The release of the Decree No. 0209/U/1984 by the Ministry of Education and Culture allowed the alteration of focus of English teaching into reading skill through the mastery of 1,000 vocabulary items for SMP students and 4,000 vocabulary items for SMA students. The authorization of English in SMP and SMA did not however prevent the initiative of 352 SDs in Pemerintah Kota Malang (Malang Regency) to introduce English as an extracurricular subject. This signifies that early introduction of English in SD had been of great interest despite the absence of a government regulation that legalized its practice (Suyanto, 2009, 2010).

Huda (1994) reported that two nation-wide surveys were conducted in response to a 1986 seminar on English teaching held by the then Ministry of Education and Culture. Involving parents, teachers, and students of public and private secondary schools, the surveys were conducted in 1988 and 1989. The surveys highlighted that the importance of English is

most notable for successful completion of study. Moreover, higher English proficiency was associated with wider employment opportunities in the future. A major finding of the surveys also revealed that English proficiency of most students at secondary level was unsatisfactory although they had been studying English for 6 years. It was suggested that the inefficacy of English instruction in secondary level was due to the absence of a robust foundation of English that could have been provided at elementary level.

A national meeting on education was held in 1992 by the Ministry of Education and Culture as a follow up of the two surveys. Greater awareness of the roles of English in globalization and future career resulted in the increasing demand of parents and various stakeholders on the need for early English instruction (Suyanto, 2010). The result of the meeting recommended the teaching of English in SD as a local content subject. This recommendation was then legalized in the Decree of the Ministry of Education and Culture No. 060/U/1993 which states that a primary school may teach English as a local content subject to students in Year 4, 5, and 6, given the following requirements are met: 1) the society in which the school is located requires it; 2) the school meets certain qualifications such as the availability of the teachers and the facilities to accommodate proper teaching-learning activities. The Decree of Ministry of National Education No. 22/2006 about The Structure of National Curriculum renews the legalization of English as a local content subject in school that was regulated in the Decree of the Ministry of Education and Culture No. 60/1993. According to The Decree of Ministry of National Education No. 22/2006, English is a local content subject in SD as a subject that is delivered once a week, consisting of 2x35 minutes per lesson (Departemen, 2006a; Suyanto, 2009).

Language Acquisition and the KTSP Curriculum

Research in language acquisition demonstrates that the age factor is crucial (Brown, 2001); and when it comes to primary school English teaching this factor plays a much more vital role. It has been demonstrated that the acquisition of English by primary school learners is different from that of older learners at junior and senior high schools. Typical

differences concerning age as a result bring consequences on the design of the curriculum, material development, teaching methods, testing and assessment, etc. in an attempt to tailor to the specific needs of the young learners.

Agustien (2006) argued that understanding the nature and theoretical principles underpinning the competence-based KTSP curriculum is vital for successful implementation of the curriculum. English instruction at primary level according to KTSP is competence-based, that is, a pedagogy theoretically grounded on the proposition of Celce-Murcia, Dornyei, & Thurrell's (1995) model of communicative competence. Celce-Murcia, Dornyei, & Thurrell (1995) argued that chronological, comprehensive, and accessible description of the components of communicative competence allows language teaching methodologists and practitioners "to have more concrete pieces of language to work with at the fine-tunning stage" (p. 29) which may also provide "an integrated and principled basis for designing a language program" (p. 30). The proposed model includes competencies as varied as linguistic competence, strategic competence, sociocultural competence, actional competence, and discourse competence.

As far as English teaching at primary level is concerned, this means that in the long run learners are expected not only to become competent English users but also are able to appropriately use the language within various domains of usage. Such objective commences at primary level in which, in most instances, English instruction is delivered for the first time. The implementation of such model of communicative competence in the current curriculum is a fundamental movement from previous practice because past curriculums such as Curriculum 1994 placed a large emphasis on grammatical skill and reading comprehension, leaving almost no focus on the development of oral skills (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). By implementing Celce-Murcia, Dornyei, & Thurrell's (1995) model of communicative competence, it is apparent that educational policymakers expect English teaching at primary level would bring much greater impact on the mastery of the language in terms of using the language in various forms of competence.

The outcomes of English instruction at primary level in those areas of competencies are formulized in the form of Graduates Competency Standards (*Standar Kompetensi Lulusan*-henceforth SKL) prescribed by the government in the Decree of Ministry of National Education No. 23/2006. SKL places a great emphasis on what students are expected to know, to behave, and to do through a continuous process in order to become competent in particular skills and provides directive measures of the implementation of KTSP curriculum (Departemen, 2006b). These are specified in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 SKL (*Standar Kompetensi Lulusan* for English or Graduates Competency Standards)	
Listening	To understand instructions, information, and simple stories through conversations within the contexts of classroom, schools, and the neighbourhood.
Speaking	To verbally express the meaning of simple interpersonal and transactional discourses in the form of instructions and information within the contexts of classroom, schools, and the neighbourhood.
Reading	To be able to read aloud and understand the meaning of the instructions and information as presented in short and simple functional, descriptive, and pictorial texts within the contexts of classroom, schools, and the neighbourhood.
Writing	To be able to write words, phrases, and short functional texts with correct spelling and proper punctuation.

Despite the optional status of English in the curriculum, strong pressure is felt by school principals to provide English instruction in their school timetable. The reason is because interest in early instruction of English in SD has been vastly growing as parents are inclined to only send their children to study in an SD that offers English instruction. Parents deem English a necessary investment for future employment. Various studies reported that despite the unavailability of competent and qualified teachers, school principals offer English instruction to primary school children to attract the interest of parents to send their children to study in their schools (Suyanto & Chodidjah, 2002; Chodidjah, 2007, 2008; Lestari, 2003; Karani, 2006). This is parallel to the suggestion made in Chapter 1 that

highlights the association between early introduction of English to the primary school curricula with gaining economic advantages. The fact that English has been offered to primary school students in Year 1-6 also contradicts findings from Rachmajanti (2008) that suggest English instruction at Year 4-6 is more favorable to contribute to greater achievements for students at lower secondary levels.

3.2.2 The impacts of the status of English on teachers

Teachers of compulsory subjects in SD consist of classroom teachers, physical education teachers, and religious teachers. The status of the subject they teach allows them to be appointed civil servants and receive full salary and remuneration from the government. Annual in-service training programs are also provided by the Ministry of National Education to these civil servant teachers. Contrary to these groups of teachers are English teachers who are not appointed civil servants because they teach a local content subject. The status of English as a local content subject has been an impediment for their acquiring various entitlement rights. Neither do they receive full salary from the government; nor are they eligible to attend on-going in-service training programs provided by government-based training institutions.

The current policy which stipulates non-obligatory English has resulted in the apparent disparity between non-civil servant English teachers and civil-servant classroom teachers. Various studies lamented the inequality created by the establishment of the policy and called for the presence of a policy that establishes compulsory English at primary level to close the currently existing gap (Lestari, 2003; Chodidjah, 2008b; Zein, 2009). This clearly demonstrates that the status of English as a local content subject is determinant on the provision of support it receives. Higher status of English as a compulsory subject has been expected to elevate the status of teachers and to allow standardized entitlements being given to teachers.

3.3 English teachers in SD

The report from MoNe on the statistics on primary education reveals that there are 47, 577 primary school English teachers (henceforth PSETs) in Indonesia, of whom 41, 304 teach in SD Negeri while 6, 271 teach in SD Swasta (Kementrian, 2009). Details of statistics on English teachers in SD are available in Appendix 3. This section discusses a number of aspects in relation to the English teaching force in primary schools in Indonesia including the types of English teachers, the pedagogical practises of the teachers, and the challenges they face in teaching English in SD.

3.3.1 The types of English teachers in SD

The discussion below reveals the heterogeneity of English teachers in SD based on studies by Suyanto (2010) and Zein (2011).

Teachers without an English background

English teachers who have no relevant English background are those who do not undertake a major in English or English education during their pre-service education. They come from three pools of education system: 1) School for Teacher Education (*Sekolah Pendidikan Guru* - henceforth SPG); 2) Primary School Teacher Education program (*Pendidikan Guru Sekolah Dasar* - henceforth PGSD); and 3) undergraduate level of education other than education and English.

The first generation of teachers in SD consists of graduates of SPG. SPG is equivalent to a Senior High School (SMA) level of education. The establishment of the Decree of Ministry of Education and Culture No. 2/1989 then required the improvement of qualification from SPG into D-II (Diploma II). Even though the program has now been replaced by PGSD, a large number of its graduates are still active classroom teachers who also teach English.

The bulk of English teaching force in SD in Indonesia primarily consists of those who graduate from PGSD. Various studies confirmed the presence of this group of teachers in

areas throughout the country such as Bandung (Nizar, 2004), DKI Jakarta (Suyanto & Chodidjah, 2002), Medan (Ernidawati, 2002), Malang (Rohmah, 1996), Sidoarjo (Susanto, 1998), and Blitar (Agustina, et al., 1997). PGSD is a four-year bachelor degree offered by various LPTKs aiming to produce qualified and competitive primary school classroom teachers; to conduct research that involves lecturers, students, and primary school teachers in order to further improve the quality of learning and teaching at primary level; and to conduct community services and become part of the solution of the national education. Graduates of PGSD will acquire knowledge and skills related to young learner pedagogy, classroom pedagogy, theories of teaching, educational philosophies, teaching practicum, learning assessment, among others (PGSD FIP UNNES, 2011).

Upon graduation they are conferred with a Bachelor Degree in Primary Education, which is the minimum qualification to teach in SD as stipulated by Section 1.b of The Decree of Minister of National Education Republic of Indonesia No. 16/2007 on Standards of Teachers' Academic Qualification and Competence and Chapter 29 of The Government Law of Republic Indonesia No. 19/2005 On National Standard on Education. Their exposure to English is limited to attending a unit called *English for University Students,* which is offered at 2-4 credit points (100-200 minutes/week) to provide some general English preparation for the students or some private English courses (Zein, 2011).

The appointment of teachers who graduate from SPG and PGSD is usually platformed by economic interests (Lestari, 2003; Suyanto, 2010). The fact that English occupies an important space in Indonesia as it is encouraged by stakeholders in various levels: government, employers, and parents (Lamb & Coleman, 2008) has led to a widely held belief amongst the community which associates English with beneficial intellectual capital. A school's reputation in the community may also be uplifted as long as it offers English in their curriculum timetable. Taking these factors into account, a large number of school principals put value in offering English instruction. While in most cases classroom teachers are appointed to teach English to the students in their class, in some cases some teachers

who are considered to have better command of English in comparison to other teachers are appointed to teach English.

A considerable portion of the existing English teachers consists of graduates of other non-English programs such as Biology, Mathematics, Indonesian Language, etc. Graduates of other non-English programs and PGSD alike have not undertaken English for Young Learners, but are equipped with a unit called *English for University Students,* which is offered for 4 credit points (200 minutes/week) to provide some general English preparation for the students. They are equipped with knowledge and skills specific to the nature of their major, but are not pedagogically prepared to teach English at any levels of education in Indonesia. The unavailability of other occupational options relevant to their academic qualifications constitutes the major factor of this group of teachers embarking on a career in primary school English teaching. Some primary school principals whose school does not have qualified English teachers hire applicants who are graduates of non-English programs. They may have obtained a certificate in English language of any kind from a private English course but have no specific preparation in English education during their pre-service education (Zein, 2011).

Teachers with an English background

Teachers of English at primary level with an English background are those who undertook a major in an English related field during their pre-service education. They come from The Institution of Education and Teacher Education (*Lembaga Pendidikan Tenaga Keguruan*-henceforth LPTK). LPTK is the main form of pre-service teacher education for English teachers in Indonesia, consisting of higher education institutions whose main role is to provide education and pedagogical training for those who are interested in teaching in junior and senior high schools. LPTKs include Institute of Teacher Training and Education (*Institut Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan*-henceforth IKIP), College of Teacher Training and Education (*Sekolah Tinggi Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan*-henceforth STKIP), and Faculty of Teacher Training and Education (*Fakultas Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan*-henceforth FKIP) (Cahyono, 2006).

One pathway for student teachers wishing for a career in English teaching in Indonesian school is called the *concurrent system*. Prospective student teachers within this system have already decided to become English teachers by the time they started to enrol in English Language Education Program. The program is aimed to prepare student teachers who wish to pursue a career in English teaching at secondary level (SMP and SMA). Those who graduate from this program are prepared with units related to English skills such as *Literal Listening, Interpretive Listening, Speaking for Group Activities, Speaking for Formal Setting, Literal Reading, Critical Reading, Argumentative Writing*, among others (Universitas Negeri Malang, 2010a) and are conferred with Bachelor of Education in English Language upon their graduation. Teachers graduating from English Language Education Program will have acquired strong English language proficiency knowledge, and knowledge and skills related to curriculum, syllabus, language testing and assessment, teaching methodologies, teaching skills, and materials development.

Another system is called *consecutive system* that is established in educational-based universities such as State University of Jakarta and State University of Malang. Within this system, student teachers may either decide to become English teachers right from the beginning by attending English Language Education Study Program or later on by attending English Study Program. There are two concentrations in English Study Program: *English Language* and *English Literature;* and those who graduate from this program are conferred with Bachelor of Arts in English (Saukah, 2009).

The English Study Program is a four year undergraduate degree consisting of 146 credit points. Teachers graduating from English Study Program will have acquired strong foundation on areas of English linguistics (e.g. phonology, syntax, morphology, and semantics) and English literature (prose, poem, and drama). EYL (English for Young Learners) is not offered to students of this program, but English pedagogy is covered in units such as *Teaching English as a Foreign Language* (TEFL) and *Language Learning Assessment* (Universitas Negeri Malang, 2011b).

3.3.2 The pedagogical practices of English teachers in SD

Various studies reported that the pedagogical practices of English teachers in SD are limited in a number of domains. A study conducted by Agustina, et al. (1997) reported that teachers did not use English as a means of communication both during class hours and outside the classroom primarily due to their lack of confidence with their English proficiency. They used Indonesian language when giving instruction and explaining the lesson and did not even attempt to use a small number of English phrases and structures. Furthermore, the teachers tended to present the language components and language skills in separation. No efforts were made to integrate the language skills using a communicative approach in language teaching.

The English lessons were also mostly teacher-centered as teachers tended to dominate the lesson. Astika (1996) reported that more than half of the lesson hour was used by teachers for explaining the lesson, asking questions, giving instruction, and conducting drilling. A third of the lesson hour was spent for other activities categorized as "silence and confusion" because students conducted individual tasks in perplexity without even the teachers monitoring them and providing them guidance. Students were only given about 14.9% of the lesson hour for practicing the language, but this was primarily spent on drilling activities in which they were required to listen and repeat sentences written on the board.

Research by Nurhayati (1996) provided evidence for the teachers' poor skill in creating good lesson plan that is suitable for learning development of their students. Febriyanthi's (2004) research confirmed this finding. She pointed out that teachers were not creative because the presentation of their lesson would normally follow what was presented in coursebooks. Other studies by Rachmajanti, Sulistyo, & Suharmanto (2000) and Damayanti, Muslim, & Nurlaelawati (2008) reported that teachers were lacking the confidence to improvise activities in their coursebooks. No consideration in relation to the needs of the students as well as the appropriateness of the contents with the class' condition or the background was taken into account when designing the lesson. Diverse

practice of English lesson presentation appeared as a consequence between one school and another.

Studies conducted in Malang (Rohmah, 1996; Senga, 1998) and in Bandung (Damayanti, et al., 2008) demonstrated that teachers had limited knowledge and skills when presenting appropriate English lessons to young learners. They also did not place much attention to children's characters. Teachers were focusing more on grammar and translation rather than the development of students' intrinsic motivation. Child friendly teaching methods and techniques were not employed due to a lack of creativity of the teachers in designing English lessons that are fun, motivating, and engaging for the students.

Studies conducted by Suyanto & Rachmajanti (2008) also reported the poor proficiency of teachers in terms of oral skills. When observing the teachers in various areas in Indonesia the researchers noted the widespread pronunciation errors deteriorating the pedagogical practices of teachers of English at primary level. The majority of the teachers observed mispronounced English words. They uttered the wrong vowels, stressed the wrong syllables, or uttered sentences in an intonation that is closer to the accent of their local language rather than the acceptable pronunciation of English. The researchers argued that the repercussions of such gaffes are calamitous in the language development of the learners because teachers of English at primary level are supposed to be a good language model.

3.3.3 The challenges that teachers face in teaching English in SD

The pedagogical practices of teachers in teaching English at primary level have been exacerbated by numerous challenges. Obstacles to teaching English as a foreign language in Indonesia include a large number of students and limited exposure, assessment, coursebooks, unequal capital distribution, and limited support for underprivileged schools. These are discussed in the following.

A large number of students and limited exposure

Despite the increasing interest in the teaching of English in SD, English classes do not receive better treatment than other subjects. English is taught in a classroom consisting of a large number of students, approximately between 40-50 students/class. The desks are organized in rows, with students sitting in four rows and six lines and each desk occupied by two students. The sheer number of students has been an unconducive non-linguistic factor that afflicts the performance of teachers of English, irrespective of their qualifications and experience (Dardjowidjojo, 2000).

Musthafa (2001) pointed out that insufficient amount of exposure to English during the lessons is a hindrance for successful development of learners as competent users of English language. It was reported that teachers who are supposed to become a language model for the students seldom used English in the classroom primarily due to their lack of confidence with their English proficiency. The students as a consequence were left without sufficient exposure to the language when learning English, which made it difficult for them to develop good sense of direction in learning the language.

Assessment

Scholars such as Jazadi (2000) and Dardjowidjojo (2000) highlighted that the teaching of English in Indonesia is challenged by the widespread implementation of test as a standardized assessment system. The teachers perceived the usefulness of the tests to assess the proficiency of their students. However, it was reported that tests actually conditioned teachers to prepare students only for exam rather than to help students to develop interest and passion for the language (Lestari, 2003). This finding is indicative of the lack of understanding of teachers to design appropriate assessment measures for learners, which are attitude-oriented rather than content-oriented. Teachers were more focused on the implementation of content goals rather than on attitude goals, which should actually become the priority of primary school English teaching (Halliwell, 1992).

Moreover, it was suggested that the employment of multiple choice and reading comprehension questions offers little information about students' actual language skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking). Much focus on the knowledge of syntax and grammatical items in tests development is also counterproductive to the development of students' communicative competence (Musthafa, 2001). Suyanto (2010) asserted that the validity of the tests employed for assessing the proficiency of primary school students is therefore highly questionable.

Coursebooks

Studies conducted by Marcellino (2008) and Aydawati (2005) reported the shortage of good coursebooks available to contribute to the success of primary school English teaching.

The use of imported coursebooks from countries such as Singapore in Indonesian primary schools was proven unsuitable for the teaching of English at primary level primarily due to the fact that the coursebooks were written for learners of English as a second language (Singaporean learners) rather than English as a foreign language (Indonesian learners). For example, the tenses are presented along with the inclusion of pronouns of any types (subject, object, interrogative, and possessive case), more complex phrases (noun phrases, prepositional phrases, and relative clauses) and vocabulary items that foreign language beginner learners are not familiar with. These examples indicate that the general complexity of the content of the task does not completely match the nature of the processing sequence of the themes presented. A mismatch occurs between the language proficiency required in order to successfully comprehend and operate the coursebooks and the mastery of English (Marcellino, 2008).

Both imported and local coursebooks were also considered contextually unsuitable for Indonesian children. The fact that the imported coursebooks were written for Singaporean children is a limitation for the use of the coursebooks in Indonesian primary schooling settings. Teachers find it difficult to adjust the contexts provided in the

coursebooks to the Indonesian contexts (Aydawati, 2005). On the other hand, local coursebooks were written without strong emphasis on the culture preservation. Yusuf (2010) argued that the eight coursebooks he reviewed do not provide extensive elaboration on the various aspects of Indonesian culture as shown in the superficial illustration and unclear presentation of the topics covered.

Unequal capital distribution

A widely held perspective is the inefficacy of primary schooling English instruction. Personal agency has been largely exercised to compensate the ineffective instruction of English in public schools. Even within schools with relatively advantageous conditions for learning, it is conceded that real progress in English was only possible by studying privately outside the school. Learners are indirectly forced to exercise their own personal agency through private tuition outside school in order to acquire strong literacy in English (Lamb & Coleman, 2008).

Private tuition is provided by teachers to students demanding extra English lessons, while small private English courses have been proliferating throughout the country in the past few years. Middle-income families would normally send their children to either their teachers or these small private English courses. On the other hand, those who are better off would send their children to more lucrative private English institutions such as LIA (Lembaga Indonesia Amerika or Indonesian and American Institution), EF (English First), and IALF (Indonesian Australian Language Foundation). These private English courses offer a program for SD and kindergarten students with various names such as English for Young Learners (offered by IALF) and English for Children (offered by EF).

Similar personal agency is however absent amongst families with lower socio-economic status. Awareness of the importance of English for their future is present and parental encouragement towards English is generally positive but the inequality of capital distribution does not allow the exertion of personal agency in this group of learners. Learners from this background may only be able to access English through formal

instruction at school. Socio-economic factor seems dominant in determining the amount of exposure that learners have with their experience in learning English, but it must be borne in mind that such grim picture is representative of the whole body of education in Indonesia (Lamb & Coleman, 2008).

Lack of support for underprivileged schools

A common issue occurring in less affluent schools which are generally located in rural and remote areas is the increasing number of unqualified teachers. Neither the schools nor the educational departments at local level are able to afford the employment of qualified teachers. It is of no surprise that in these schools, teachers of other subjects or classroom teachers are appointed to teach English. The employment of unqualified English teachers in these schools is caused by insufficient financial support. The decision to teach English in primary schools is school-based, but the decision on how much would be invested in education is made by the policy agents at the local level.

It seems that the consideration of whether or not there are sufficient funds to offer proper English instruction in Indonesian primary schools has not been adequately managed. This is evident in some rural areas where a teacher is assigned to teach English in a number of different schools. Significant differences in language teaching developments between affluent schools in urban areas and those less affluent ones in rural areas are apparent. Clear differences in English proficiency, previous learning experiences, classroom participation are all attributed to the exertion of personal agency which is socially and financially-bounded (Lamb, 2004; Lamb & Coleman, 2008). Unequal access to English provision not only perpetuates, but also exacerbates educational inequality that has been occurring in the country for many years.

3.4 Relevant government policies on teachers and teacher education

This section discusses current and relevant educational policies imposed by the government and how they make impacts on teacher education and primary school English teachers. Articles relevant to these policies are available in Appendices 4-7.

3.4.1 Policy on teacher qualification

The issuance of several policy documents including The National System of Education Act No. 20/2003 (Pemerintah, 2003), the Government Regulation No 19/2005 on the National Standards of Education (Pemerintah, 2005a), and the Teachers and Lecturers Act No 14/2005 (Pemerintah, 2005b), Act No. 16/2007 on Standards of Teachers' Academic Qualification and Competence (Departemen, 2007c) is influential in determining the basic qualification for teachers (See Appendix 4).

Chapter 29 of The Government Law of Republic Indonesia No. 19/2005 On National Standard on Education contradicts Chapter 34 of Act No. 20/2003 on The National Education System. The contradiction appears because English teachers at primary level are expected to possess a relevant undergraduate degree in education or psychology on the one hand (Chapter 29 of the Government Law of Republic of Indonesia No.19/2005), while on the other hand they are required to possess a relevant undergraduate degree relevant to the subject they are teaching (Chapter 34 of Act No. 20.2003). Clearly Chapter 29 of The Government Law of Republic Indonesia No. 19/2005 On National Standard on Education is a policy directive of Chapter 34 of Act No. 20/2003 on The National Education System that regulates the minimum qualifications of classroom teachers at primary level. Chapter 29 of The Government Law of Republic Indonesia No. 19/2005 On National Standard on Education stipulates classroom teachers are now expected to possess both an academic qualification of undergraduate degree (S-1) or D-IV in education or psychology and Teacher Professional Certificate in order to be able to teach in primary schools (Departemen, 2007a).

It is worth noting that there is no specific policy directive that specifies the minimum qualifications for primary school English teachers. Chapter 34 of Act No. 20/2003 on The National Education System that stipulates the linearity of qualifications of English teachers at primary level to their level and area of expertise or the subject they teach is not specific because, as shown in Section 3.3.1, English Language Education is aimed at teaching English at secondary level.

3.4.2 Policy on the curriculum of English in pre-service education

The four competencies of teachers as stipulated by Chapter 28 of The Government Law No. 74/2008 on Teachers and Chapter 10 of Act No. 14/2005 include: pedagogical competence, personality competence, professional competence, and social competence (see Appendix 5). To conform to these competencies, The Directorate General of Higher Education (*Direktorat Perguruan Tinggi* - henceforth DIKTI) prescribed four components of Higher Education Curriculum: general education units, specialized units, professional units, and elective units. Students of LPTKs are required to undertake *general education units,* which are aimed to help students to accomplish the personality and social competence; the *specialized* and *elective units*, which are aimed to train professional competence; and the *professional units*, which are aimed to enhance pedagogical competence. While *general education* units are offered in early semesters, *specialized, professional,* and *elective units* are offered later throughout the pre-service education.

In response to a call for reforms on the contents of EFL teacher education made by Bismoko (2003), Madya (2003), Djiwandono (2000), Luciana (2006), and Lie (2007), efforts have been made to conform to the curriculum that includes the four components of Higher Education prescribed by DIKTI as well as the challenges in job market and globalization. Saukah (2009) stated that the current English teacher education curriculum at pre-service level was formulated in order to accommodate these demands. The curriculum of a typical EFL teacher education program in Indonesia is presented in Table 3.2.

Specific areas of concentration are offered in English departments to student teachers who are interested in areas such as Linguistic, Translation, Literature, and English Language Education. Unfortunately, as shown in Section 3.3.1, those enrolling in English Language Education Program are trained to teach English at secondary level (SMP and SMA), and not primary level (SD). This means that a specific concentration for those teaching English at primary level is absent, which reflects the absence of a policy directive that regulates a minimum qualification for English teachers in SD. This situation resembles that of other countries such as Vietnam (Nguyen, 2011) where pre-service English education is mainly aimed to prepare prospective teachers to teach English at secondary level.

As shown in Table 3.2 overleaf, with the implementation of the new KTSP curriculum, student teachers wishing to seek employment in primary schooling English teaching may attend a unit called EYL (English for Young Learners). EYL is an elective unit offered in some English Language Education programs such as in State University of Malang (Universitas Negeri Malang, 2011a). The unit generally covers issues such as young learner pedagogy, children language acquisition, and teaching methodologies for young learners within 200 minutes/week. The aim of EYL is to enable student teachers to be familiar with issues in young learner pedagogy such as children language acquisition, psychological development of children, young learners learning strategy, etc. While this unit is valued at 2 credit points in some teaching colleges, it is valued at 4 credit points in others (Saukah, 2009). This means that only student teachers who have undertaken EYL are equipped with preparation in issues and contents related to teaching English to students at primary level. The unit is nevertheless not offered in many universities that do not place specific emphasis on teaching English to Young Learners or do not have sufficient human resources (Suyanto, 2010).

Table 3.2 Curriculum of EFL teacher education program in Indonesia (Adapted from Saukah, 2009)		
Category	**Units**	**Credit Points**
General Education	Religion, Civic Education, Indonesian Language, philosophy of science, community services, etc.	16-18
Specialized	English Language Skills	66
	English Linguistics	10-12
	English Literature	10
	Research Courses	12
Professional	General Pedagogy	10
	ELT (English Language Teaching) Courses	16-18
	Teaching Practicum	4
Elective	Business English	2-4
	EYL (English for Young Learners)	2-4
	Translation	2-4
Total		**158-164**

The policy on teacher competency has been effective in pushing the pre-service teacher education to create a new curriculum for English departments. However, little is known whether this curriculum has successfully accommodated the need of prospective teachers. Even after those intending to teach English at primary level are given preparation through EYL; it remains unclear as to whether the allocation of 2-4 credit points is sufficient to tackle the increasing demand of primary English teaching.

3.4.3 Policy on teacher professional organization

Chapters 41 and 42 of Act No. 14/2005 on Teachers and Lecturers stipulate the presence of professional organization for teachers (Appendix 6). The chapters state that the aim of the professional organization is to develop competence, career, educational knowledge, professional advocacy, welfare, and community service of the teaching professionals.

TEFLIN (Teachers of English as a Foreign Language in Indonesia) is the largest professional organization comprising of English teaching professionals in Indonesia. Launched in 1973, the aim of TEFLIN is twofold: 1) to facilitate the relationship and cooperation between English departments in various universities, schools, and institutions throughout Indonesia; and 2) to provide English practitioners, researchers, and applied linguists with opportunities to disseminate their research findings and share their insights, teaching techniques, as well as the latest developments in English teaching. In order to achieve its aims, TEFLIN holds an annual conference and publishes the biannual TEFLIN Journal. The past few years have witnessed the attendance of a larger number of local and international participants in TEFLIN conferences, while the publication of TEFLIN Journal has attracted the interests of local and international researchers to share insights and disseminate their research findings (Sadtono, 2007).

The fact that Indonesia is currently undergoing massive educational reforms highlights the need to "counterbalance the power of policymakers in ensuring that up-to-date, balanced, pedagogically sound education policies and EFL curriculum are produced, carried out, and monitored" (Lie, 2007, p. 11). Lie argued that TEFLIN is in a well-established position to serve that mission. The organization has been serving for the improvement of English education quality in the country for a number of decades. It has the experience, knowledge-base of language teaching concepts, principles, and practices, and the network between researchers, teachers, and educators. It would be a waste if the numerous studies and research that have been disseminated through TEFLIN conferences were not taken into account in the development of English education policies to benefit teachers and students.

3.4.4 Policy on teacher professional development

Chapter 44 of Act No. 20/2003 on the National Education System and Chapter 13 of Act No. 14/2005 on Teachers and Lecturers enforce both the central government and local government to develop the academic qualification and competence of teachers (see

Appendix 7). In a more decentralized context of educational management that Indonesia is currently embracing, more authorities and autonomy are relegated to policy authorities at the local level. This is evident in Chapter 10 of The Decree of Minister of National Education No. 15/2003 on Standard Minimum of Service of Primary Education at the District/Level that bequeaths such authorities and autonomy to the local policy authorities. Chapter 11 Article 1 and 2 of The Decree of Minister of National Education No. 15/2010 on Standard Minimum of Service of Primary Education at the District/Level suggests the facilitating roles of the central government. The central government is responsible for the improvement on the system in terms of professionalism, institution, and financial. The facilitation by the central government also includes provision on general orientation, technical assistance, technical supervision, training, and others.

The exertion of autonomy on local governments to develop professional development programs for teachers requires a linkage between the local governments and government-based training institutions such as The Center for Development and Empowerment of Language Teachers and Education Personnel (*Pusat Pengembangan dan Pemberdayaan Pendidikan dan Tenaga Kependidikan Bahasa* - henceforth P4TK Bahasa). The primary responsibility of a government-based training institution is improving the quality of teachers. The Decree of the Ministry of National Education Number 08/2007 on the Organization and Structure of The Center for Development and Empowerment of Language Teachers and Education Personnel stipulates the establishment of P4TK Bahasa which functions to provide training services to teachers who attend the certification program as well as those who fail certification program (Departemen, 2007b). Other activities in which P4TK Bahasa is also responsible are distance training programs, training for teachers in remote areas and Eastern Indonesia, assessment for language teachers, training for writing research papers, training for teachers in non-formal education, and training for education personnel. In order to carry out these activities, Coordinating Teams for Teacher Training have been set up both at the national and local levels (Center for Development, 2007).

Unfortunately, a study conducted by Chodidjah (2007) demonstrated that poor coordination between government-based training institutions and the local governments is the most frequent issue jeopardizing the implementation of in-service teacher training programs in Indonesia. For instance, educational administrators often act as a project designer of a training program. They take over the role of formulating the contents and structure of the training program from P4TK, leaving the mere task of providing teacher educators to the latter. In spite of its authority in program design and development as stipulated in The Decree of the Ministry of National Education Number No 08/2007 on the Organization and Structure of The Center for Development and Empowerment of Language Teachers and Education Personnel, P4TK has not yet been able to fully carry out their mandate to formulate teacher training programs.

3.5 Concluding remarks

Chapter 2 highlighted the absence of a study on policy recommendations on teacher education for primary school English teachers and provided a rationale for the present study. This chapter has made the importance of the present study more considerable. It has been discussed in this chapter that teachers demonstrate unsatisfactory performance in carrying out the task of teaching English to primary school children. The limited pedagogical practices of English teaching professionals are evident in areas such as language proficiency, the creation of more student-centred lessons, lesson plan and materials development, classroom management, and knowledge related to young learners, to name a few. Lestari (2003), Suyanto, Rachmajanti, & Lestari (2003), and Zein (2009) argued that the introduction of English at primary level in Indonesia requires the preparation of proficient, competent, and qualified EYL teachers. This makes another rationale for the conduct of the present study that aims to offer policy recommendations on teacher education for primary school English teachers.

It has been demonstrated that the status of English as a local content subject disadvantages English teachers at primary level because they are unlikely to be promoted

into civil servant status. They receive lower salary and are not prioritized to receive on-going professional development activities organized by the government. By the same token they also face numerous challenges. These include large-size classrooms consisting of more than 40 students, insufficient amount of exposure due to limited facilities and authentic materials, the implementation of content-oriented learning assessment, and the culturally inappropriate coursebooks that are also unsuitable to the level of the students. A much increasing gap between students from lower socio-economic background and upper socio-economic background as well as the lack of support provided for underprivileged schools are other factors exacerbating the pedagogical practices of teachers.

Other obstacles are related to recent developments of decentralization of education. Although policy directives such as MBS and the KTSP curriculum are solely aimed for empowering local actors at the educational system (e.g. school principals and teachers) to extend their autonomy and authority, the reality shows that environment for such transfer of authority to take place is absent. The centralization of power occurring at the district level is prone to political intervention as seen in the appointment of school superintendents. While teachers face constant peer pressure and debilitating working culture that inhibit them from amplifying their autonomy and authority, at the same time they are burdened by the overwhelming demands of the KTSP curriculum. Inadequate preparation in curriculum and syllabus making also adds to the bleak picture.

The discussion throughout the chapter has also demonstrated the absence of a policy directive that regulates a minimum qualification for primary school English teachers. The establishment of the policy on teachers' competencies has influenced administrators at teaching colleges to introduce EYL to help prepare student teachers to teach English at primary level. It however remains unclear whether this particular unit is sufficient to prepare teachers to successfully teach English to children. Furthermore, teachers are victimized by the lack of coordination occurring between government-based training institutions and governments at local level. The much-heightened emphasis on the

relegation of power has created confusion among policy agents at local level. A light of hope however exists with the presence of TEFLIN. The organization is expected to play much more central roles to fully empower English teaching professionals in terms of teacher education, advocacy, welfare, and community service.

It is within this understanding of contexts that a case study on the policy on teacher education of primary school English teachers could be adequately framed. The interplay of current government policies affecting teachers of English at primary level and teacher education forms an indispensable and useful contribution for the discussion that appears in the subsequent chapters. This is grounded in primary schooling English education realities that consist of numerous challenges that teachers face on a daily basis. Such understanding is a prerequisite for informed changes on the domain of policy recommendations on teacher education for English teachers in SD that becomes the heart of this present study. As Zein (2012, p. 85-86) argued, "the continuously increasing advocacy for a policy on educating primary school English teachers cannot be fully understood without an adequate framework of the various contexts in which the policy is situated."

It is now necessary to turn to a chapter on research methodology. Aspects including participants involved in the study, the kinds of data collection techniques employed to gather data in the study, procedures for data analysis, and the structure of the study are discussed in the following chapter.

Chapter 4

The Study: Research Methodology

4.0 Introduction

This study involved five groups of participants, namely primary school English teachers (PSETs), language teacher educators (LTEs), members of educational board (MEBs), primary school principals (PSPs), and educational consultants (ECs). The study was based on interviews and classroom observations. Since the study involved a small number of participants and focused on research questions relying on data such as teachers' views and classroom behaviors as well as perspectives of other group of participants (Johnstone, 2000; Johnson, 1992; Bryman, 2008), a qualitative research approach was selected for it.

The study examined the participants' views on the needs of PSETs in terms of knowledge and skills; the delivery of pre-service and in-service teacher education of PSETs; the design of learning-teaching options at pre-service and in-service levels of teacher education to attend to the needs of PSETs; and the perspectives of participants to develop a policy on teacher education for primary school English teachers. Thus, this qualitative study was the result of investigating the following research questions:

1) What are the needs of PSETs in Indonesia in terms of skills?
2) What are the needs of PSETs in Indonesia in terms of knowledge?
3) Do the PSETs attend pre-service teacher education? How is the practice of teacher education for PSETs at pre-service level implemented and how can it be improved?
4) Do the PSETs attend in-service teacher education? How is the practice of teacher education for PSETs at in-service level implemented and how can it be improved?
5) How can learning-teaching options of teacher education be designed to attend to the needs of PSETs?
6) How can the findings be used to develop policy recommendations on teacher education for English teachers at primary level in Indonesia?

This chapter offers explanations for the research methodology selected for answering the research questions by providing information on: the subjects of the study (4.1); data collection (4.2); data analysis (4.3); and the structure of the study (4.4). Each of these areas is presented and discussed in the following sections. A summary is presented at the end of the chapter.

4.1 The subjects of the study

This section discusses issues relevant to the subjects of the study, namely the kind of sample used in the study, the profile of the participants, and the selection process and recruitment of participants.

4.1.1 Purposive sampling

This study employed purposive samples. Participants were selected on the basis of their profile in order to match the purpose of the study as well as the theoretical framework underpinning the study (LeCompte & Schensul, 1999; Nunan, 1992; Boije, 2010). A number of methodologists including LeCompte & Schensul (1999), Marshall & Rossman (2010), and Bryman (2008) argued purposive samples with heterogeneous backgrounds are useful to generate richer responses and provide insightful data. This type of sampling also allows the corroboration of information elicited from key informants and others- preferably those who occupy different positions or who have different perspectives (LeCompte & Schensul, 1999).

4.1.2 Participants of the study[2]

The use of purposive sampling in this study is reflected in the selection of five groups of participants as follows.

Primary school English teachers (PSETs)

Thirteen local teachers were involved in this study. Four of the thirteen teachers did not have a background in pre-service English education (PSET2, PSET3, PSET7, and PSET8), while the rest had all completed a bachelor degree in a major related to English (See Section 5.1.1). The inclusion of this group of participants is of paramount importance because the study aims to investigate the needs of teachers in terms of their knowledge and skills, their views and perceptions on the practice of teacher education at both pre-service and in-service levels, their views on the design of learning teaching options for teacher education, and their views on the feasibility of a policy on teacher education for primary school English teachers. The involvement of teachers in this study is also significant as they are often underrepresented in language policymaking (Cooper, 1989).

Language teacher educators (LTEs)

Three teacher educators participating in this study had been teaching at universities for more than 15 years. One teacher educator held an MA in TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) and was working on her PhD at the time of data collection (LTE4), and two were PhD holder university professors (LTE2 and LTE3). In addition, there was one teacher educator who worked with a private training institution (LTE1). The decision to include this group of participants was based on their area of expertise because they

[2] While stakeholders such as parents, students, and coursebook writers took part in previous studies on primary school English teaching in Indonesia (e.g. Rachmajanti, 2008; Zein, 2009), those stakeholders were not included in this study. The use of purposive sampling in this study requires the involvement of stakeholders who have the potential to unravel data pertinent to the profile of teachers, pedagogical practices of teachers, the delivery of pre-service and in-service teacher education, the design of learning-teaching options, and issues related to the development of policy on teacher education for primary school English teachers.

greatly knew issues related to teacher education in Indonesia. Having taught English teachers, these teacher educators were aware of the needs of the teachers in Indonesia and the kinds of learning-teaching options that could be useful to prepare teachers with the necessary skills to successfully teach English in primary schools. Furthermore, they were also a valuable resource in relation to policies on developing language teacher education programs for PSETs in Indonesia.

Members of educational board (MEBs)

Two members of an educational board were teacher educators working at a government-based training institution: *LPMP (Lembaga Peningkatan Mutu Pendidikan or the Institution for Educational Quality Assurance)*. This group of participants was included in the study because of their expertise on teacher training for English teachers in Indonesia. They were aware of the needs of PSETs in Indonesia, having trained PSETs on a number of occasions. Their expertise was considered to be useful to provide invaluable information on the design of learning-teaching options to prepare teachers to teach English at primary level as well as the information on policy recommendations on teacher education for teachers of English at primary level. Although they were working as teacher educators, in this study they were referred to as members of educational board because they were working in a government-based training institution (LPMP). This is to distinguish them from language teacher educators who were working in either a university (LTE2, LTE3, and LTE4) or a private training institution (LTE1).

Primary school principals (PSPs)

Three school principals were involved in the study. While two of them (PSP1 and PSP2) were principals in a public school, the other (PSP3) was a principal in a private school. Their expertise and experiences with issues related to educational policies in Indonesia were considered useful to answer questions related to the policy recommendations on teacher education for PSETs in Indonesia.

Educational consultants (ECs)

Two educational consultants participated in the study. Both were university professors who served in the advisory board at the Directorate General of Higher Education at the Ministry of National Education. Their expertise and experiences in dealing with the formulation of various educational policies in Indonesia are indispensable in providing invaluable information on the policy recommendations for developing teacher education for teachers of English at primary level.

4.1.3 Selection and recruitment of participants

In order to ensure reasonable representation of teachers involved in this study, teachers were selected based on the type of schools and region. Five teachers were from private schools (PSET2, PSET3, PSET4, PSET5, and PSET), five were from public schools (PSET1, PSET7, PSET8, PSET10, and PSET13), and three were from national-standard public schools (PSET11, PSET12, and PSET9). Previous research relevant to primary school English teachers was conducted involving teachers in areas such as Bandung (Nizar, 2004; Sary 2010), Medan (Ernidawati, 2002), Blitar (Agustina, et al., 1997), Sidoarjo (Susanto, 1998), and Salatiga (Astika, 1996).

It was decided to conduct research involving teachers in other areas such as Tomohon, North Sulawesi (PSET2, PSET3, PSET7, and PSET8); Denpasar, Bali (PSET4, PSET5, PSET6); Lombok, West Nusa Tenggara (PSET9); Rempoa, Banten (PSET10); and Tegal, Central Java (PSET13) primarily to cover areas which had not been included in previous research. Furthermore, previous research in two areas: Malang (Rohmah, 1996; Senga, 1998) and DKI Jakarta (Suyanto & Chodidjah, 2002) were conducted more than a decade ago, so it was decided to also involve teachers in these two areas to follow up: Jagakarsa, DKI Jakarta (PSET1) and Malang, East Java (PSET11, PSET12). Other groups of participants were selected on the basis of their availability when the data collection process took place.

The recruitment of participants in this study used two methods of selection as suggested by Boije (2010) including networking and writing a formal letter to institutions. As far as

networking is concerned, prospective participants were contacted using three modes of communications: mobile phones, Facebook, and e-mail. The nature of the study was described and participants were then asked whether they would be willing to participate in the study. A letter was written to primary school principals requesting for permission to interview and observe their English teacher(s). Upon receiving the approval letter from the principals, the teachers were then contacted again to schedule interviews and observation sessions.

4.2 Data collection

This section discusses issues relevant to data collection in this study, namely research ethics, data triangulation, interviews, and classroom observations.

4.2.1 Research ethics and confidentiality

The study was planned when the researcher was enrolled in University of Canberra before a transfer took place and a confirmation of enrolment was received from the Australian National University (Appendix 9). After ethical clearance was received, Contacts for Information on the Project and Independent Complaints Procedure (Appendix 10) was given to participants along with Consent Form for participants to declare their willingness to participate in the study (Appendix 11).

Participants' consent was obtained after the nature of the study had been described. Participants were told that participation in the study was completely voluntary and that they had the right to refuse participating in the study or to withdraw while the study was being carried out. The privacy of the participants involved in the study was ensured because none of the participants' personal identification is disclosed to a third party (Christians, 2005).

Participants throughout the study are referred to by acronyms according to the type of group they belong to + a number, e.g. PSET1 = Primary School English Teacher No. 1, and LTE1 = Language Teacher Educator No. 1. The confidentiality of participants was assured throughout the data collection process up to the submission of the thesis. Soft copy of files of report on classroom observation and interview transcription are stored in a password protected computer. Access to the data was available only to the researcher and members of his supervisory panel.

4.2.2 Data triangulation

A triangulation of tools of investigation commonly used in qualitative research, namely interviews and classroom observations, was used to generate data. The use of data triangulation has been advocated by numerous scholars as beneficial to reduce bias and to enhance validity and reliability of the data (Denzin, 1989; McDonough & McDonough, 1997; Johnson, 1992; Mackey & Gass, 2005; Bryman, 2008; Boije, 2010; LeCompte & Schensul, 1999; Marshal & Rossman, 2010). Various studies in language teacher education and language planning and policy employing data triangulation include Richards, Ho, & Giblin (1996), Richards & Pennington (1998), Varghese (2008), Olson's (2007), and Silver & Skuja-Steele (2005), to name a few.

Data generated from interviews in this study involving PSETs and LTEs were useful to identify the needs of PSETs in Indonesia in terms of knowledge and skills. These data were corroborated, compared, and contrasted with data generated from classroom observations. Furthermore, data generated from interviews involving all groups of participants yielded insights pertinent to unraveling the practice of teacher education at both pre-service and in-service levels, the design of learning teaching-options of teacher education, as well as policy recommendations on language teacher education for PSETs in Indonesia. Distinct approaches encompassed by these data elicitation techniques were useful to ensure the validity of the study (Gerson & Horowitz, 2002).

4.2.3 Interviews

This section provides information on the aim and structure of interviews, question formulation, interview questions posed to PSETs, interview questions posed to LTEs and MEBs, interview questions posed to PSPs and ECs, and procedures of interviews.

The aim and structure of interviews

Interviews are used in studies in language planning and policies and teacher education for various purposes such as to examine the mediation of language policy at the local level (Varghese, 2008), to investigate the link between governmental policies related to education and language and classroom pedagogy (Silver & Skuja-Steele, 2005), and to investigate the implications of state level language policy on teaching and learning (Olson, 2007). The aim of conducting interviews in this study was to generate data on participants' views and ideas on the needs of PSETs in terms of knowledge and skills, the practice of teacher education at both pre-service and in-service levels, the design of learning teaching-options of teacher education and policy recommendations on language teacher education for PSETs in Indonesia. The use of interviews was expected to obtain elaborate views of the participants on the issues above and to maintain reasonable representation of participants with various backgrounds in order to allow more manageable sampling (McKay & Gass, 2005; Johnson, 1992).

Among the three types of interviews mentioned in the literature: structured, semi-structured, and unstructured interviews (King & Horrocks, 2010); semi-structured interviews were chosen in this study. Bryman (2008, p. 438) defined semi structured interviews as an interview where

> "the researcher has a list of questions or fairly specific topics to be covered, often referred to as an interview guide, but the interviewee has a great deal of leeway in how to reply. Questions may not follow on exactly in the way outlined on the schedule. Questions that are not included in the guide may be asked as the interviewer picks up on things said by interviewees. But, by and large, all the questions will be asked and a similar wording will be used from interviewee to interviewee."

Patton (1986) stated that semi-structured interviews allow participants to freely express themselves to obtain their most genuine responses to the questions asked while at the same time "minimize the imposition of pre-determined responses" (p. 122). The contingencies of interaction between interviewer and interviewee are influential to the meaning of information generated as well as its interpretation (Gubrium & Holstein, 1997), so it is important to ensure the tone of the interviews to be more of "a conversation" rather than a rigid interview (Robson, 1993, p. 230). This is particularly appropriate to the context of Indonesia because the people are known to be informal and flexible, even though they tend to digress when having a conversation (Rosidi, 2001).

Question formulation

The formulation of interview questions in this study followed the guidelines set out by Kvale (1996) including thematizing, designing, piloting, and revising. First of all, in thematizing the interview questions, objectives were set out. For example, the objective of conducting interviews with PSETs was primarily to obtain their views on their needs in terms of their knowledge and skills. Questions were then structured following the overriding principles of brevity, simplicity, and concreteness as suggested by Bryman (2008) and Foddy (1993). This results in the avoidance of negatives, abstract words, and jargons as well as the rephrase of questions containing ambiguous words.

The interview questions were then piloted in order to allow the researcher to review interview questions and identify any novel issues arising in the interview sessions (Bryman, 2008; Johnson, 1992). Two pilot interview sessions took place involving two participants who were pursuing a master's degree in TESOL and Education at University of Canberra, Australia. Feedback pertinent to the improvement of the interview questions was generated from these participants. For example, it was suggested that prompts or background of a question be provided to assist prospective participants who might not be familiar with a certain topic. The participants of the pilot interview session also suggested that the language used in the interview be decided with the prospective participants. The

reason is because some participants might be comfortable having the interview conducted in English, while others might not. Revision of the questions was thus necessary in order to avoid ambiguity, obscurity, and impracticality.

A set of questions was then prepared and asked in each interview, but the wording was not verbatim, was quite often posed in code-switching (English and Indonesian), and was not necessarily in the exact order. This semi-structured nature of the interview allowed the researcher to have "the freedom to digress and probe for more information" (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 173). Clarification for unclear ideas and their relationships between one another took place in order to generate more meaningful and rich information. As a consequence, although a set of questions was prepared for each group of participants, the emergence of new themes throughout the data collection process was inevitable. Therefore, as issues emerged, questions were added in order to explore these issues in greater depth. This was in keeping with grounded theory research that acknowledges the emergence of themes as data were being collected (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

Interview questions posed to PSETs

The questions were focused on: 1) their needs in terms of knowledge and skills; 2) the extent to which their teacher education at both pre-service and in-service levels are adequate to prepare them to successfully teach English in primary schools; 3) the kinds of learning-teaching options that they think are useful to address their needs; 4) whether they view policy on language teacher education for PSETs as a necessity.

Interview questions posed to LTEs and MEBs

The questions were focused on: 1) the needs of teachers in terms of knowledge and skills; 2) the extent to which teacher education at both pre-service and in-service levels are adequate to prepare teachers to successfully teach English in primary schools; 3) the kinds of learning-teaching options that they think are useful to address the needs of teachers; 4) whether they view policy on language teacher education for teachers of English as a necessity.

Interview questions posed to PSPs and ECs

The questions were focused on: 1) the extent to which teacher education at both pre-service and in-service levels are adequate to prepare teachers to successfully teach English in primary schools; 2) whether they view policy on language teacher education for teachers of English as a necessity; 3) factors relevant to the development of the policy.

The list of questions posed to each group of participants is available in *Appendix 13: The Development of Interview Guide*. These questions are presented in the chapters on findings (5-9) to identify the relevant theme(s) being investigated. Since some questions were asked to different participants during the interviews, it was decided to place them in an order that ensures clarity. For example, the question: "Do you find pre-service education adequate to prepare teachers to teach English at primary level?", as shown in Appendix 13, is the twelfth question asked to primary school English teachers, the third posed to language teacher educators and members of educational boards, and the first posed to school principals and educational consultants. In Chapter 6 that discusses findings pertinent to pre-service teacher education for primary school English teachers this question appears as Question 6.0.1 (See Chapter 6).

The initial design of the study did not pose questions specific to the inclusion of culture in language teacher education policy. However, further review of the literature as shown in Chapter 1 and the findings generated in chapters 5, 6, 7, and 8 respectively highlight the inclusion of culture in order to prepare teachers of English at primary level. Discussion on the inclusion of culture is made in these chapters, where relevant. This is of particular importance to reflect the most current movement of Intercultural Language Teaching as advocated by scholars such as Corbett (2003), Crozet & Liddicoat (2000), and Crozet (2005) in order to draw conclusion and offer recommendations in Chapter 10.

Procedures of interviews

Each interview took place in the participants' school and university environment to ensure convenience. All interviews were digitally recorded because it is mandatory for all intents and purposes of the study in order to preserve the actual language and more naturalistic data, to allow the researcher to reuse the data in other ways, and to provide opportunities for reanalyzing the data that comes at a later stage (Bryman, 2008; Nunan, 1992). The language used in the interview was left entirely to the preference of the participants. Most participants chose to be interviewed in Indonesian and some of them code-switched from Indonesian to English or vice versa. Only LTE1 whose native language is English and LTE4 (native speaker of Indonesian) chose to be interviewed in English.

All interview sessions in this study were conducted face to face. One on one interview sessions took place with all LTEs, MEBs, PSPs, and ECs. Nominal group interviews involving more than one participant however took place with some, not all, PSETs. The employment of group interviews in this study was useful to maximize efficiency (Frey & Fontana, 1991), especially because two or three teachers were from the same schools (e.g. PSET 2 and PSET3 were from SD Frater Don Bosco Tomohon, North Sulawesi). Furthermore, nominal group interviews in this study were also useful because: 1) they allowed a greater depth of understanding about the educational contexts as well as the relationship between participants; and 2) they stimulated the shared opinions and experiences between participants (Frey & Fontana, 1993; King & Horrocks, 2010).

4.2.4 Classroom observations

Studies in language planning and policy and teacher education employed classroom observations mainly to investigate the impact and implementation of a language policy among language practitioners and to offer policy recommendations. For example, Olson (2007) documented teachers' beliefs about the impacts of state educational policies on primary language instruction, bilingual teachers, and their students. Reeves (2009) investigated the needs of teachers' linguistic knowledge for teaching in order to offer recommendations for ESOL teacher education.

The needs of the teachers as unravelled in this study were encapsulated in the form of proposals for enhancing the quality of teacher education programs for the teachers involved. The employment of observations in this study was to investigate the classroom behaviors of PSETs in order to identify their needs in terms of their teaching skills. This is necessary because identification of teaching behaviors and the meanings attached to those behaviors form indispensable data to unravel the needs of the teachers and to indicate suggestions about ways to attend to the needs (Freeman, 2009).

Structure of observations

Nunan (1992) identified four methods of recording teaching behaviors in classroom observations for research purposes, namely: 1) formal experiment; 2) stimulated recall; 3) interaction analysis; and 4) observation scheme. The observation scheme was chosen for the purpose of the study. Investigation of the teaching behaviors of the PSETs was the central aim of the observation with a particular emphasis on aspects such as teaching skills and communication skills. In order to yield manageable, comparable, and "descriptive data about what happens in the second language classroom" (Day, 1990, p. 44) these aspects were expanded into descriptors or categorization of teaching behaviours.

The most commonly observed teaching behaviors in research using classroom observations in foreign language settings were selected as descriptors (Chaudron, 1988; Nunan & Lamb, 1996). A list of observational behaviors was employed in the scheme to record naturally occurring data of teachers' classroom behaviors on specific aspects of teaching including: 1) Organizing classroom (e. g. group work, pair work); 2) Maintaining students' interest in learning; 3) Giving feedback and correcting error; 4) Integrating language skills; 5) Teachers' language proficiency; and 6) Using students' first language.

Information entered in the observation scheme consists of a description of these teaching behaviors including key words and verbatim quotes (See Appendix 12). Additional information relevant to the analysis of the study such as the coursebooks used and the

objectives of the lesson was also recorded. The employment of such reasonably structured observation scheme in this study allowed more focus given on certain teaching behaviors, to make link between various teaching behaviors, and to describe relevant and significant teaching behaviors occurring in the classroom within a limited time-frame (Richards & Farrell, 2005; Richards, 1998c).

Procedures of observations

The observation sessions took place once for each of the thirteen teachers participating in this study. The rationale for having one observation session with each teacher over a longitudinal study is threefold. First, a longitudinal study may be more suitable for an ethnographic study which draws close examination of the participants' attitudes or behaviors, but is not particularly appropriate to a policy-based study that investigates the needs of participants and offers recommendations on the basis of those needs (Bryman, 2008). Second, recurring observation sessions of a large number of teachers in many different areas were unmanageable given the time constraint. Third, the gaps that occur due to unobservable aspects that are hard to examine through a single observation may be filled by the employment of semi-structured interviews (Gerson & Horrowitz, 2002). The validity of the research is therefore within reach when the findings from interviews corroborate the findings from the observations and are complementary to one another.

The observation sessions were conducted in three stages as suggested by Richards (1998c): 1) Pre-observation; 2) The Actual Observation; and 3) Post-Observation.

Pre-observation sessions approximately lasted for 10 (ten) minutes and were used to obtain information on the objectives of the lesson, the material(s) used, and the topic(s) being covered. The session was also used to describe the nature of the study, address ethical issues, and ask participants to sign a consent letter to declare their willingness to participate in the study.

The actual observation sessions lasted between 1-2 lessons (1 lesson= 35 minutes). Lower level classes such as Year 1-3 were observed for 35 minutes, whereas higher level classes were observed for 70 minutes. Bryman (2008) identified four types of observations including participant observation, non-participant observation, unstructured observation, and simple observation. This study employed a non-participant observation because the involvement of the researcher in the situation and with the subject(s) being observed was not intended. In the words of Gebhard (1999b, p. 38), the researcher "joins the class, but has no plan to take on roles outside that of observer." Thus, during the observations contact with both students and teacher was maintained to a minimum.

Post-observation was scheduled as an interview with the teacher who had been observed. If there were more than one teacher in the school (PSET2 + PSET3 in SD Don Bosco Tomohon; PSET4 + PSET5 + PSET6 in SD Muhammadiyah 2 Denpasar; PSET7 + PSET8 in SD Gemim Rurukan; and PSET11 + PSET12 in SDNP 2 Malang), the nominal group interviews were held after all the teachers in the school had finished teaching. When the time permitted, teachers also used the post-observation session to discuss the lesson with the researcher; they often posed questions in relation to useful teaching techniques in English language teaching.

4.3 Data analysis

This section presents the approach employed for analysis of data generated from research instruments: the interviews and classroom observations. This study employed three elements of data analysis and interpretation for the analysis of results of both data from interviews and observations, namely: 1) *stance;* 2) *process;* and 3) *categories* as suggested by Freeman (1996c).

Stance is the attitude that a researcher adopts towards the participants when analyzing data (Freeman, 1996c), which can be either *participatory* or *declarative*. Whereas *participatory stance* allows the inclusion of participants as a co-analyst of the data, a *declarative stance* provides more freedom to researchers to handle the analysis without

input given by the participants. This study employed a *declarative stance* instead of *participatory* one because no further input or intervention was sought from the participants on the research outcomes whatsoever.

Process refers to "the way in which the data analysis unfolds throughout the research process" (Freeman, 1996c, p. 371). In analyzing the data, a researcher can go about in a *linear* way when they progressively break down the data and continue with analyzing them before arriving at findings. A researcher can also treat the data in an *iterative* fashion when they break the data down, assemble meanings based on the data, and then keep returning to those meanings for verification and interpretation of findings. This study employed a mix of the two forms of *processes* because the data were initially categorized before being analyzed. Often the data were also revisited in order to constantly reinterpret, redefine, supplement, or revoke the available categories as well as to establish linkages between them.

The choice of the *categories* determines both the stance and process in the data analysis. The literature on data analysis in qualitative research commonly distinguishes between two types of categories: 1) *a priori*; and 2) *grounded* (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Strauss, 1987). Whereas *a priori categories* are used as a framework to organize and classify data so that findings emerging from the study are treated respective to the predetermined categories, *grounded categories* are developed from the data. Hence, the categories are grounded in the data themselves as the researcher restrains themselves from making prior assumptions about what may be significant data emerging from the study. Both *a priori* and *grounded categories* were employed in this study when analyzing the data emerging from the interviews and classroom observations.

4.3.1 Interviews

The analysis of the interviews was conducted in several stages. First and foremost, the data collected was transcribed in full using a transcription convention outlined by Roulston (2010) (see Appendix 8). Relevant excerpts from interviews conducted in English

(e.g. LTE1 and LTE4) were quoted verbatim in the thesis for the purpose of the discussion of the study. On the other hand, relevant excerpts from interviews conducted in Indonesian language were highlighted and translated into English before being quoted in the thesis. In each of the interview transcriptions, information with personal identification was removed and was replaced by acronyms. This means participants in the interviews are referred to by letters according to the type of group they belong to + a number, e.g. PSET1 = interview of Primary School English Teacher no. 1. Quotations of lines from interviews are cited with a dot point and number of lines, e.g.:

- *259 : After teaching here... (PSET9)*

Quotations in Indonesian were initially translated into English. In the thesis these quotations are shown in normal print, whereas quoted interview responses that took place in English are shown in italic.

The transcription of each interview was read meticulously several times in search for answers to the prepared questions. This means that in order to find relevant and significant data in unexpected places, answers to a particular question were searched throughout the transcript rather than in the direct answers to a particular question. This is particularly important especially because of the digressive character of responses provided by participants during interviews. In doing so, *initial codes* were identified in a transcription excerpt by selecting appropriate key words and associates to "open up data" (Birks & Mills, 2011, p. 95). These initial codes were then classified under broader conceptual categories in order to facilitate theoretical development in a process called *focused coding* (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996). The *focused coding* commenced as the *initial coding* progressed when certain *sub-categories* became identifiable within the data.

These sub-categories housed the existing and emerging *initial codes*. They were then put under scrutiny during the process of *theoretical coding* in order to identify *core categories* (Dey, 2004) that were central to the phenomenon of language teacher education policy for primary school English teachers in Indonesia. In an attempt to connect categories and to reveal supporting and challenging evidence between the categories, *memos* were

written out. *Memos* have the function "to report data, tie different pieces of data together in a cluster" and "show that a particular piece of data is an instance of a general concept" (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 69). A detailed example of the coding process that shows a direct link between the raw data and final conceptual categories is available in Appendix 14.

A Computer-Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) package, NViVo9, was used to facilitate managing and analyzing the data. The use of CAQDAS in this study was significant because it is a useful tool to provide an effective system of storing, locating, and accessing large amounts of data (Creswell, 1998). In this study NViVo9 was used to adapt codes and categories and to facilitate data display, so that transcripts, codes, and memos could be accessed simultaneously. Initially the transcription of each interview was entered into NViVo9 and key words were selected to identify patterns of responses given by each group of participants. Constant comparisons of responses between one group of participants and another were viable through this process. This is followed by comparing the results generated from NViVo9 with the results generated from thorough readings.

Initial codes and focused codes emerging in each sub-category generated from NViVo9 were mainly used to supplement and corroborate data from thorough readings of transcripts of interviews and fieldnotes from observation sheet. Such constant comparative analysis was significant to drive theoretical sampling and the ongoing generation of data (Birks & Mills, 2011). NViVo9 was used in this study only to facilitate the analysis and was not the substitute for the hefty intellectual process required for in-depth data analysis.

The process of categorization was demanding. Not all coded data were used in the theoretical development, and certain codes unfitting into the emerging conceptual categories were removed from the analysis. On the contrary, when a large number of important codes emerged did not comfortably fit into the proposed categories the categorization structure of the study was reconsidered. As a consequence, initial codes

were revisited and all categories were reexamined to ensure whether these categories were appropriate and relevant. This process was very time consuming and intellectually challenging, but ultimately benefitted the overall analysis of the study (Creswell, 1998).

After that several new categories were introduced, others eliminated, and others merged or renamed, in a process called *focused coding*. This process was necessary to ensure the relevance of all codes to the purpose and structure of the study. This process generated conceptual categories to encapsulate existing and emerging initial codes, produced 56 sub-categories (See Appendix 15). These sub-categories were then presented in tables to provide visual overview of sections of the data that includes both the codes pertaining to the categories as well as their frequency of references. In a process called *theoretical coding*, these sub-categories were subsequently structured into six *core categories* that create the structure for the five chapters of research findings that follow this present chapter. These *core categories* are:

-The profiles of teachers (Chapter 5)

-The needs of teachers (Chapter 5)

-Pre-service education for PSETs (Chapter 6)

-In-service education for PSETs (Chapter 7)

-Learning-teaching options in language teacher education for PSETs (Chapter 8)

-The need for policy on language teacher education for PSETs (Chapter 9)

4.3.2 Classroom observations

Several stages were employed when analyzing the data from classroom observations. First, information relevant to the practices of teachers on particular teaching behaviors was entered into the observation scheme (See Appendix 12). The scheme was used to outline a set of *a priori categories* on teaching behaviors such as classroom organization, language skill integration, and teachers' use of students' first language. After numerous readings of fieldnotes from classroom observation, connections between the categories were then established through the writing of *memos* to obtain supporting and challenging evidence between categories (Bryman, 2008).

Parallel analysis was made to compare data that yielded from the classroom observations on the pedagogical practices of teachers and the responses of the participants in the interviews. Triangulating the analysis of the data related to the practice of teachers on observable teaching behaviors was useful to depict possible discrepancies between teachers' views on their practices as opposed to their actual pedagogical practices. Furthermore, it also helped reduce possible bias resulting from the interpretation of results when using only a single research instrument (Johnstone, 2000).

4.4 Organization of findings

The findings of the study are presented in a way that establishes coherence and cohesion within the thesis. Chapter 5 discusses findings emerging from the responses of teachers to questions 1 to 11 and the responses of teacher educators and members of educational board to questions 1 and 2; focusing on the profile of teachers and the needs of teachers in terms of skills and knowledge. Chapter 6 discusses the responses of teachers to questions 12 and 13, the responses of teacher educators and members of educational board to questions 3 and 4, and the responses of school principals and educational consultants to questions 1 and 2; focusing on the delivery of pre-service teacher education to prepare English teachers at primary level and suggestions for improvement. Chapter 7 discusses the responses of teachers to questions 14 and 15, the responses of teacher educators and members of educational board to questions 5 and 6, and the responses of school principals and educational consultants to questions 3 and 4; focusing on the delivery of in-service teacher education to prepare English teachers at primary level and suggestions for improvement.

Chapter 8 discusses the responses of teachers to question 16 and the responses of teacher educators and members of educational board to question 7; focusing on the design of learning-teaching options on teacher education for primary school English teachers. Chapter 9 discusses the responses of teachers to questions 17 and 18, the responses of

teacher educators and members of educational board to questions 8 and 9, and the responses of school principals and educational consultants to questions 5 to 8; focusing on the policy on teacher education for primary school English teachers (See Appendix 13). All the findings presented and discussed in these chapters are taken into account for creating policy recommendations on teacher education for primary school English teachers in Indonesia that appear in Chapter 10.

The findings are primarily structured and integrated in a discussion on the interface between views and perspectives of participants against relevant theories, studies on policy on teacher education, and the context of policies on teacher education and primary school English teaching in Indonesia. In other words, cross referencing between different sets of findings was established to ensure the coherence and substantiation of the argument occurring from Chapters 5 - 9 and between the review of literature set out in Chapter 1, review of the need for a case study on policy on teacher education for teachers of English at primary level in Indonesia outlined in Chapter 2, and the context of primary school English teaching and policies related to teachers and teacher education discussed in Chapter 3.

4.5 Summary

This chapter has provided explanations for the research methodology selected for answering the research questions. First, the chapter has discussed issues relevant to the subjects of the study, namely the kind of sample used for the study, descriptions of the participants, and the selection and recruitment of participants. It has also provided information on data collection including research ethics, data triangulation, as well as the use of research instruments in this study (interviews and classroom observations). Finally, the approach employed for analyzing data gathered from both research instruments has been discussed in the chapter, while the organization of findings has also been outlined.

The following chapter presents and discusses the first set of results from the study on the profiles of teachers participating in the study. It also examines the needs of the teachers into the two broad categories of skills and knowledge.

Chapter 5

The Profile and Needs of Teachers in terms of Knowledge and Skills

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents and discusses findings from two sources of data: semi-structured interviews and classroom observations to examine the needs of teachers in terms of knowledge and skills. The primary data was obtained from the responses generated from interviews involving Primary School English Teachers (PSETs), Language Teacher Educators (LTEs), and Members of Educational Board (MEBs) in response to the following set of questions:

A. <u>Questions asked to PSETs:</u>

1. Did you have any difficulties in organizing your classroom? (e.g. individual work, role play, group work)
2. Did you have any difficulties in maintaining students' interests in learning?
3. Did you have any difficulties in giving feedback and correcting error?
4. Did you have any difficulties in integrating language skills?
5. Did you have any difficulties in lesson planning?
6. Did you have any difficulties in selecting and adapting materials from coursebooks?
7. Did you have any difficulties in dealing with different ranges of students?
8. Do you think you still need to improve your English proficiency? If so, which skills and why?
9. Did you use students' first language when teaching? Why?
10. Which areas of knowledge in language teaching do you need to improve? Why?
11. Have you undertaken any kind of teacher education program <u>before</u> teaching English in primary schools? If so, what was it?

B. <u>Questions asked to LTEs & MEBs</u>

1. What are the needs of primary school English teachers in terms of skills? What are they lacking?
2. What are the needs of primary school English teachers in terms of knowledge? What are they lacking?

The data focuses on the responses of PSETs that was compared to perceptions and views of LTEs and MEBs. Additional responses from other group of participants such as Primary School Principals (PSPs) and Educational Consultants (ECs) were also compared provided their relevance to the discussion of the data.

Supplementary data was collected during classroom observation (fieldnotes). The results generated from the interviews were employed in all sections of this chapter, while data generated from observation was primarily used to corroborate, complete, and if necessary challenge evidence generated from interviews in discussing the skills of teachers. Findings relevant to teachers' educational, occupational, and linguistic backgrounds were considered for analysis in an order that is aimed at providing coherent reflection on the results of this chapter. Although posed later during the interview, the responses to question 11 posed to teachers: "*Have you undertaken any kind of teacher education program before teaching English in primary schools? If so, what was it?"* were brought forward, because they are relevant to the discussion of findings concerning the profile of teachers.

The findings of the study in this chapter are presented and discussed under the following mix of a priori and grounded categories:

1. The profile of teachers
2. The needs of teachers in terms of skills
3. The needs of teachers in terms of knowledge

5.1 The profile of teachers

Data on the 13 PSETs such as background in English, educational qualifications, career span as teachers of English, first language (linguistic background), status of employment, and position in the school was either given prior to the study or was extracted during the interview sessions following question 11 posed to teachers: *Have you undertaken any kind of teacher education program before teaching English in primary schools? If so, what was it?* The data are divided into two sections: 1) Teachers' educational background; and 2) Teachers' occupational and linguistic backgrounds.

5.1.1 Teachers' educational background

Participants' responses differed from responses expected and provided highly relevant data to the topic of inquiry. In this study participants provided commentary that establishes the profile of English teachers at primary level in Indonesia. Teachers' data on their educational background includes information pertinent to their prior education at pre-service level and whether or not they undertook EYL (English for Young Learners) during their pre-service teacher education. This is a grounded category that is pertinent to the discussion of the study (See Table 5.1 overleaf).

The data demonstrates that the bulk of English teaching force at primary level in Indonesia is diverse. Teachers can be divided on the basis of whether or not they have a background in English during their pre-service education, since some "have no English" while others "have English" (LTE3: 17-18). This is parallel to the contention made in Section 3.3.1 that divides teachers in terms of their educational background.

Out of 13 teachers, four (PSET7, PSET8, PSET2, and PSET3) did not have a background in English education. The rest of the teachers (PSET4, PSET5, PSET6, PSET9, PSET10, PSET11, PSET12, and PSET) had all completed an undergraduate degree in a major related to English.

Table 5.1 Teachers' educational background				
Types of teachers	**Tea-chers**	**Pre-service education**		**School**
		Degree	EYL	
Teachers without English Background	PSET2	B.A. in French from Manado State University	No	SDN Frater Don Bosco, Tomohon, North Sulawesi
	PSET3	B.A. in Physics from Manado State University	No	SDN Frater Don Bosco, Tomohon, North Sulawesi
	PSET7	SPG (Sekolah Pendidikan Guru/ School for Teacher Education)	No	SDN GEMIM Rurukan 7, North Sulawesi
	PSET8	PGSD from Manado State University	No	SDN GEMIM Rurukan 7, North Sulawesi
Teachers with English Background	PSET1	Diploma 3 in English from Kertanegara Academy	Yes	SDN Jagakarsa 10 Jakarta, DKI Jakarta
	PSET4	B.A. in English Language & Literature and Certificate IV in Education	No	SD Muhammadiyah 2, Denpasar, Bali
	PSET5	B.Ed. in English Education	No	SD Muhammadiyah 2, Denpasar, Bali
	PSET6	B.Ed. in English Education	No	SD Muhammadiyah 2, Denpasar, Bali
	PSET9	B.Ed. in English Education from Mataram University	No	SDN 4 Praya, Lombok, West Nusa Tenggara
	PSET10	B.Ed. in English Education from Galuh University	Yes	SDN Rempoa 2, Tangerang, Banten
	PSET11	B.Ed. in English Education from State University of Malang	Yes	SDNP Malang 2, Malang City, East Java
	PSET12	Diploma 3 in Business English and B.Ed. in English education in State University of Malang	Yes	SDNP Malang 2, Malang City, East Java
	PSET13	B.Ed. in English Education from Pancasakti University	Yes	SDN Tegalandong 2, Tegal Regent, Central Java

Teachers without an English Background

Evidence in this study maintains a similar distinction made by Suyanto (2010) and Zein (2011) that teachers of English at primary level who are not graduates of any English programs can further be categorized into two groups: 1) those who graduate from a major

aimed at primary schooling education; and 2) those who graduate with an undergraduate degree other than English. The following discusses these two groups of teachers.

At the time of data collection, two teachers, namely PSET7 and PSET8, did not have a degree related to English. Whereas the former completed SPG (*Sekolah Pendidikan Guru*/ School for Teacher Education), the latter completed an undergraduate degree in PGSD (*Pendidikan Guru Sekolah Dasar*/Primary School Teacher Education). These classroom teachers were appointed to teach English. Both PSET7 and PSET8 were "prepared to become classroom teachers" (LTE3: 15-16), and their teacher education equipped them with specific knowledge and skills pertaining to their occupational needs, that is, teaching subjects such as Civic Education, Indonesian language, Mathematics, and Social Science to primary school children (PGSD FKIP UNNES, 2011). It is of no surprise that teachers of this group did not undertake extensive tuition in English during their pre-service education. Out of the two teachers, only PSET8 attended a unit called *English for University Students* with 2 credit points.

The findings of the study provide evidence for the contention made in Chapter 3 that strong demands of society were the major factor for the employment of these teachers. Both PSET12 and EC1 illustrated the situation:

- 552 : ... So schools, schools usually do it on their own. They're looking for
  553 : their own teachers. Then, unfortunately there are teachers who are appointed
  554 : in different schools, but not on their subject of expertise. So they have no
  555 : English background, but they are asked to teach English. (PSET12)
- 26 : ... the fact is in primary schools
  27 : some teach English just because they want to elevate the prestige
  28 : of their school without necessarily considering their potential. As consequence,
  29 : their school principal all of a sudden could appoint someone to become
  30 : an English teacher. Or if there is someone with some English and is considered
  31 : good, then they are appointed to teach English, even though
  32 : everyone knows that they are not qualified (EC1)

Two teachers who did not have a degree related to primary schooling education or English were PSET2 and PSET3. PSET2 who held a bachelor degree in French and PSET3 who graduated from an undergraduate degree in Physics were asked to teach in SDN Don Bosco Tomohon because the school did not have qualified English teachers. Both teachers accepted the appointment primarily due to their passion for English. This is in line with the following commentary:

- 31 : THE OTHERS, the ones we found hundreds of them, in
  32 : East Java or outside Java (.) are those who love teaching English language. They
  33 : have an undergraduate degree in Biology, [Indonesian language], the bottom line is… (LTE3)
  34 : [I found one] with an undergraduate in French [R]
  35 : Yes, French, the bottom line is they have undergraduate degree and they
  36 : love teaching English (LTE3)

This clearly shows that passion for English is another factor for teachers embarking on English language teaching profession. The alignment between their passion for the language and the needs of the school for English teachers results in PSET2 and PSET3's part-time employment in the school.

Teachers with an English background

Out of the thirteen teachers participating in the study, nine teachers undertook a major in English during their pre-service teacher education. Although the number makes up a majority in this study, it is unrealistic to assume that this number represents the entire population of English teachers in Indonesia. The fact is that there has been bigger demand than supply when it comes to teachers with an English background because, according to PSP1, "teachers who graduate from English major are exceptionally few" (PSP1: 280-281). This provides evidence for previous research that demonstrates teachers with no English background form the majority of the teaching force in primary English education, covering a wide range of areas including Bandung (Nizar, 2004), DKI Jakarta (Suyanto & Chodidjah, 2002), Medan (Ernidawati, 2002), Malang (Rohmah, 1996), Sidoarjo (Susanto, 1998), and Blitar (Agustina, et al., 1997).

The findings of this study show that this cluster of teachers can be categorised into three different groups: 1) Those who graduated from English Study Program (PSET4); 2) Those who graduated from English Education Program without EYL (PSET5, PSET6, PSET9, PSET10); and 3) Those who graduated from English Education Program with EYL (PSET1, PSET11, PSET12, PSET13).

Of these nine teachers, only one teacher completed an undergraduate degree in English Study Program (PSET4 who graduated from "English Language and Literature" (PSET4: 569). As a graduate of English Study Program, she undertook units related to English skills such as *Literal Listening, Interpretive Listening, Speaking for Group Activities, Speaking for Formal Setting, Literal Reading, Critical Reading,* and *Argumentative Writing* but did not undertake units related to English pedagogy apart from *Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)* (Universitas Negeri Malang, 2011b; Saukah, 2009).

Four teachers (PSET5, PSET6, PSET9, and PSET10) completed their undergraduate in English Education but did not undertake English for Young Learners (EYL) during their pre-service education. LTE3 defined this group of teachers as graduates of English Language Education Program "who undertake TEFL but have never undertaken a unit called English for Young Learners" (LTE3: 26-27). PSET5, PSET6, PSET10, and PSET9 are members of this group. Throughout their pre-service education, this group of teachers were prepared with units such as *Literal Listening, Interpretive Listening, Speaking for Group Activities, Speaking for Formal Setting*, *Semantics, Syntax, and English Grammar* (Universitas Negeri Malang, 2011a). They were also prepared with knowledge and skills related to curriculum, syllabus, language testing and assessment, teaching methodologies, teaching skills, materials development, among others. However, they were not familiar with various topics and issues related to English and young learner pedagogy because they did not undertake EYL.

PSET1, PSET11, PSET12, and PSET13 all completed their undergraduate degree in English education with EYL. These teachers graduated "from English Education with EYL" (LTE3:

30-31). They were prepared with appropriate training in improving their pedagogy and knowledge of English such as *Semantics, Syntax, English Grammar, Morphology,* and *Phonology* as well as various units aimed to improve their language proficiency such as *Literal Listening, Interpretive Listening, Speaking for Group Activities,* and *Speaking for Formal Setting* throughout their pre-service education (Universitas Negeri Malang, 2011a). What makes this group of teachers distinctive is the fact that they were equipped with knowledge and skills related to teaching English to primary school children because they undertook EYL. These include knowledge of children's language acquisition, psychological development of children, and young learners' learning strategy (Saukah, 2009).

5.1.2 Teachers' professional and linguistic backgrounds

Data on teachers' professional and linguistic backgrounds consists of a variety of relevant information on their position, length of experience as a teacher, their responsibility as a classroom teacher, their employment status, and the languages they speak other than English.

Table 5.2 overleaf shows that teachers are also diverse in terms of their professional and linguistic backgrounds. First of all, the majority of the teachers (PSET1, PSET2, PSET3, PSET4, PSET5, PSET6, PSET10, PSET11, PSET12, and PSET13) undertook part-time employment. Part-time employment is synonymous with being a non-civil servant teacher; none of these part-time teachers were civil servants. On the contrary, three full-time teachers (PSET7, PSET8, and PSET9) had been appointed civil servants long before they were appointed to teach English.

Full-time employment is synonymous with being a classroom teacher. When the data collection took place, two full-time teachers (PSET7 and PSET8) were classroom teachers who taught English and other subjects. An exception is PSET9 who was a full-time civil servant teacher but was not a classroom teacher. He was initially a classroom teacher from 1993 to 2008 before "finally being appointed English teacher two years earlier"

(PSET9: 257). On the other hand, part-time teachers were non-classroom teachers. PSET2, PSET3, PSET4, PSET5, PSET6, PSET10, PSET11, PSET12, PSET13 only taught English; they were responsible to teach English to students across levels, ranging from Year 1 to Year 6.

Table 5.2 Teachers' occupational and linguistic backgrounds

Status of teachers	Teachers	Position	Years of experience*	Language(s)
Civil Servants	PSET7	Full-time	38: Subjects, 1: English	Minahasa, Indonesian
	PSET8	Full-time	22: Subjects, 1: English	Minahasa, Indonesian
	PSET9	Full-time	18: Subjects, 2: English	Lombok, Indonesian
Non Civil Servants	PSET1	Part-time	1	Indonesian, Betawi
	PSET2	Part-time	2	Minahasa, Indonesian
	PSET3	Part-time	1	Minahasa, Indonesian
	PSET4	Part-time	1.5	Javanese, Indonesian, Madurese
	PSET5	Part-time	10	Javanese, Indonesian
	PSET6	Part-time	11: English, 5: Social Science	Madurese, Javanese, Indonesian
	PSET10	Part-time	2	Sundanese, Indonesian
	PSET11	Part-time	7	Javanese, Indonesian
	PSET12	Part-time	5	Javanese, Indonesian
	PSET13	Part-time	8	Javanese, Indonesian

*Note: Unless otherwise stated, 'experience' refers to the length of experience in teaching English. Some teachers used to teach other subjects such as Indonesian language, Math, and others (marked with Subjects) and also teach English. PSET9, for example, had been teaching various subjects for 18 years and English for 2 years.

The findings of the study show that the teachers' experience ranges from 1 to 38 years. At the time of data collection, more than a third of the teacher population had less than 5 years of teaching experience, from 1 to 2.5 years. This includes PSET2, PSET3, PSET4, PSET10, and PSET1. Seven other teachers (PSET11, PSET12, PSET13, PSET6, PSET5, PSET9,

and PSET8) had between 7-15 years of teaching experience. Two teachers had more than 20 years of teaching experience: PSET7 and PSET8. PSET8 had 22 years of teaching experience, while PSET7 had 38 years of teaching experience including one year of teaching English.

In terms of linguistic background, two teachers (PSET4 and PSET6) in this study spoke three languages, whereas the other twelve teachers spoke two languages in addition to English. All teachers spoke Indonesian (Bahasa Indonesia), which is the official language in the country, and at least one local language. Javanese was spoken by the majority of teachers, namely PSET4, PSET5, PSET10, PSET11, PSET12, and PSET13. This is followed by Minahasa, which was spoken by PSET2, PSET3, PSET7, and PSET8. Four other local languages: Betawi, Sundanese, Lombok, and Madurese were spoken by PSET1, PSET4, PSET9, and PSET6 respectively.

The findings in this section demonstrate that teachers of English at primary level are diverse in terms of educational, linguistics, and occupational backgrounds. Some teachers had a background in pre-service English education, some did not; and all were either bilinguals or multilinguals. The majority of the teachers were not classroom teachers and were not civil servant teachers. The data in this profile of teachers are highly relevant to policymaking on teacher education as suggested in Song & Cheng's (2011) study that the development of teacher education programs that cater for the needs of a specific group of teachers requires ample data on the backgrounds of the teachers.

While identification of the profile of teachers has been justified above, it is now necessary to provide a rationale for analysing the needs of teachers in teacher education. LTE2 stated that "we need to assist them (teachers) so they don't see this training as an academic exercise. But this is for really functional purposes, functional skills, to back up, to perfect their teaching-learning processes. So for this reason, we start from the bottom, from identification of needs, from the bottom." (LTE2: 267-271). This view was confirmed by MEB1 who asserted "those who give the training must be able to analyze the needs of

the teachers, what the needs of the teachers are, their interests, their habits, their preferences" (MEB1: 361-363). When a training program is held by a government-based training institution, this means "the institution needs to have a needs analysis of teachers" (MEB1: 326) to ensure the creation of informed decisions with regard to the design of the training program. The subsequent sections (5.2 & 5.3) discuss the needs of teachers of English at primary level in Indonesia in terms of skills and knowledge.

5. 2 The needs of teachers in terms of skills

This section presents and discusses the responses of participants on the skills of teachers. The data generated were primarily based on Questions 1 - 9 that were posed to teachers as presented in the beginning of the chapter. The responses were compared to data from interviews with teacher educators and members of educational boards in response to "*What are the needs of primary school English teachers in terms of their skills? What are they lacking?"* Furthermore, the data generated from classroom observations was used to corroborate, illustrate, and where necessary challenge the previously obtained data from the interviews with teachers, teacher educators, and members of educational boards. Specific aspects of teaching in which the data were compared include: 1) Classroom Organization; 2) Maintaining students' interest in learning; 3) Giving feedback and correcting error; 4) Integrating language skills; 5) Teachers' language proficiency; 6) Using students' first language.

This section is presented as follows: 1) Classroom organization; 2) Maintaining students' interests in learning; 3) Giving feedback and correcting error; 4) Integrating language skills; 5) Lesson planning; 6) Material selection and adaptation; 7) Dealing with a wide range of students; 8) Teachers' language proficiency; 9) The use of students' first language.

5.2.1 Classroom organization

This sub-section presents and discusses data generated from: 1) PSETs' responses to question*: Did you have any difficulties in organizing the classroom so students could work in groups or pairs?;* and 2) Data from classroom observation sheets on *Classroom organization.*

The finding of the study shows that ten out of thirteen teachers had difficulties in organizing the classroom to assign students to do group work. These include PSET1, PSET2, PSET3, PSET5, PSET6, PSET7, PSET8, PSET9, PSET10, and PSET13. These teachers found teaching more than 40 students in a single classroom all seated in orderly rows overwhelming. The difficulties were however not necessarily a competence issue, but were caused by various problems such as a large number of students, unconducive seating arrangement, and limited time.

For PSET1, having "a class with 48 or 40 students is too big and not effective for the teachers to teach" (PSET1: 15) because "ideally" the classroom should consist of "10-20 students" (PSET1: 16). PSET3 stated that it was difficult for him to organize the students to do group work because "students often used group-work as an opportunity to be noisy and disrupt other students" (PSET3: 13). Teachers also found it "very difficult to handle the students because there is no shadow teacher or assistant" (PSET10: 13-14) who could help them attend to the individual needs of the students.

This situation is deteriorated by the fact that the seating arrangement of the classroom is not conducive. Students who work in four rows, each desk with two chairs, cannot be moved around easily. PSET13 stated that:

- 33 : If we are going to ask them to work in groups, I mean large groups, it's going to be very
  34 : difficult because this means we have to change the seating arrangement. The difficult thing is
  35 : because the students sit in rows which makes it difficult to move them around. (PSET13)

For PSET13 and PSET1, seating alteration is time consuming; spending approximately 5-10 minutes out of the 35 minutes of the lesson available is imprudent. The available "time is

very limited to organize group work" (PSET1: 39-40). It seemed that time was a constraint that inhibited them from doing so. This was confirmed by PSET9 who stated that organizing students into various grouping activities "takes quite some time" (PSET9: 23). It is of no surprise that PSET1 and PSET13 as well as the other teachers opted to using the time for something else and thus keep the seating arrangement the way it is. As a consequence they rarely assigned students to work in groups; they tended to assign students to work in pairs or individually.

The data from observations confirms this finding. The ten teachers who found organizing the classroom challenging conducted most of their activities either chorally or individually. Teachers mainly gave explanation and instructions and told the students what to do as a whole class. Teachers like PSET7, PSET8, and PSET13 asked the whole class to verbally repeat sentences written on the board to practice their pronunciation. On the other hand, teachers like PSET1, PSET 5, PSET8, and PSET6 assigned individual tasks to their students. For example, PSET5 asked her students to copy sentences on the board, whereas PSET8 asked her students to individually answer comprehension questions in the coursebook. Although PSET3, PSET6, and PSET13 stated that pair work is more favorable than group work, none of them conducted pair work activities.

A contrasting situation was however found in the cases of PSET4, PSET11 and PSET12. PSET11 stated that organizing classroom into different patterns was "not difficult" (PSET11: 13). Data from observation sheets shows that she only had 25 students in the classroom who were sitting on individual desks. She could ask them to move around to work in groups anytime she wanted to. The same case applies to PSET11 and PSET4 who had approximately 20 students each. PSET4 organized her classroom into groups, each consisting of five students. They were asked to work collaboratively as a group to match the words and the pictures of toys. She also assigned her students individually when she asked each of them questions such as *"Do you have a toy?", "What kind of toy?", etc.*

It is clear from these findings that the size of the classroom affected teachers in the way they employed different kinds of organizational patterns in their classroom. Teachers with a large number of students (more than 40) had difficulties with assigning students to work in groups because of the unconducive seating arrangement as well as the large number of students they had to deal with. This provides evidence for the contention made by Hess (2001) who argued that teaching large classes is the least favorite thing for teachers. On the contrary, teachers who had fewer students (20-25) found it easier to organize their classroom activities into group or pair work, depending on the particular tasks they were working on. It is of no surprise that Madya (2003) highlighted the necessity to create standards for the implementation of English as a foreign language education in Indonesia. She argued that English classrooms in Indonesia should consist of no more than 20 (twenty) students to enable effective classrooms. This argument is reasonably grounded, given the discussion above.

5.2.2 Maintaining students' interest in learning

This sub-section presents and discusses data generated from: 1) PSETs' responses to question*: Did you have any difficulties in maintaining students' interest in learning?;* 2) The responses of LTEs and MEBs to questions: *What are the needs of primary school English teachers in terms of their skills? What are they lacking?;* and 3) Data from classroom observation sheets on *Maintaining students' interest in learning.*

Evidence drawn from this study reveals that the majority of the teachers (11 out of 13) found maintaining students' interest in learning a difficult task. For example, PSET7 stated that "when it comes to maintaining students' interest" she thought she has "some difficulties" (PSET7: 84). Whereas older learners exhibit noticeable superiority to persevere with something of lacking immediate intrinsic interest, children find such task difficult because they tend to lose their interest when classroom activities are monotonous. Teachers often find maintaining young learners' motivation demanding

because they are more susceptible to external influences that may immediately arouse or detriment their interest (Ur, 1996).

This explains why teachers found it more demanding when they had to teach students at lower levels. As highlighted by PSET1, PSET2, PSET10, and PSET7, students at grade 1, 2, and 3 are somewhat more emotionally dependent than those in grade 4, 5, and 6. PSET1 stated that "lower level students at grade 1, 2, and 3, they are more difficult to handle than grade 4, 5, and 6" (PSET1: 58). A teacher who teaches at lower levels is expected to provide emotionally supportive learning environment in the absence of parents in the classroom (Piaget, 1967). Maintaining the interest of the students at these levels requires teachers to provide emotionally supportive learning environment. Teachers often spend unlimited and unplanned time to discipline students or console a student who cries after being annoyed by her peers. This was evident in the case of PSET10 whose female student was crying after a male student teased her. The lesson was postponed for a couple of minutes because she had to console the student. As the student did not stop sobbing, PSET10 took her outside to seek consolation from her mother who was waiting outside class before continuing the lesson.

Teachers also suggested that while providing an emotionally supportive learning environment is important, creating a fun and engaging learning environment is no less significant. PSET2 suggested that it is necessary to "use different approaches" when dealing with different level of students so they would enjoy the lesson (PSET2: 108). She stated that she used "lots of playing-learning" and "games" when teaching students in grade 1 and 2, but provided more "serious activities" when teaching students in grade 3 and 4 (PSET2: 110).

Other teachers such as PSET1, PSET4, PSET5, PSET6, PSET9, PSET10, PSET11, PSET12, and PSET13 also suggested the importance of having fun learning when teaching young learners through the use of games, music, pictures, etc. Making learning a fun activity was perceived as important to maintain students' interest. Contemporary scholars in language

teaching methodology argued that a lot of thought to the intrinsic interest value of learning activities for younger learners needs to be devoted in order to design interesting materials and enjoyable lessons (Harmer, 2000, 2007; Ur, 1996; Hedge, 2000). Since children spend hours being absorbed in lesson activities that arouse their curiosity and interests, teachers' creativity and innovations are indispensable for designing interesting learning materials and engaging lessons.

PSET5, PSET6, PSET13, and PSET9 were not satisfied with their creativity to maintain students' interests. Most of their teaching activities were a result of their own autodidact learning while on the job, rather than something that they had learned during their pre-service education. Due to these limitations, they felt that they needed to improve their "skills in maintaining the interest of the students" (PSET5: 79) and to "have variation in learning that keeps students interested" (PSET6: 88-89).

Teachers' confession is in accordance with the data generated from interviews involving language teacher educators and members of educational board. Creativity was a character that most teachers were considered lacking, as they were accustomed to applying rote learning when teaching. LTE3 stated that it is unfortunate that effective English lessons in primary school are a rarity because teachers are not "creative" nor they "like to joke with students and sing with them" (LTE3: 51). This has resulted in the occurrence of a phenomenon in which students are bored or even "afraid of English language" (LTE3: 52).

The findings thus demonstrate conflicting situations between the ideal and reality. Teachers seemed to have known the importance of creating a fun atmosphere when teaching English to young learners, but were unable to adequately accomplish the task.

Not all teachers however found maintaining students' interest an issue; PSET11 and PSET12 did not find it difficult. When asked whether maintaining students' interests was a challenging task for her, PSET11 stated:

- 58 : I don't think so. Hehehe. (PSET11)

  59 : You found it easy? (R)

60 : Yes, easy. For example, if we tell them to watch a movie

61 : they are very happy, and games as well. They are very happy if we do that. (PSET11)

Data from observation of PSET11's teaching procedures also confirms her claim. She seemed to be able to deal with the needs of the students appropriately and successfully engaged them with the lesson. To do so, the teacher employed various interesting and enjoyable activities such as singing a song. For example, when the teacher was marking, two students ran to the slightly ajar door to see students from another class who were doing sport, which was then followed by a couple other students. Seeing this, PSET11 went rhythmical to draw the students' attention, "*Everybody sit down, sit down, sit down, everybody sit down on the chair.*" The students then sang along with the teacher and returned to their chair to resume their work. They then submitted work to the teacher after being summoned. The teacher continued with using the sentences she wrote on the board as a song lyric. Students were asked to repeat after her:

- *PSET11: What time is it? What time is it?*
- *Ss : What time is it? What time is it?*
- *PSET11: It's seven o'clock. It's seven o'clock.*
- *Ss : It's seven o'clock. It's seven o'clock. Etc.*

The teacher was able to redirect the attention of students who were distracted to return to the lesson by encouraging them to sing along. The students as a consequence seemed to have really enjoyed the lesson and could actively participate in the various activities they were required to work on.

The contrasting view between the pedagogical practices of teachers who graduated from State University of Malang (PSET11 and PSET12) and those who graduated from other universities (PSET5, PSET6, PSET9, and PSET13) is indicative of a low level of uniformity in terms of quality pre-service teacher education for English teachers. While some pre-service teacher education has been able to prepare student teachers with activities to maintain students' interest, others seem to have not reached the desired level.

PSET11 and PSET12 who graduated from State University of Malang had been well prepared with provision of creating learning materials and other practical components to maintain students' interests. This resonates to LTE3's contention that the university well-provides its students with ample strategies and teaching techniques to develop creativity in order to maintain students' interest. MEB2 pointed out that teachers' skill to arouse students' interest in learning is contingent on sound pedagogical preparation at pre-service level. MEB2 stated that teachers whose pedagogical preparation is adequate have "appropriate techniques to engage and reinforce" students to "give them reward" (MEB2: 59). On the contrary, the other teachers might have not been well prepared to maintain students' interest. The pre-service teacher education that they attended might not have reached the desired quality in preparing students with skills to maintain students' interest. This provides further evidence for the contention made by Luciana (2006) in regard to the lack of provision of practical skills of teaching to interest students presently occurring in many English departments in Indonesia.

5.2.3 Giving feedback and correcting error

This sub-section presents and discusses: 1) PSETs' responses to question: *Did you have any difficulties in giving feedback and error correction?* and 2) Data from classroom observation sheets on *Giving feedback and correcting error.*

Seven out of thirteen teachers stated that they had difficulties in feedback provision and error correction. These include PSET1, PSET2, PSET3, PSET4, PSET5, PSET6, and PSET9. They felt that they were not satisfied with their current approaches to dealing with students' errors and the way they provided feedback. Both PSET3 and PSET6 specifically stated that they needed to professionally develop these skills:

- 277 : for me (.), I need to improve it… (PSET3)
- 269 : yes, just like what I said earlier, I need to continuously improve it. (PSET6)

However, it seems that what teachers found challenging was not the technicality of giving feedback or correcting errors, but rather the psychological impact of feedback and error correction on students. Teachers felt that giving feedback, if not done properly, may give negative impact on the students' psychology. PSET4 found correcting students' errors without making them feel offended and providing them with useful feedback extremely challenging. She felt that she needed to learn how to criticize the students "gently without their knowing that they are being criticized" (PSET4: 285). For this reason, PSET4 highlighted the importance of teachers not blaming the students when they make errors but praising or rewarding them when they provide the right answers.

Other teachers, namely PSET7, PSET8, PSET11, and PSET12, however did not find correcting errors and providing feedback demanding. The absence of such difficulty amongst PSET7 and PSET8 was similarly acknowledged by MEB1 and MEB2 who were convinced that teachers from PGSD have good pedagogical skills. With a major in childhood pedagogy and extensive teaching experience, the two teachers had found the best ways of dealing with students' errors. Observations of these two teachers showed that they praised particular students who could read a sentence well or who could answer questions properly by saying "Bagus! (Good!)". They also encouraged the students to applaud their classmates who could well respond to a question. More importantly, they seemed capable to deal with learners' mistakes appropriately and provided them with constructive feedback. When a student did not answer the question well, they did not become over-critical. They instead allowed the students to self-correct themselves. This was evident in the case of PSET7:

- PSET7 asked a student, "*Apa itu* "good afternoon"? / What is "Good afternoon"?
- Student: "*Selamat pagi*"
- PSET7: "*Apa good afternoon "Selamat pagi" atau "Selamat siang"?"/ Is "Good afternoon" "Selamat Pagi" or "Selamat Siang"?*
- Student: (pause) *"Eh, Selamat siang". "*

PSET11 did not think dealing with students' errors was a problem. PSET12 supported her claim by saying that she provided some opportunities to other students to do peer correction:

- 220 : if the pronunciation, we drilled it, we ask students to listen and repeat.
  221 : but if they make another mistake we just ask
  222 : their classmates to correct it, "So, what's the correct one?" So we ask their peers to do it. (PSET12)

By doing so, she expected that the right answer would not come from her but from the students. As opposed to immediate correction, peer correction is claimed useful to prevent the teacher from hypercorrection while generating more student-centered learning (Nunan & Lamb, 1996). PSET12 seemed to have been well informed on the usefulness of peer correction and was able to use it appropriately.

PSET12's practice was however different from PSET13 who claimed that he "didn't find it difficult" (PSET13: 179). Data from observation sheets shows that PSET13 did not correct four students who repetitively pronounced "fiveteen" for "15". As this error was committed by four different students but he did not made any corrections, PSET13 might not have considered the utterance an error or might not have been aware of it. Furthermore, when he thought a student made a mistake he employed immediate correction. He did not try to elicit information from other students who might have known the right answer but immediately corrected the student, which unfortunately was not very encouraging on the part of the students. It seemed that even though PSET13 claimed error correction was not a challenging task, he was not well informed on the negative impact of immediate correction on students' motivation.

Unlike PSET11 and PSET12, PSET13 might not have been aware of the significance of peer correction in enhancing the motivation of the students. Although PSET13 graduated from an English Language Department with EYL, it was no guarantee that he was well prepared with appropriate skill to provide feedback to students. This is in accordance with EC1's cautionary mark that "not all student teachers who graduate from UPI or other teaching colleges are capable of teaching English at primary level proportionately" (EC1: 30-31).

This phenomenon reiterates the contention made in Section 5.2.2 that while some pre-service teacher education has been able to prepare student teachers with various practical skills to support their pedagogy, others seem to have not reached the desired level.

These findings demonstrate that teachers with adequate pedagogy preparation such as PSET7, PSET8, PSET11, and PSET12 were less likely to face problems with correcting students' errors and providing them with feedback. While PSET7 and PSET8 were able to boost spirit of the students with encouraging feedback, PSET11 and PSET12 were versatile in providing students with opportunities to self correct themselves. The inclusion of practical components such as giving feedback and correcting errors in their pre-service education curriculum provided them with opportunities to deal with students' errors appropriately. On the other hand, teachers who were not well prepared with practical components on pedagogical skills found error correction and feedback provision difficult. Teachers who were not well informed with language acquisition theories on giving feedback and its impact on learners' motivation such as PSET13 seemed to have been misled by judgment based on inadequate theoretical foundation.

This indicates the central importance of SLA (Second Language Acquisition) theories in language pedagogy and teacher education as suggested by Ellis (2010). Teacher educators need to adopt a mediating role to facilitate the interface between technical knowledge about SLA and teachers' own practical knowledge of teaching. Relevant approaches to language teaching methodology and language acquisition theories such as Monitor Theory (Krashen & Terrell, 1983) and Processability Theory (Pienemann, 1998) need to take place in language teacher curriculum for primary school English teachers. For example, Pienemann (1998) argued that learners' processing and development in learning a second language exist in an incremental manner. Second language processing allows gradual construction of lexico-grammatical form to appear while conceptualization is still ongoing through linear stages of development. An implication of this is that both language production and developmental problem are dictated by learners' current state of

production of lexico-grammar. This infers comprehensive understanding of learners' developmental stages of learning a language allows teachers to predict learners' lexico-grammar production as well as their errors. Such understanding would allow teachers to develop coherent formal framework for the treatment of learners' developmental problems when they correct learners' errors and provide them with appropriate feedback. Clearly the implementation of SLA theories with a particular reference to error correction and providing feedback is an issue of significant importance in language teacher education.

5.2.4 Integrating language skills

This sub-section presents and discusses: 1) PSETs' responses to question: *Did you have any difficulties in integrating language skills?* and 2) Data from classroom observation sheets on *Integrating language skills.*

Evidence from the study reveals that all teachers realized that it is necessary for them to integrate language skills. For example, PSET6 further argued that he tried to "give it all to the students so they could get everything, speaking, writing, and everything" (PSET6: 142). Such awareness is parallel to the pragmatic objectives of language learning that have placed "an increased value on integrated and dynamic multi-skill instructional models with a focus on meaningful communication and the development of learners' communicative competence" (Hinkel, 2006, p. 113).

All teachers in this study however pointed out that they found it difficult to fully integrate various language skills in one lesson. Some teachers provided commentary on this:

- 103 : integrating the four skills is a really hard task (PSET13)
- 66 : … my skill on this area is very limited, so I really need
  67 : to improve it. And to integrate all the skills is very difficult, I think (PSET9)
- 130 : I think personally I haven't been able to achieve total reflection on that because
  131 : of my limited structure and lack of fluency. I haven't achieved any of these. (PSET5)
- 98 : yes, I found it difficult. (PSET11)
- 142 : for me, it is a big problem (PSET3)

Data from observation shows that listen-and-repeat activity was central to English lessons. During classroom observation, PSET1 tried to integrate writing and speaking throughout the lesson. He was however carried away by a question asked by a student and ended up giving more grammar explanation and conducting a listen-and-repeat activity. A grammar-focused lesson with listen-and-repeat activity was however not exclusive to PSET1 but was also apparent in the cases of PSET2, PSET3, PSET7, PSET8, and PSET9. An excerpt is given in the following:

- PSET9 : *What is this?* (pointing to a chair)
- SS. : *What is this?*
- PSET9 : *This is a chair.*
- SS. : *This is a chair.*
- PSET9 : *Amir, what is this?* (pointing to the chair)
- S1 : *This is a chair.*
- PSET9 : *Good.*

By asking students to repeat his sentences, PSET9 was able to make the students understand the concept of "*Things in the Classroom*", which was the topic of his lesson. Surprisingly when doing the listen and repeat activity the teacher did not attempt to introduce the concept of "plurality" to students, even though there were a lot of chairs and desks in the classroom. He kept pointing to things in the classroom (chairs, desks, books, pencils) as if there were only one each; he was referring to things in plural form as if they were singular. Another case was when he pointed into a pencil he held in his hand, he asked a student who was sitting in the middle row, *"What is this?".* The student who was sitting in the center of the classroom replied, *"This is a pencil.",* when she should have said, *"That is a pencil".* The teacher however did not correct it. This finding signals that PSET9 might not have been aware of how to incorporate grammar in his lesson. The fact that he did not attempt to introduce *plurality* and might have missed the concept of *demonstratives* confirms his own confession that his competence in integrating language skills is "extremely limited" (PSET9: 66). The findings above are consistent with Sary (2010) who pointed out that integrating language skills is an area of great difficulty for the majority of English teachers at primary level in Indonesia.

Teachers' difficulties in integrating language skills are however not solely due to lack of skills but are unfortunately attributed to various factors. First and foremost, adequate teaching facility is a consequential factor that has been missing in English classrooms. PSET1 stated that it was difficult for him to integrate language skills "because the multimedia facilities are not available"; he often had "to put more emphasize on reading and writing" (PSET1: 91). Had he had appropriate multimedia facilities, he argued that he would have had more listening activities with the students.

Teachers found that integrating language skills such as listening and speaking or writing and reading in a 35 minute lesson not an easy task. They constantly juggled between integrating listening and reading, writing and reading, speaking and reading skills. PSET4 voiced her concern about the limited time available for English teaching. She stated that integrating language skill is even more difficult because she "only had thirty five minutes per lesson, but students must master the four skills equally" (PSET4: 74). This then led her to only focus on one skill per lesson. For example, when she had a lesson focusing on listening, then she would have another lesson focusing on speaking in the following week, and so on.

The assessment factor also forced teachers to focus on a particular skill while neglecting other skills. For example, PSET7 stated that she "put more emphasis on reading skill" (PSET7: 121) rather than other skills. PSET7's confession is plausible considering the assessment situation in primary schools. Chapter 3 showed that the summative and formative tests are primarily multiple choices based on reading comprehension questions. Consequently teachers are required to put a large emphasis on reading skill without equal emphasis given to the other skills: speaking, writing, and listening.

The findings above demonstrate that while teachers perceived language skill integration as important, they were not confident to do it successfully. This indicates that they did not receive adequate pedagogical preparation during their pre-service level in how to

integrate language skills properly. In addition, the fact that limited facilities, limited time, and assessment factor have adversely affected the pedagogical practices of teachers in integrating language skills reflects the influence of contextual factors in shaping the practices of English teachers as demonstrated in Chapter 3.

5.2.5 Lesson planning

This sub-section presents and discusses: 1) PSETs responses to question: *Did you have any difficulties in planning a lesson?* and 2) The responses of LTEs and MEBs to questions: *What are the needs of primary school English teachers in terms of their skills? What are they lacking?*

All teachers in this study, except PSET12, claimed to have developed lesson plans. Although they stated that they had no particular difficulty in creating lesson plans, various reasons however had hindered them from executing their plans successfully. Often teachers had to deviate from their lesson plan because their classroom was chaotic and "the condition was not conducive" (PSET10: 125). PSET3 added that

- 250 : … My lessons have always deviated. Because what we had already planned
  251 : was virtually impossible to work out in class, because there were too
  252 : many problems going in class. That's why my lessons have always deviated. Sometimes I had a
  253 : lesson just to have a pep talk with them and not teach them English (PSET3)

The disruptive classroom in the case of PSET3 and PSET10 was mainly due to the large number of students. While PSET3 had 43 students in his classroom, PSET10 had 41 students. Fieldnotes from classroom observation show that the two teachers often had to stabilize their classroom from noisy students or the troublesome ones. PSET3 confessed that he often lost his teaching time because he had to have a pep talk to discipline disruptive students. Teachers who had smaller classes, on the other hand, did not experience such difficulty. PSET4 who only had 20 students claimed that her lesson ran well and that she felt she had accomplished the objectives of her lesson.

Other teachers such as PSET9 and PSET7 stated time was as a major constraint. PSET7 stated that "the time is very limited, 1 x 35 minutes per week" (PSET1: 175). In teaching English lessons she found it difficult because often she had already run out of time before completing all the activities. This required her to ask her students to "do the activities as homework" (PSET7: 178).

The findings above suggest that teachers did not find lesson planning difficult but felt it was executing the lesson plans that became an issue. Both teachers with pre-service training in English education (e.g. PSET10) and teachers who did not undertake one (e.g. PSET3) had created a lesson plan. They did not find lesson planning worrying but what worried them was the classroom that had not been conducive for them to be able to carry out their lesson successfully. They highlighted that classroom atmosphere was influential in determining whether or not they were able to accomplish the objectives of their lesson. They argued that the unconducivity of the classroom impeded their carrying out their lesson.

This however interestingly reveals the teachers' lack of awareness of the classroom situations when planning a lesson. The unconducivity of the classroom may be detrimental to teachers in successfully executing their lesson but it is not the sole factor. As they were planning, the teachers might have not taken into account the situations in their classroom and the constraints they might be having when teaching. Had they had taken into account the large number of students or the limited time, they would not have planned a lesson that would not be successful. They should have planned a lesson that would accommodate the time constraints as well as the vast number of students. Teachers might have known how to create a lesson plan but seemed to have forgotten or have missed the situational constraints that might occur in their lesson.

The finding above is in line with LTE4's contention who stated that classroom awareness when developing lesson planning is *"actually what, what our teachers are usually lacking"* (LTE4: 58). Furthermore, teachers were lacking the courage in *"analyzing or breaking*

down the curriculum into the syllabus or into the activities in the classroom" (LTE4: 63). She stated that the major factor that has caused the issue is *"simply because they don't have the knowledge of it"* (LTE4: 64).

The problematic situations arising above can be traced back to the pre-service teacher education. Teachers might not have been prepared well enough to develop knowledge on lesson planning and how to utilize classroom awareness when creating lesson plans that match the situations of their classroom as well as the needs of individual students. The importance of creating classroom situations as a positive learning environment for catering for the needs of individual students is closely related to the concept of Zone Proximal Development. Vygotsky (1978, p. 33) defined Zone Proximal Development as "the distance between actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving, and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers". An essential feature of learning is the creation of situation in which learning awakens a variety of developmental processes that are only able to be operated only when children's interaction with people in their environment is established as well as when peer-cooperation occurs.

Since the ability of children to carry out language tasks successfully in various classroom and school contexts is the primary objective of the KTSP curriculum, the role of teachers' skill in planning lessons that correspond to this objective is vital. How teachers are able to plan lessons that fully consider the classroom settings to tailor to the needs of the students is an important issue. This means teachers are expected to be able to extrapolate the needs of individual students, understand the diverse classroom settings, and eventually align these two aspects to create successful learning process. This indicates the importance of awareness-raising tasks based on second language data to encourage teachers to make the link between technical and practical knowledge in teacher education as suggested by Ellis (2010). The provision of awareness-raising tasks as well as Zone Proximal Development focusing on the alignment of the needs of students and the

settings of the classroom for the creation of positive learning environment must be made in language teacher education for primary school English teachers.

Another issue with lesson planning is closely related to syllabus and curriculum. As shown in Chapter 3, teachers are now expected to extend their roles at the school level by developing the KTSP curriculum and to swiftly move their role to be more engaged in curriculum design and planning. Unfortunately evidence generated from the study demonstrates that teachers were constrained when it comes to exercising their roles to create a lesson plan that well reflects the syllabus and curriculum. For example, PSET13 did not have the opportunity to design both the KTSP curriculum as well as syllabus for English lessons in his school because they were designed by the Educational Unit at the District Level with minimal input from teachers. He raised his concern as follows:

- 153 : (2.0) this is quite confusing. In other words, difficult. Our RPP (lesson plan) needs to adjust
  154 : to what is required in the syllabus. But the skills of the learners may not match with it. Yes,
  155 : this makes me confused and I find it difficult. Which one are we going to follow?
  156 : Is it to adjust to the students' needs or RPP that is based on the syllabus. If the RPP is created
  157 : independently, in other words it is only guidance but the implementation has to be situated
  158 : according to the school contexts, it may be accurate. But this RPP is based on syllabus, it does not
  159 : meet the students' needs, so teachers always feel they are under
  160 : the pressure of a deadline. Eh, what is it, maybe, yes, under the pressure of a deadline. (PSET13)

The fact that teachers were not fully empowered to exercise their authority and autonomy in classroom design and planning is parallel to the contention put forward in Chapter 3. The policy initiative to bestow teachers with more authority and autonomy in curriculum and syllabus design is meritorious but the immediate environment for the implementation of the policy has not been successfully created. PSET13's confusion also indicates the overwhelming demand on the part of the teachers when it comes to the decentralization of education. Teachers are now burdened with new tasks such as determining the contents of the curriculum, creating syllabi that reflect the SKL prescribed by the government, and communicating program design and implementation to the community; but they have not been provided with conducive working environment.

5.2.6 Material selection and adaptation

This sub-section presents and discusses: 1) PSETs' responses to question: *Did you have any difficulties in selecting and adapting materials from coursebooks?* and 2) The responses of LTEs and MEBs to questions: *What are the needs of primary school English teachers in terms of their skills? What are they lacking?*

Eight teachers, namely PSET1, PSET2, PSET3, PSET6, PSET8, PSET9, PSET10, and PSET13 stated their difficulty in selecting and adapting coursebook materials. Teachers from non-English major (PSET2, PSET3, and PSET8) and those from English major (PSET1, PSET6, PSET9, PSET10, and PSET13) pointed out their lack of confidence in coursebook adaptation and selection. Some of them provided commentary in the following:

- 49 : If it's about difficulty, then I have so many difficulties in adapting materials (PSET3)
- 139 : E:hhh, in terms of coursebook adaptation I am still bad at it (PSET1)
- 135 : Yeah. I need to improve it. (PSET13)

Teacher educators provided answers that are parallel to the teachers' confession above. LTE2 stated that "teachers are not confident in using coursebooks, not to mention to adapt them" (LTE2: 46-47). LTE4 stated that *"teachers in Indonesia do not really focus on how to adapt the materials"* but *"focus very much on how to teach, to teach the textbook."* (LTE4: 59-60). This demonstrates that the ability to adapt coursebooks is a skill that teachers need to develop. For this reason, LTE3 pointed out that teachers of English at primary level need to "be able to select and adapt" the currently existing learning materials into "materials that are suitable to the needs of their students" (LTE3: 96-98).

These findings confirm the results of the study by Ernidawati (2002) who found that the teachers in Medan, North Sumatera, had major difficulties in selecting and adapting learning materials and practical activities for young learners. She argued that the cause of such phenomenon is primarily because teachers were not specifically trained to teach EYL. When it comes to teachers in this study, the data indicates that coursebook and material adaptation might have not been given a large emphasis on pre-service level teacher education. This rings true especially because two teachers with adequate preparation in

teaching English to Young Learners (PSET11 PSET12) did not state their difficulty in selecting or adapting learning materials in coursebook. The lack of uniformity in pre-service teacher education has again been the major cause for the diversity of practice of primary school English teachers in delivering quality English lessons.

This poor condition was however enmeshed by the fact that the quality of coursebooks produced is questionable. PSET11 found no particular difficulty in adapting coursebooks in general but she stated that the book she used in her school, *English for Kids*, was written by some members of the educational board at the local level in her city. Even though the book was prescribed by the educational unit, it did not meet the desired quality. She highlighted that the book was "far" from her "expectations" because most of the contents were not relevant to the needs of the students. She revealed the fact that "the ones who wrote the coursebooks were several incompetent educational administrators, and the selection of these administrators was not based on merit" (PSET11: 125-129). Alteration to the situation was beyond her capacity because the tender to write and publish the book was given to the members of the educational board.

The problem with the quality of coursebooks is however not exclusive to PSET11. PSET8 had a similar issue because she had found that "often the books were not accurate" due to misspelled words or illogical sentences (PSET8: 240). This forced her to select and combine materials from several different books.

Another issue is that it was hard to find coursebooks that perfectly match the KTSP curriculum and the needs of the students. PSET4 stated that she had "several books to use and they are all in different topics" (PSET4: 193). PSET10 lamented the fact that the coursebook she was using "does not suit the needs and conditions" of her students (PSET10: 24). Some teachers complained about the inappropriateness of the coursebooks with the level of the students. PSET3 pointed out that the level of the coursebook he was using was over-challenging because "the contents are suitable for SMP learners" instead

of SD learners (PSET3: 185), whereas PSET6 highlighted that the coursebook he was using "are too low for RSBI students" (PSET6: 168).

These findings indicate that the domain of book publication has been managed by incompetent people, both in bureaucracy and publishing domains. This suggests that the issue with English coursebook publication in Indonesia is not only related to the cultural and linguistic appropriateness as pointed out by Marcellino (2008) and Aydawati (2005). The intrusion of educational bureaucrats and coursebook writers with no proper qualifications or relevant expertise to also join the business is another issue enmeshing the implementation of primary school English teaching in Indonesia.

5.2.7 Dealing with a wide range of students

This sub-section presents and discusses: PSETs' responses to question: *Did you have any difficulties in dealing with a wide range of students?*

Data in this study confirms teachers' perceptions of the difficulty in dealing with a wide range of students with all their learning styles and personalities. Teachers with pre-service English education such as PSET1 found it "very difficult" (PSET1: 161) as much as teachers without pre-service English education such as PSET3 who stated that he had "many difficulties" in dealing with his students. PSET9 stated that the main cause for difficulties when dealing with learners with a wide range of learning styles and strategies is "the large number of students that most English teachers have in their classroom" (PSET9: 106-107).

Classroom management in a class consisting of no less than 45 students is a complicated issue for teachers. They are "required to design their teaching so that every learner could actively get involved in the learning process and does not make disruption to the other learners" but the large number of students as well as the wide range of characters that they had to deal with were two major challenges (PSET9: 109-110). Having a large number of students presumably means a large gap occurring between fast learners and slow learners. PSET13 pointed out that the proficiency level of learners varies greatly because

“there are really smart students and very slow learners” (PSET13: 145). PSET3 stated that a major difficulty lies at the fact that he had to deal with learners whose “learning skills are limited that he had to repeat the explanation several times and they still did not understand” (PSET3: 221).

Having a large number of students also requires teachers to cater for a wide range of learning strategies. PSET6 stated that with a large number of students teachers are “required to understand the learning styles of students such as kinesthetic, verbal, and visual” and to “develop strategies that can cater for the needs of the group and individual students” (PSET6: 212-216). Both PSET5 and PSET10 highlighted the importance of teachers being able to utilize students’ multiple intelligence. PSET5 viewed “students’ multiple intelligence” as an asset that “teachers should understand” in order “to find the most appropriate methods and implement them so the students could well understand the instruction” (PSET5: 218-219). PSET10 stated that in designing her games she tried to “involve the variety of learning styles that students have” in order to cater for their needs (PSET10: 110-111).

It is of no surprise that teachers felt they needed to improve their skill in dealing with a wide range of learners. PSET2 stated she wanted “to find the ways to improve” this particular skill (PSET2: 236). Even teachers with strong pedagogical preparation and extensive learning experiences such as PSET7 and PSET8 shared the same view. PSET8 stated that her skill in dealing with learners needs “to be improved” so that she could “help improve her learners’ ability to understand better” (PSET8: 164-165). The same case applies to teachers who graduated from English major with EYL such as PSET11 and PSET12. PSET11 stated that because it was almost virtually impossible for her to successfully deal with slow learners that she “asked their parents to provide them with extra lesson outside school hours” (PSET11: 149-150). PSET12 agreed that doing so is useful because in their school they had “autistic students” whom they barely had knowledge of (PSET12: 157).

The findings indicate that the large number of students is not conducive to English lessons because teachers across groups were struggling to cope with the students whose needs and learning styles were very diverse. Larger number of students indicates more varied characters of learners and wider gap between fast learners and slow learners. This means the more difficult it is for teachers to develop effective classroom management. The fact that teachers with strong pedagogical preparation still feel the need to improve their skill in this particular area also indicates that they were lacking sufficient professional preparation in dealing with a wide range of learners and especially those with special needs.

5.2.8 Teachers' language proficiency

This sub-section presents and discusses: 1) PSETs responses to questions: *Do you think you still need to improve your English proficiency? If so, which skills and why?* and 2) The responses of LTEs and MEBs questions: *What are the needs of primary school English teachers in terms of their skills? What are they lacking?;* and 3) Data from classroom observation sheets on *Teachers' language proficiency.*

Evidence from this study reveals that teachers such as PSET7 and PSET8 stated that they need to "learn a lot more" because of their "very limited proficiency" in all areas of language skills (PSET7: 111, PSET8: 204). Data from the observation sheets of PSET7 and PSET8 shows that both teachers did not use English throughout the lesson except when doing listening and repeat activity, which confirms their confession during the interview that they were not confident with their English proficiency. PSET4 pointed out that what teachers need is "formal language that is easily understood by the students" (PSET4: 320). Teachers such as PSET1, PSET2, PSET3, PSET5, PSET6, PSET9, PSET10, and PSET13 all indicated during the interviews that they were not confident with their English skills. Data from the observation shows that, for example, PSET13 tended to frequently pause when uttering a sentence in English and produced some pronunciation errors such as "fiveteen" for "15". PSET1 made quite a lot of errors in terms of grammar ("listening radio" for which

he meant “listening to the radio”) and pronunciation (“collating stamp” for which he actually meant “collecting stamps”).

The responses generated from teacher educators and members of educational boards confirm this. MEB2 stated that teachers’ “English is really basic, yeah, a very formal and basic English, which is awkward and not contextual” (MEB2: 102-103). LTE3 pointed out that teachers “in terms of language performance, they need to know the language. They need to be able to identify the structure, what is the structure of English for SD students?” (LTE3: 76-77). Furthermore, LTE4 stated that what teachers need is *“particularly their speaking skill, their communication skill, how they actually grade their language, how they paraphrase, how they chunk the language”* (LTE4: 85-86). These are all necessary because good language proficiency means teachers are able to identify “adjectives, nouns” and “all the structure we need for students” (LTE3: 84).

Even though “*there are many, many teachers who are not confident with their own knowledge of the language”,* it is imprudent to say *“they are SD teachers therefore their English is not good”* (LTE1: 138-140). There is however certainly the case in which a teacher has English proficiency that is *“better than an SMA teacher’s English, because they work hard and dig themselves*” (LTE1:136-137).

Data from observation provides evidence for the latter argument. Three teachers, namely PSET4, PSET11, and PSET12 were all confident with their language proficiency. They were fluent and did not seem to have major difficulties in expressing themselves in the language. Observation fieldnotes also demonstrate that the grammatical or pronunciation errors that these three teachers committed throughout their lesson were considerably less in comparison to PSET1 and PSET13.

These findings demonstrate that PSET4, PSET11, and PSET12 were well prepared throughout their pre-service education, as opposed to PSET8 and PSET7 who did not receive sufficient English preparation during her pre-service education. The lack of

confidence in the case of PSET13 also indicates lack of uniformity of pre-service teacher education in providing student teachers with sufficient preparation to improve their language proficiency.

In terms of a language skill that teachers had difficulty the most, vocabulary was indicated as a weakness by PSET13. However he agreed with seven other teachers who perceived oral skill as the main issue. Eight teachers, namely PSET12, PSET2, PSET11, PSET3, PSET13, PSET6, PSET9, and PSET4 placed pronunciation and fluency as an area of weakness. This is evident in the following:

- 469 : my fluency is very much limited (PSET12)
- 321 : Yeah, I feel mine is lacking, especially speaking (PSET2)
- 294 : I think I'm lacking of speaking skill (PSET11)
- 302 : for me, it's speaking (PSET3)
- 249 : it is pronunciation that I am lacking of (PSET13)
- 300 : To tell you the truth my oral skill pronunciation) is not as good as
  301 : my literacy skill (PSET6)
- 79 : Pronunciation is the most important thing
  80 : yeah, we really need it, pronunciation, because we teach in SD. (PSET9)
- 318 : I think I need to improve my proficiency on the four language skills
  319 : … especially on how to use the language to talk to children (PSET4)

Data from observation sheets shows that teachers spoke English with thick accent of their local language. This is evident in the cases of teachers who did not graduate from an English department such as PSET2, PSET3, PSET7, and PSET8. Similar problem however also occurs with those who graduated from an English Department such as PSET13, PSET4, and PSET9. Even teachers who graduated with a Bachelor degree in English Language Education with EYL such as PSET11 and PSET12 spoke with a heavily marked Javanese accent. This was most obvious especially because they pronounced most sentences with rising-falling intonation such as "Write your nickname"↓ and "What time is it?"↓

This particular finding demonstrates that the problem with pronunciation appears not only with the group of teachers without an English background (PSET7, PSET8, PSET2, and

PSET3), but also with those with an English background (PSET4, PSET5, PSET6, PSET9, PSET10, PSET1, PSET11, PSET12, and PSET13). Speaking English with a strong local accent consistently demonstrates a distinctive feature of primary school English teaching in Indonesia. Teachers with weaker proficiency such as PSET7 and PSET8 often pronounced English words with a Minahasa accent. On the other hand, teachers who showed stronger English proficiency such as PSET4, PSET11, and PSET12 all spoke English with a heavy Javanese accent.

Teachers' lack of pronunciation skill was well observed by teacher educators such as LTE3 and LTE4. Drawing on her vast experience as a teacher trainer, LTE3 in particular mentioned teachers' flaws when pronouncing words with sounds that do not exist in Indonesian language, such as "cucumber" and "knife". LTE3 observed that such pronunciation gaffe was found in many areas when she conducted teacher training workshops in West Java:

- 147 : There are MANY mistakes. "It's a knife", in West Java, it was read [knaif], which should be [naif]
  148 : "OK, students this is a [tʃutʃumbér]"
  151 : … what they have learnt in SMP and SMA seemed to have no effect for the teachers who
  152 : graduated from PGSD (LTE3)

The findings above are parallel to the findings on various studies conducted by scholars such as Agustina, et al. (1997), Suyanto & Chodidjah (2002), Suyanto, Rachmajanti, & Lestari (2003), Lestari (2003), and Damayanti, et al. (2008) that highlighted teacher's poor pronunciation in various areas throughout Indonesia. Furthermore, the findings also indicate a desire of the participants to become a language model for their students (See Section 5.3.3). Such aspiration is appropriate given the large emphasis that KTSP curriculum places on students' ability to verbally interact in various meaningful classroom and school contexts (Section 3.2.1). It is apparent that this necessitates the presence of teachers as a language model for their students to allow successful communication to occur. Teachers need to place themselves as a good language model who are able not only to model the language for the students, but also to encourage and motivate them to be able to use the language even when participating in classroom or playground activities.

However, being a language model does not mean teachers are obligated to having native-like pronunciation, which has actually been argued as a quite simplistic and unreasonable goal of foreign language teaching (Corbett, 2003). Rather, the findings above are best interpreted in an axiom that in order for teachers of English at primary level to become a language model for their students, they must be able to produce adequate and comprehensible pronunciation that is not heavily accented without necessarily ascribing to native-like pronunciation of English.

5.2.9 The use of students' first language

This sub-section presents and discusses: 1) PSETs responses to questions: *Did you use students' L1 when teaching? Why?* and 2) The responses of LTEs and MEBs to questions: *What are the needs of primary school English teachers in terms of their skills? What are they lacking?;* and 3) Data from classroom observation sheets on *Using students' first language.*

Evidence from this study highlights all teachers used the first language of the students when teaching with varying degree of frequency. First, the extent to which teachers conduct the lesson in English seems to be parallel to their language proficiency. Teachers who were not confident with their English tended to use the first language of the students, be it Indonesian or the local language, as the language of instruction. This was evident from observation sheets in the cases of teachers without an English background such as PSET3, PSET2, PSET7, and PSET8. Whereas Indonesian was primarily used by PSET3, PSET9, and PSET7, the local language was more frequently used by PSET8 and PSET2 who both spoke Minahasa. These four teachers admitted that they were not confident with their English language proficiency. LTE1 confirmed this as she stated that this group of teachers were *"not confident with their own knowledge of the language"* and are "*malu or embarrassed to use English"* (LTE1: 140 & 158).

The rationale for using the first language of the students was however not entirely due to teachers' self-confessed limited proficiency. Some teachers found their students did not feel comfortable with listening to an English only instruction. Such circumstance requires the adaptability of the teachers to the situation and to use Indonesian before moving slowly to English or to use English only when necessary. As argued by PSET5, code switching was necessary because "sometimes students did not understand" her instruction and because having an English-only instruction often results in "students not understanding the lesson" (PSET5: 369). This was confirmed by PSET9:

- 173 : ... Eh, it happened to me once when I taught the first time
  174 : that I used English all the time, but the students protested it (.)
  175 : they didn't understand, so they decided to code-switch to Indonesian. (PSET9)

Language specialists argued for the use of first language in language instruction for a number of reasons. Judicious use of the first language can greatly facilitate the management of learning process, particularly where grammatical and lexical explanations were concerned (Nunan & Lamb, 1996). Such advantage rings true in most foreign language contexts with multilingual communities like Indonesia. Teachers who used the national language or Indonesian (PSET9 and PSET5) or a local language (PSET2) could actually offer a great deal of assistance to students whose confidence in the target language reception is low. Moreover, in classes with more complex classroom interactions, using the students' first language could also place students' anxiety at ease (Pasaribu, 2001).

Data from the observation sheets shows that teachers such as PSET1, PSET4, PSET5, PSET9, PSET10, and PSET13 quite frequently asked questions to their students in English. When students were able to respond to the questions appropriately, the teachers did not translate the questions. On the other hand, when the students seemed to have not understood the questions or could not provide the desired responses, the teachers translated the questions into Indonesian. Teacher cognition seemed to have played an important role as to when teachers may speak Indonesian language or even the local

language in giving instruction. Their professional judgment on the circumstance seemed to have been a predominant factor. This was evident in the case of PSET13 and PSET12:

- 255 : for students at higher level, this could be effective because they have good grasp of the language.
  256 : But for students at lower level it is not, because yeah, their level is still totally beginners. (PSET13)
- 472 : ...Yes, what I mean is that.. If everything is taught using Indonesian then
  473 : students are not trained to listen to English, they don't get the exposure to the language (PSET12)

The two teachers were teaching at lower classes and they thought that using the first language of the students was useful to ease the understanding of the students. They however believed that it was necessary to use more English when dealing with students at higher levels because the students had already had good grasp of the language. This finding demonstrates that the two teachers were able to prioritize the language of instruction, that is, when to use English and when to use students' native tongue to help instruction. Teachers' lack of confidence with English that caused them to use the first language only in the classroom needs serious attention, but the fact that most of the teachers observed were capable of code switching from Indonesian to English and vice versa when giving instruction deserves appraisal.

Such pedagogical preference finds a place in an era when native speakers are no longer the norm in language teaching as suggested by proponents of Intercultural Language Teaching (see Crozet & Liddicoat, 2000; Corbett, 2003; and Crozet, 2005). It indicates more active participation in multicultural societies like Indonesia where the first language of the students is seen as an asset rather than a liability. What missing is however the integration of Anglo-Saxon cultural perspectives that are inherent within the English language into language pedagogy in the Indonesian linguistic landscape that houses 741 local languages and one national language. Integrating cultural perspectives into language pedagogy is a challenge that clearly needs to be fully addressed in language teacher education (Crozet & Liddicoat, 2000).

Teachers need to be prepared to utilize the first language of the students for the full development of their English language proficiency while at the same time enable learners

to “view different cultures from a perspective of informed understanding” (Corbett, 2003, p. 209). This is most relevant to the Indonesian linguistic landscape in order to unleash its “potential political role of contributing to positive interethnic relation” (Crozet & Liddicoat, 2000, p. 13) amongst the 400 or so Indonesian ethnic groups with various sub-cultures.

5.3 The needs of teachers in terms of knowledge

This section presents and discusses PSETs’ responses to *questions: Which areas of knowledge in language teaching do you need to improve? Why?* as well as data generated from responses of LTEs and MEBs to questions: *What are the needs of primary school English teachers in terms of their knowledge? What are they lacking?*

Findings from this study demonstrate that teaching English at primary level requires specific kind of knowledge. This view was endorsed by teachers such as PSET9, PSET7, PSET8, and PSET13. PSET13 argued that knowledge-base in teaching English to Young Learners “is important in order to achieve our goals in teaching” (PSET13: 232). The view that the specificity of knowledge-base of teaching English to Young Learners is distinctive and deserves recognition was also maintained by LTE2 who pointed out that:

- 309 : … the knowledge-base on elementary education as a distinctive field has to be
  310 : acknowledged first.
  314 : … it needs to be highlighted that English in elementary education is distinctive as a field of study (LTE2)

LTE2 further stated that “children are children; they are different, they have their own culture; thus we have to learn about children” (LTE2: 169-170).

This suggests that theorizations in knowledge-base in teaching English to young learners are necessary to counter the popular claim that teaching English to primary school children bears no difference with teaching students at other levels. This confirms Cameron’s (2001) contention that theorizing the teaching of young learners plays an

important role in rectifying the oversimplifications occurring from the prevalent misunderstandings. The popular beliefs held in society that children are a miniature of adults and that teaching languages to children resembles teaching language to adults find no grounds because the learners' age is a significant consideration in language teaching (Brown, 2001). This implies that in teacher education the operation of the knowledge-base must be in accordance with the age and level of the learners in which the teaching process is undertaken.

Participants pointed out that knowledge-base in teaching English to Young Learners is also useful for teachers to develop appropriate approaches to teaching. LTE2 stated that knowledge-base in teaching English to Young Learners is useful to help teachers to "adapt material, to develop teaching approaches, and techniques" (LTE2: 171-172). This suggests that the accumulation of the knowledge-base holistically underpins the methods and techniques pertinent to achieving success in teaching language to learners at this particular level.

Three areas of knowledge-base in teaching English to Young Learners, namely knowledge of learners, contextual knowledge, and pedagogical content knowledge have been identified from findings emerging from responses of participants. These areas of knowledge are discussed in the following.

5.3.1 Knowledge of learners

Evidence from the study is conclusive in highlighting the significance of knowledge of learners in teaching English to Young Learners. First and foremost, teachers equated knowledge of learners with their identity in the vocation. A teacher highlighted that "If I were not a teacher, I won't consider it necessary. But if I still consider myself a teacher, then it is important because it is related to my job as a teacher (PSET3: 435)".

Teachers such as PSET2 believed that reasonable knowledge of learners largely "informs the learning-teaching processes" (PSET2: 443), a stance resembling Johnston & Goettsch's

(2000) view that “teachers' beliefs about how learners learn and what they know affect their pedagogical strategies” (p. 455). A further stance was taken by a number of other participants who accentuated the usefulness of knowledge of learners in helping them “to solve any problems occurring during the teaching learning process” (PSET6: 462), “to provide accurate examination of the students” (PSET13: 218), and “to solve the learning difficulties that children are having” (PSET12: 448-449). Some teachers even argued that such knowledge is vital in “supporting the overall learning-teaching processes in order to achieve success (PSET2: 443)” and in reaching “the ultimate goal of learning (PSET6: 445)”. Without it, teachers will face “notable difficulties when dealing with learners” (PSET9).

It seems that the teachers believed that the knowledge of learners enables them to identify their learners, inform their pedagogies, and therefore assist them in dealing with any teaching problems they may encounter in the classroom. This finding provides evidence for Musthafa’s (2010) contention that teacher’s knowledge of learners is a foundation of the pillars of teaching English to Young Learners. An English teacher at primary level is expected to know who their learners are because such knowledge is necessary for them to develop relevant approaches to foster learning as well as to deal with any problems in the classroom.

Two strands of knowledge of learners have emerged in this study. These are: 1) knowledge of learners’ strategies, and 2) psychology of learning.

Knowledge of learners’ strategies

Participants felt that knowledge of learners’ strategies is indispensable for promoting effective instruction because:

- 226 : we need to see children, what are their tendencies of learning,
  227 : how they learn. We need to try to see different approach to different individual. And for sure
  228 : we need knew knowledge to execute these approaches. (PSET4)
- 249 : … We need to know what they like, and
  250 : what they (the students) need or what they want, the kind of learning they want=(PSET2)
- 249 : … E:h, we need to know what the students like, and

250 : e::hm (.) what, e:h, what they need, the way they learn= (PSET1)

The three participants above agreed that it is necessary for English teachers to know who the students are, the individual approaches they develop when learning, and what they want in their learning. This view of teachers is parallel to the contention made by LTE1 that *"the knowledge of the learners and their learning styles"* are *"vital"* (LTE1: 24-25). The reason is because reasonable knowledge on these areas is necessary in order for teachers to be able to develop appropriate teaching approaches. Knowledge of learners enables teachers to develop a new role that is not primarily based on hierarchical authority where teachers instruct and direct learning. On the contrary, the roles have shifted progressively to identification of learners' strategies and efforts to assist them to become more independent and autonomous (Oxford, 1990).

Although the place for knowledge of learners and promoting autonomy is unquestionable, data generated from the study shows that the knowledge was not fully exercised in Indonesian primary schooling contexts. Participants' views provided a grim picture on the utilization of language learning strategies to promote autonomy. Both MEB1 and MEB2 believed that teachers have not been fully exercising knowledge of learners' strategies and that "teachers should improve their understanding about the ways learners learn" (MEB1: 20). Less experienced teachers such as PSET1 and PSET2 pointed out their limited knowledge of learning strategies. Both teachers with good provision of English to Young Learners (PSET11 and PSET12) as well as those with extensive experiences with teaching at primary level (PSET7 and PSET8) also stated their conviction that they were lacking of knowledge of learning strategy. They felt they had "limited knowledge to deal with learners" (PSET11: 243), so that it was hard for them to improve "students' autonomy" (PSET7: 160).

Psychology of learning

Participants provided positive responses in relation to the relevance of learning children psychology to the creation of informed decisions. MEB1 stated that teachers need "to

learn more of psychology of children" (MEB1: 25) and PSET4 stated that she "really wants to learn psychology of learning" (PSET4: 469).

The continuing importance of psychological knowledge is evident as it provides useful basis for developing suitable approaches to help teachers to deal with learners' difficulties. PSET6 stated that teachers "should understand children's characters, their backgrounds, the kinds of sickness they have, because these are related to psychology of learning" (PSET6: 459-461). PSET11 and PSET12 both confirmed that they had students with autism. Some students who had autism were largely assisted by their learning aide, but both PSET11 and PSET12 found it extremely difficult to deal with them because they had limited knowledge in dealing with this type of learners.

These findings demonstrate that limited knowledge of learners was a problem encountered by all groups of teachers. Teachers with an English background such as PSET4 stated the necessity to improve her limited knowledge of learners as much as teachers with non-English background such as PSET3. Both more experienced teachers such as PSET7 and less experienced teachers such as PSET1 were alike. The two groups exhibited a great need of tuition in recognizing students' learning styles in order to develop learning autonomy, while they also needed psychology of learning in order to assist students with learning difficulties.

5.3.2 Contextual knowledge

Participants placed a great emphasis on the interplay of contextual factors. PSET2 emphasized the importance of "communicating to other teachers" (PSET2: 467) as a distinctive feature of contextual knowledge. PSET9 offered much broader view when stating that "education will not be successful without good relationship between school, parents, and home" (PSET9: 481-482). MEB1 further pointed out that good understanding of "the condition of the learners, their environment, the condition of their family" forms an inseparable part of contextual knowledge pertinent to learning (MEB1: 21-22).

This concurs with the contention made in Chapter 1 that contextual knowledge which encompasses a breadth of factors including community and socio-cultural factors, the administrative practices of the school, and the social contexts of schools and schooling are all influential in shaping pedagogical practices. Such knowledge is indispensable in providing student teachers with opportunities to acclimatize to the environment of their profession (Richards, 1998b).

The participants hitherto agreed that effective instruction is dependent on the interplay of various factors including good relationship between one teacher and another, between teachers and students, and between teachers and parents and the wider community. These macro-aspects of language education form a host of educational environment that has a reciprocal influence on classroom practices particularly because "what happens within the classroom reflects, affects, and is affected by the complex influences and interests within the host educational environment" (Holliday, 1994, p. 16).

Understanding the inseparable relationship between school and the educational environment is best understood within the cultural framework of Indonesian society. In Indonesia, communality or togetherness is a norm; schooling is inherent within society. In educational setting, teachers' inclusivity with the larger educational community, including other teachers, parents, and society is pertinent to their profession. Negligence to this and the roles these stakeholders play in the wider community is frowned upon and is against the predominant norm. This explains why teachers in this study provided argument that did not separate themselves from the larger construct of the society.

Of significant value is their ability to invoke appropriate responses and to appropriately respond to parental or societal demands. Within this framework, a large extent of pedagogical approaches is confined to the predominantly outsiders' demands. This confirms Holliday's (1994) contention that appropriate methods and pedagogical approaches are contingent on the frameworks developed within a specific contextual system. Understanding the interface between schools and communities establishes an

important part of knowledge that provides teachers with multiple data sources for pedagogical decisions (Au & Kawakimi, 1994).

The utilization of contextual knowledge was however not fully exercised by various groups of teachers in this study. Teachers without an English background (e.g. PSET2) needed formal instruction on contextual knowledge as much as teachers with an English background (PSET4 and PSET12). LTE4 confirmed this as she stated that both teachers who came from non-English major and those with an English background needed *"knowledge of context"* because they were not prepared with such knowledge during their pre-service education (LTE4: 45-46).

More experienced teachers such as PSET7 and PSET8 however did not assert such need. Neither teacher educators nor members of educational board endorsed the need of these teachers in terms of contextual knowledge. This implies that while teachers with more extensive experiences such as PSET7 and PSET8 did not seem to be lacking contextual knowledge, other teachers with less experience such as PSET2 and PSET4 were in need of further support in relation to this type of knowledge. More experienced teachers might in fact have been well acquainted with their colleagues and might have established good rapport with their teaching environment including parents and the community. On the other hand, less experienced teachers might not have been well prepared with similar knowledge, thus making it difficult for them to deal with the working environment of their educational institution.

5.3.3 Pedagogical content knowledge

Participants in this study pointed out that knowledge of pedagogy is pertinent to the efficacy of teachers' pedagogical practices. Pedagogical knowledge "marks the skill of a teacher" (PSET6: 422) because if someone wants to become a teacher they need "to know how to teach, otherwise they just can't do it" (PSET3: 421). This is in line with what LTE1 and LTE3 pointed out. LTE1 stated that *"knowledge of the content", "the pedagogy",* and

"the methodology" are *"vital"* for successful teaching (LTE1: 24-25). LTE3 stated that pedagogical knowledge for teachers is useful because it provides them with "practical teaching techniques for young learners, not for adults" (LTE3: 67-68).

Further data suggests that teachers were in need of pedagogical knowledge. Both PSET2 and PSET3 confirmed that they needed provision of pedagogical content knowledge for "personal development" as well as "professional development" (PSET2: 420; PSET3: 412).

Teachers with an English background including PSET4, PSET6, PSET10, and PSET13 admitted that they were lacking pedagogical content knowledge. PSET4 stated "it's very important" that she improved her knowledge of English pedagogy (PSET4: 436), while PSET10 stated that "knowledge of pedagogy should be in priority" (PSET10: 159). PSET13 needed to improve his knowledge of English language teaching methodology because "it leads to better pedagogy" (PSET13: 204). LTE4 specified that what these groups of teachers actually needed is provision of knowledge of *"how to handle children learning a foreign language"* (LTE4: 24). She emphasized the importance of this group of teachers to utilize the knowledge of English while at the same time highlighted the necessity to improve their pedagogical knowledge in dealing with children.

A quite different phenomenon appears in the cases of PSET7 and PSET8. Being graduates of SPG and PGSD who had lengthy experience of teaching English, the teachers did not find any particular difficulties when it comes to building a good rapport with students and accommodating their needs. However, they did not feel confident to teach English due to their lack of knowledge of English and poor proficiency. They felt that they were "incompetent teachers" (PSET8: 102) and that they needed "to learn knowledge of English" (PSET: 103). The presence of teachers like PSET7 and PSE8 who *"know how to handle children"* (LTE4: 14) but are lacking content knowledge specific to English was confirmed by LTE4, MEB2, and MEB1. LTE4 stated that what is needed by this group of teachers is *"the knowledge of English"* (LTE4: 41).

These findings demonstrate that more experienced teachers such as PSET7 and PSET8 exhibited superiority in their pedagogical practices but were lacking the content (knowledge of English). On the contrary, less experienced teachers such as PSET10 seemed to have performed well on the content areas but were poor when it comes to pedagogical knowledge. Furthermore, this also demonstrates that although 'pedagogical knowledge' differs significantly from 'content knowledge', both are integral component of language teacher education for primary school English teachers. LTE4 stated that teachers *"need the knowledge of English language"* (LTE4: 41). They also need specific provision of *"pedagogy on how to handle children who learn English as a foreign language"* (LTE4: 41). This provides evidence for the needs of pedagogical content knowledge for teachers in language teacher education as discussed in Chapter 1.

Knowledge of phonetics and phonology

Although various aspects of English teaching constitutes a considerable portion of knowledge-base of teaching English to Young Learners, participants asserted the importance of knowledge of phonetics and phonology. This knowledge enables teachers to point out the difference between English sounds whose subtlety may not be noticeable but largely determines one's accent. LTE3 articulated:

- 65 : they need to know the difference between singular and plural, they know the difference between
  66 : [food] and [foot]. They need to know the difference between [snack] and [snake], long e: and long
  67 : a:, and also the difference between /θ/, /ð/, /tʃ/, /sʏ/, /t/. (LTE3)

Teachers perceived knowledge of phonetics and phonology as important for them to be able to teach pronunciation successfully. PSET2 associated knowledge of phonetics and phonology with successful pronunciation teaching. She stated that if teachers do not understand the differences appearing in vowel lengths and word stresses then teachers will end up teaching "the wrong things to the students" (PSET2: 328-329). If teachers speak with poor pronunciation they "would teach their students the wrong things" (PSET2: 317). PSET8 stated that teachers "are not supposed to teach the wrong pronunciation to the students" (PSET8: 217).

An explanation for the commentaries above emerges from teachers' awareness of their role as a language model for primary school children. They pointed out that they are "the first model for the students" (PSET5: 416) and are possibly the only exposure to English that their students have. They realized that learners at primary level are in the stage of oral language reproduction of the accent of their teacher. Teachers further pointed out that teaching the wrong pronunciation "will largely adversely affect students' pronunciation" (PSET9: 79). They argued inaccurate production of English sounds occurring at early stages of learning extremely difficult to correct, especially if this persists throughout the entire process of one's learning development.

The findings of this section are parallel to the findings generated in Section 5.2.9. Examining how teachers placed a large emphasis on knowledge of phonetics and phonology, it is clear that they desired more tuition in this particular area of knowledge. To date research has shown that knowledge-base in teaching pronunciation commands little attention. Emphasis on knowledge of phonetics and phonology as suggested in this study therefore has invigorated what is called by Baker & Murphy (2011, p. 44) an attempt to "represent valuable source material for teacher education program".

5.4 Conclusion

In this chapter, results from the backgrounds of teachers show that the profile of teachers of English at primary level in Indonesia is diverse in terms of educational, linguistic, and occupational backgrounds. It has been demonstrated that teachers represented in the study are mostly those with a background in pre-service English education, but the majority of the English teaching professionals at primary level in Indonesia have no relevant qualification in English teaching. This implies results in this chapter must be read as indicative rather than representative of a national perspective on English teachers at

primary level. A study involving a larger number of participants is as a consequence needed to obtain a national perspective on primary school English teachers in Indonesia.

The responses of the LTEs and MEBs have been parallel to the data generated from the PSETs and classroom observations. It has been demonstrated that the needs of the teachers in terms of skills are closely related to their profile. Exceptions do exist but some general findings were applicable for generalizations. Teachers who attended pre-service English education were found to be more confident with their English proficiency, but were found in great need of provision of pedagogical techniques and exposure to young learners. On the contrary, teachers who graduated from PGSD and SPG were generally not confident with their English proficiency, but were more versatile in terms of their pedagogical practices and their skill in dealing with young learners. Teachers without an English background but had lengthy experience in dealing with young learners were struggling in several pedagogical areas and were not very much confident with their English proficiency. Further analysis on the data shows that teachers from all groups were lacking skills such as maintaining students' interest, planning contextually appropriate lessons, language proficiency, and integrating language skills; and these areas of skills deserve sufficient attention in language teacher education.

The findings in the chapter postulate that an epistemological base for the distinctive category of knowledge-base in teaching English to Young Learners is imperative for effective instruction. The findings of this study render support for the integration of the TESOL knowledge-base for teacher preparatory course as suggested by Richards (1998a), Freeman & Johnson (1998), Johnston & Goettsch (2000), and Fradd & Lee (1998). The model emerging from the study further advances a model on TESOL preparation program developed by Fradd & Lee (1998) and builds linkages on the intertwined and inseparable relationship between each set of knowledge for successful instruction.

The findings further demonstrate all teachers exhibited a great need of provision of knowledge of learners to recognize learners' learning strategy and develop learning

autonomy and to assist learners with learning difficulties. Teachers with limited experience displayed a great need of provision of contextual knowledge, as opposed to teachers with extensive teaching experiences who seemed to have well adjusted with their teaching environment. Teachers with extensive experiences and strong pedagogy preparation were in need of provision of knowledge of English with a particular reference to knowledge of phonetics and phonology, while teachers with an English background exhibited the need of provision of pedagogical knowledge. All these data are highly relevant to teacher education policymaking aimed in this study because, as suggested in Song & Cheng's (2011) study, the development of teacher education programs that cater for the need of a group of teachers of specific area requires ample data on the pedagogical practices of the teachers.

Various areas of needs of teachers have been identified, but the interplay of contextual factors cannot be ignored. Data from the interviews and classroom observations illustrates that a large number of students, limited teaching facilities, limited time, assessment factor, limited support in terms of lesson planning and curriculum design, the intrusion of educational bureaucrats to both curriculum and publishing domains, and disagreement between teachers and publishers over coursebook materials adversely affected the pedagogical practices of teachers. This suggests the various contextual constraints that are often influential in the pedagogical practices of teachers (Su, 2006). Two major areas of pedagogy in which teachers were affected by the interplay of these factors are classroom organization and lesson planning. The resurgence of interests of parents and the proliferation of small and large private English courses, as shown in Chapter 3, may have been generally positive for the development of English teaching at primary level in the country. However, teachers' motivation may also have largely been influenced, or even undermined, by the interplay of the aforementioned factors. This situation is exacerbated by their low employment status as well as the limited support that they receive from the central government.

All those aspects have formed the 'linguistic culture' (Schiffman, 1996) of primary school English teaching in Indonesia. The significance of linguistic culture is most apparent when the needs of teachers in the areas of coursebook and curriculum development, the use of first language in teaching English, and the contextual knowledge of teachers are taken into account in line with their multilingual skill and their employment status as non-civil servants. This calls for a place of linguistic culture in pre-service and in-service education for primary school English teachers. Teachers must be prepared with knowledge and skills to "understand, view, and value the challenges of languages and cultures education" in order to sustain their "motivation in often adverse language-teaching environments" (Crozet, 2008, p. 19).

This is significant especially in the light of suggestions set forth in Section 7.2.2 to prepare teachers with specific training in how to develop culturally appropriate curriculum and lesson plans to attend to the needs of the students. Such inclusion is an empowerment for teachers to develop appropriate skills and knowledge to become more active participants in decision making, not only at pedagogical level but also policymaking level. It is also relevant to the spirit of decentralization of education that is currently embraced by the Indonesian government while at the same time renders greater authority and autonomy to teachers (Sections 3.1.1 & 3.1.2).

Overall, the findings of this chapter have provided implications on teacher education at both pre-service and in-service levels. These findings will be considered in the subsequent chapters for analysis of the delivery of teacher education at pre-service and in-service levels and suggestions for policy on language teacher education that appear in Chapter 10.

Chapter 6

The Delivery of Pre-Service Education for Teachers of English at Primary Level and Suggestions for Improvement

6.0 Introduction

This chapter presents and discusses the responses of all groups of participants: PSETs (Primary School English Teachers), LTEs (Language Teacher Educators), MEBs (Members of Educational Board), PSPs (Primary School Principals), and ECs (Educational Consultants) to the following set of questions:

Question 6.0.1: Do you find pre-service education adequate to prepare teachers to teach English at primary level?

Question 6.0.2: If the pre-service is not adequate, what are your suggestions to improve it?

The results arising out of the two questions above were presented in sub-categories through focused coding as specified in Chapter 4. They were assessed against the relevant literature set out in Chapter 1, case studies in Chapter 2, the contextual factors of teachers and teacher education in Indonesia discussed in Chapter 3, and the findings generated in Chapter 5. Section 6.1 of this chapter presents results and discussion arising out of answers to question 6.0.1, while Section 6.2 provides results and discussion arising out of answers to question 6.0.2, as shown above. Section 6.3 summarizes the key points that have been discussed throughout the chapter.

6.1 Results and discussion arising out of answers to question: *Do you find pre-service education adequate to prepare teachers to teach English at primary level?*

Findings in this section are presented and discussed under the following sub-categories:

1. Pre-service education is not adequate
2. English departments are not specific
3. PGSD is not specific
4. Teacher educators in English departments are lacking the expertise in EYL

6.1.1 Pre-service education is not adequate

Table 6.1 Codes relating to pre-service education is not adequate

Groups of participants	Codes	Frequency of references
PSET	Teachers satisfied with pre-service education Teachers not satisfied with pre-service education	2 11
LTE	Pre-service education not adequate Pre-service education adequate	3 1
MEB	Pre-service education not adequate	2
PSP	Quality gap between pre-service education Pre-service education not adequate	1 2
EC	Pre-service education not adequate	2

As shown in Table 6.1, most responses from teachers show their dissatisfaction with their pre-service education, while responses from other groups of participants are congruent with the perceptions of teachers in highlighting the inadequacy of pre-service education in preparing student teachers to teach English in primary schools.

When asked whether their pre-service education was adequate to prepare them to teach English, none of the four teachers without background in English (PSET7, PSET8, PSET2, and PSET3) gave positive responses. Both PSET7 and PSET8 stated that in their pre-service education they were "prepared to become a classroom teacher", and not an English teacher (PSET8: 387). While PSET3 stated that he had "just graduated last year to become a Physics teacher" (PSET3: 485), PSET2 had graduated from an undergraduate degree "since 1996 to become a French teacher" (PSET2: 527).

Seven out of the nine teachers with an English background expressed dissatisfaction with their pre-service education in English departments; these include PSET1, PSET4, PSET5, PSET6, PSET9, PSET10, and PSET13. They pointed out that their pre-service education did not well-prepare them to successfully teach English at primary level. In the words of PSET9, "the knowledge for teaching English in primary schools is difficult" but what "we obtained from pre-service education is not sufficient" (PSET9: 284-285). Participants from other groups, namely LTE1, LTE4, LTE2, MEB2, MEB1, EC1, EC2, PSP1, and PSP3 expressed their agreement with this. LTE1 further stated that because pre-service education has not been able to prepare teachers to teach English in primary schools, the whole system needs a *"complete overhaul"* (LTE1: 181), whereas PSP3 pointed out that "little of what graduates receive from pre-service education can be applied" to their vocation as English teachers at primary level (PSP3: 75-76).

Only two teachers (PSET11 and PSET12) expressed their satisfaction with their pre-service teacher education in preparing them with sufficient knowledge and skills to teach English at primary level. The two teachers, who were graduates of State University of Malang, stated that their pre-service teacher education was "very useful" (PSET11: 321) and "was very helpful for developing the lessons, especially classroom management" (PSET: 511-512). Their opinion was supported by LTE3 who stated that the four credit-point TEYL (Teaching English to Young Learners) offered in State University of Malang was "adequate" to help prepare student teachers with skills and knowledge to teach English at primary level (LTE3: 211).

The findings above demonstrate a gap of quality occurring in teacher education programs at pre-service level in preparing teachers to teach English at primary level. While pre-service education institution such as State University of Malang was considered adequate, other pre-service education institutions were not. This view was articulated by PSP3:

- 100 : if we see e::h some pre-service education programs,
  101 : they have good English departments, they are adequate in terms
  102 : of preparing teachers to teach English at primary level, so when the graduates
  103 : teach in schools they are good already. But I could tell that there
  104 : are many pre-service that have not been able to prepare teachers to do so (PSP3)

Specific issues contributing to this gap of quality between one teacher education program and another are not discussed in this section but will be further examined in the subsequent sections.

6.1.2 English departments are not specific

Table 6.2 Codes relating to English departments are not specific

Groups of participants	Codes	Frequency of references
PSET	2 credit points EYL not sufficient	1
	English departments too theoretical	2
	English departments not practical	1
	English departments not specific	2
	English departments not sufficient	2
	English departments generic	1
LTE	English departments not practical	4
	English departments not specific	1
	English departments need improvement	1
	Curriculum very limited	1
MEB	English departments lacking update	1
	English departments not sufficient	1
	English departments not complex	1

PSP	EYL varies in quality English departments sufficient English departments not sufficient	1 1 1
EC	English departments not practical English departments not specific	1 1

Table 6.2 shows that the inadequacy of pre-service education in preparing English teachers at primary level was distinctively characterized by lack of specificity. Codes emerging from the data show that participants perceived English departments as, for example, 'not specific', 'not sufficient' and 'not practical'.

Seven out of nine teachers with an English background expressed dissatisfaction with their pre-service education in English departments; these include PSET1, PSET4, PSET5, PSET6, PSET9, PSET10, and PSET13. They pointed out that their pre-service education was not adequate because it did not specifically prepare them to successfully teach English at primary level. The lack of specificity of English departments here is not exclusive to English Language Education Program but also includes English Study Program (English Language and Literature), because the teachers who stated their dissatisfaction above graduated from these two streams of English departments (See Chapter 5 for details of teachers' educational background).

As shown in Table 6.2, the participants stated that English departments were "not specific", "not practical", "generic", and "too theoretical". Both PSET9 and PSET6 who graduated from English Education Program revealed the presently occurring gap between the theory they had received in their pre-service education and the classroom realities, while PSET9 highlighted that during pre-service education he was "not prepared to teach English to children" (PSET9: 292). PSET6 found it confusing when he had to apply his experience of "teaching practice in SMA that" he conducted "during his pre-service teacher education" in the primary school he was teaching (PSET6: 551).

The findings show that English programs place a large emphasis on the theoretical aspect of teaching. Teachers such as PSET6, PSET9, and PSET10 believed that English programs neglect the much portion of practical English pedagogy in pre-service education. PSET6 stated that English programs "have ignored the practical components as well as the teaching experience such as classroom management" (PSET6: 558). PSET10 stated that even though she undertook EYL in an English department, it did not provide her with opportunities to "prepare lessons and topics and to design materials that are appropriate for young learners" (PSET10: 214). In addition, PSET9 who graduated from an English department pointed out that "the knowledge we received in IKIP was limited, it was useful yes, but in terms of techniques and methods, it was very limited, very limited" (PSET9: 285-287).

Statements from teachers were consistent with that of participants from other groups of participants who identified English departments as being 'not specific', 'not practical', and 'lack of update'. Both English Study Program and English Education Program without EYL are not specifically designed to prepare student teachers to successfully teach English in primary schools. The student teachers in English Education Program in particular are trained to become teachers of English at junior and senior high school levels, and not primary schools. Both MEB2 and EC2 confirmed this in the following:

- 144 : so, the curriculum of English for Young Learners is
  145 : very limited, still limited. Because those who graduate from UNIMA, the undergraduate
  146 : students, are projected to become teachers of English in SMP and SMA (MEB2)
- 26 : Yes= in my view, in LPTK institution, as far as I am concerned, those teaching colleges
  27 : prepare their student teachers to become English teachers in SMP and SMA=
  28 : =Ah. (R)
  29 : not to teach English in primary schools… (EC2)

Participants further suggested that not all graduates of English Language Education Programs that offer EYL (English for Young Learners) are reliable because the programs are varied in terms of quality; not all programs are of exceptional quality. An English Education Program with EYL like the one in State University of Malang was claimed to be "very useful" (PSET11: 321) and *"adequate"* (LTE1: 211) for student teachers to help

prepare them for teaching English to Young Learners, even though it is only offered as an elective unit with four credit points. On the contrary, other English major programs like Kertanegara Academy were found "not specific" (PSET1: 337). PSET10 highlighted the inadequacy of 2 credit point EYL in Galuh University in tackling the complexity of young learner pedagogy. The theoretical base of the EYL unit in PSET10's preparatory course did not prepare her with psychology of learning, language learning strategies, and children language acquisition. She stated that "with only 2 credit points there are so many things we didn't cover" because "most of these 2 credit points are theories, very raw" (PSET10: 209-212).

LTE1 stated that teaching English to primary school children is considered *"JUST as complicated and as complex as teaching OLDER children, if not MORE so, MORE difficult, MORE challenging"* than teaching in high schools (LTE1: 21-22), but practical components that prepare student teachers with hands on experience have not been given strong emphasis in the curriculum of English departments. Furthermore, the programs do not place a large emphasis on methodology units such as "*how to teach* (.) *speaking, how to teach reading, how to teach writing"* and provides no specific reference to prepare students teachers with young learner pedagogy (LTE2: 126). Components such as "teaching methods, learning strategies, as well as using learning facilities, and most importantly the contents in language teaching" are the ones that have often been missing in English major programs (MEB1: 149-151).

LTE1 made a remark that during the early years of pre-service teacher education *"there's too much time wasted and not enough time spent on the practical skills of teaching"* (LTE1: 170-171). A practical framework of reference to young learner pedagogy has been missing in the early years of initial training, but in replacement irrelevant courses have taken place in the curriculum. During the first year of their pre-service teacher education student teachers *"have got to do citizenship", "religion"* and other units that were deemed irrelevant to language pedagogy (LTE1: 31). This explains that even when practical components do exist they are usually provided near the completion of the teacher

education program, or in LTE3's words *"it is not until later in their course that they do teaching practice"* (LTE1: 31). LTE4 agreed with LTE1 as she stated that many English major programs *"are very much focusing on"* topics or units *"which are not related to the teaching itself"* (LTE4: 154-155).

Due to these limitations, EC2 stated that graduates of English programs are not ready to teach English successfully at primary level because "they are lacking practical training during their pre-service education" (EC2: 560). EC1 made a cautionary remark:

- 30 : do not assume that those who graduate from UPI or other teaching colleges
  31 : are capable of teaching English at primary level proportionately (EC1).

Chapter 3 highlighted the absence of a specific Concentration on Teaching English to Young Learners from the current curricula of English departments at pre-service level. The findings generated from this study challenge the current system that only allows those interested in primary school English teaching to come from either one of the three majors: English Language and Literature, English Language Education without EYL, and English Language Education with EYL. As Anderson & Mitchener (1994) argued, many programs on teachers' professional development do not stipulate consistent conceptual framework of reference that prepares student teachers with specific knowledge and skills pertaining to their occupational needs. It is evident that the current three majors provide inconsistent conceptual framework of reference that would allow adequate preparation for prospective teachers to teach English at primary level.

Relying on the current system that offers no specific preparation to teachers of English at primary level provides no long-term solutions. The present pre-service English departments are insufficient to cater for the particular needs of teaching English at primary level. Even in English Language Education Departments that offer EYL, as in the cases of PSET1 and PSET10, the allocation of 2 credit points of EYL was proven inadequate to tackle the increasing demand of primary English teaching.

6.1.3 PGSD is not specific

Table 6.3 Codes relating to PGSD is not specific		
Groups of participants	**Codes**	**Frequency of references**
PSET	PGSD not sufficient input on English PGSD not to teach English Teachers from English departments desired Employing PGSD graduates not prudent	4 2 1 1
LTE	PGSD to teach other subjects	2
EC	PGSD to teach other subjects	1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from MEB and PSP

Table 6.3 shows that PGSD is not specific to prepare teachers of English to teach in primary schools. Evidence in this study shows that PGSD is one of the two approaches that are currently used in pre-service education to produce primary school English teachers. According to EC1, the first approach is "English department which focuses on English" and the second approach is "PGSD or Teacher Education for Primary School Teacher which focuses on several different subjects" (EC1: 119-121).

Over reliance on PGSD to produce English teachers was however reproached by three groups of participants: teachers, teacher educators, and educational consultants because it does "not provide sufficient input on English", is "not aimed to teach English", and is actually aimed "to teach other subjects". The findings of this study show that the issue with pre-service teacher education for English teachers in Indonesia is distinctively marked by a lack of specificity. Participants argued that PGSD is not adequate in preparing student teachers to successfully teach English in primary schools because "graduates of PGSD are prepared to become classroom teachers" (LTE3: 15-16) in order to "teach various subjects and not a particular subject (English)" (EC2: 194).

The findings further show that provision of English language proficiency has been missing from PGSD. PSET8 who graduated from PGSD stated that exposure to English is limited to a unit called *English for University Students,* which is offered for 2-4 credit points (100-200 minutes/week). This created confusion to PSET8 in making a linkage between theoretical references she had studied in her pre-service teacher education with the particular situation of teaching English to young learners. This is particularly relevant especially when she realized that her "knowledge of English" and "English proficiency" are both "far from adequate" (PSET8: 111). LTE4 pointed out that as a consequence of such limited provision of English, graduates of PGSD

- *14 : have e::h almost no proficiency in using English, in using English but they have some knowledge*
  15 : of English. E:: But they have been teaching English in primary school for some time, so
  16 : they understand about how to handle children↓, and, and how they ACTUALLY e:h talk with
  17 : children in the first language but they have NO English to deliver the messages. (LTE4)

This inevitably results in the occurrence of a phenomenon in which "the right person is not in the right place. Teachers have to teach English, but their background is not English" (PSET11: 368-369). The fact that PGSD graduates "have not been prepared to teach English" (PSET8: 316) makes the employment of teachers with no English background is "not a prudent decision".

Chapter 3 discussed the employment of PGSD graduate teachers, while Chapter 5 showed that there is a teacher who graduated from PGSD (PSET8) or even lower (SPG: PSET7). The findings in this section challenge the employment of this kind of teachers. As shown in Chapter 3, PGSD may enable student teachers to acquire knowledge and skills related to young learner pedagogy, classroom pedagogy, theories of teaching, educational philosophies, teaching practicum, and learning assessment but may not prepare them with sufficient English skills. This further indicates that providing student teachers with knowledge and skills on young learner pedagogy, classroom pedagogy, and theories of teaching without particular reference of how they are useful to teach English is groundless. While 'pedagogical knowledge' is provided, similar provision is not made on the area of 'content knowledge'. Insufficient preparation for primary school English

teaching is apparent. This clearly suggests that PGSD is not an ideal avenue for those prospective teachers wishing to pursue a career in primary school English teaching.

6.1.4 Teacher educators in English departments are lacking the expertise in EYL

Table 6.4 Codes relating to teacher educators in English departments are lacking the expertise in EYL

Groups of participants	Codes	Frequency of references
PSET	Teacher educators in State University of Malang qualified	1
LTE	Teacher educators in English departments old fashioned Teacher educators in English departments not a good model Teacher educators in English departments do not give examples Teacher educators in English departments lacking exposure to EYL	1 2 1 2
EC	Teacher educators in English departments not a good model	1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from MEB and PSP

Data from three participants (LTE1, LTE4, and EC2) in table 6.4 shows that the delivery of English programs is distinctively marked by the lack of expertise of teacher educators with skills and knowledge related to EYL teaching.

LTE1 argued that there are many *"old-fashioned lecturers"* whose teaching practices are in contradiction to what they prescribe (LTE1: 664). LTE3 pointed out that "the lecturers should become a model" but unfortunately "many lecturers teach but do not give examples" to the student teachers (LTE3: 218-219). They are incapable of giving *"inspiration"* and *"ideas to the teachers, to the candidate teachers on how to actually handle the learners"* (LTE4: 114-115). Student teachers are given preparation in general pedagogy but are left without sufficient theoretical knowledge and practical ideas on how to deal with young learners.

When teacher educators fail to give examples as well as to become model for their student teachers, it indicates a gap between theory and practice, which has been considered the most common occurring problem in pre-service education as suggested by Morais, Neves, & Alfonso (2005). For instance, teacher educators are old-fashioned in their practice when they make a call for a constructivist approach that puts a large emphasis on reflection but employ knowledge-transmission approach of teacher education. They argue for an active teaching-learning process but actually implement a passive teaching-learning process.

LTE4 further pointed out that the main reason for all of these is because the teacher educators do not have sufficient exposure to classroom practice. This is evident in the following:

- *113 : so many lecturers in English departments in Indonesia .hhh have no exposure to the classroom*
  114 : practice and therefore it's very hard for them to give inspiration, to give ideas to the teachers,
  115 : to the candidate teachers on how to actually handle the class…
  116 : … So I guess, e:h the failure of teacher training in our context
  117 : is because the lecturer, which e:h, you know, which they have to call themselves trainer
  118 : instead of lecturer focus very much on concepts of teaching instead of showing. While
  119 : in primary school teachers are demanded to be very u::h… (LTE4)
  120 : … [practi]cal a:::nd become the strong model. (LTE4)

It is worth noting that findings relating to the lack of expertise of teacher educators in knowledge and skills related to teaching English at primary level were generated almost exclusively from language teacher educators. None of the school principals, members of educational board, and educational consultants raised their concerns on this particular issue. Most teachers also did not express any views in regard to the quality of teacher educators. The only commentary gathered from teachers came from PSET11 who stated that "all teacher educators in State University of Malang are qualified experts" (PSET11: 321).

PSET11's statement above should not be seen contradictory to the evidence generated from teacher educators. It instead has further indicated that there is a gap of quality between teacher educators in various English departments across universities in Indonesia. EC2 provided a similar view:

- 230 : in big universities, so far, we have good human resources.
  231 : Some teaching colleges like UPI and other LPTKs, they have good human resources,
  232 : in my opinion, but others no. (EC2)

This finding provides explanation as to why there is a gap of quality between English departments as highlighted in section 6.1.1 and is consistent with Luciana's (2006) contention in regard to the presently occurring gap of quality of teacher educators in English departments. The bulk of teacher educators in English departments consists of those who are not satisfactorily competent and have inadequate exposure to classroom practice, much less to young learner pedagogy. This has contributed to the fact that English departments in general are not adequate to prepare teachers to teach English at primary level.

This is closely intertwined to the findings discussed throughout Chapter 5 that highlight the inadequate preparation of teachers at pre-service level. It is reasonable to infer that the problems occurring in pre-service preparation for primary school English teachers in English departments such the lack of specificity and limited provision of practical components (Section 6. 1. 2) are primarily caused by the teacher educators lacking the desired expertise in teaching EYL. In other words, such inadequate preparation for teachers of English at primary level is predominantly attributed to the absence of teacher educators with relevant expertise and experience in teaching English to young children.

6.2 Results and discussion arising out of answers to question: *If the pre-service is not adequate, what are your suggestions to improve it?*

Findings in this section are presented and discussed under the following sub-categories:

1. Concentration on EYL in English departments
2. Certification in EYL in English departments
3. Provision of practical components in English departments
4. Improving the language proficiency of student teachers
5. Training scheme for teacher educators
6. Provision of English in PGSD
7. Overhaul of pre-service education

6.2.1 Concentration on EYL in English departments

Table 6.5 Codes relating to Concentration on EYL in English departments

Groups of participants	Codes	Frequency of references
PSET	2 credit points EYL not sufficient	1
LTE	Similar to other concentration in English Concentration allows specific EYL Concentration very important Teaching in SD more complicated than SMA Concentration developed at specific level	1 1 2 1 1
EC	Concentration very necessary EYL Increasingly popular Concentration developed at specific level	1 1 1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from MEB and PSP

Section 6.1.2 suggested that the current system of pre-service education is not adequate to cater for the particular needs of those working in primary school English teaching. Codes in Table 6.5 show that participants agreed upon the 'necessity' to develop a Concentration on EYL in English departments in order to provide specific preparation for teaching English at primary level.

EC2, for example, argued that "professionalism of English teachers at primary level is different from teaching English in SMP or SMA. So it's specific, only for SD" (EC2: 102-103). This demonstrates that emphasis on young learner pedagogy in English programs is of significant importance if preparation for English teaching at primary level is to be optimum. EC2 pointed out that

- 296 : we have to be serious in preparing English teachers in primary schools
  297 : by opening a CONCENTRATION which specifically prepares undergraduate students
  298 : from semester 6, 7, or 8 to prepare them to become teachers of English
  299 : at primary level. I think this is very important. (EC2)

EC2 compared Concentration on English for Young Learners with other concentrations such as "literature and linguistics" which are present "in some English departments or faculties" (EC2: 60-61). Concentration on English for Young Learners gains more importance considering the fact that an increasing number of students are now interested in undertaking EYL. This was pointed out by EC2 in the following:

- 54 : … So in my view,
  55 : there are some students who are now interested in doing
  56 : English for Young Learners, because they are hoping that after completing their study
  57 : they could get a job on THIS AREA…

The popularity of the English for Young Learners is also apparent in the fact that students "write their undergraduate thesis on the subject", while their lecturers "are asked to give lectures on it" (EC2: 38-41). It is also of no surprise that some English departments "modify and revise their curriculum by including a unit under the umbrella of English for Young Learners" (EC1: 62-63). These facts altogether are sufficient reason that "teaching colleges prepare a concentration on English for Young Learners" (EC2: 57-58).

The findings also demonstrate that Concentration on English for Young Learners is best developed at specific level within pre-service education. LTE4 pointed out that establishing Concentration on English for Young Learners needs to be done *"on a certain level"* (LTE4: 171). Reflecting on her experience in undertaking EYL with 2 credit points,

PSET10 stated that "within 2 credit points in one semester there are so many things we didn't cover" (PSET10: 209). In dealing with this issue, LTE4 suggested *"sixty to eighty hours"* or *"8 credit points"* is minimum (LTE4: 177), while EC2 specified "semesters 6, 7, and 8" are ideal for student teachers to embark on concentration in English for Young Learners (EC2: 298). LTE4 stated that early years of English programs must ensure provision of *"fundamental principles of teaching English in general FIRST"* before later on provide exposure to *"teaching to young learners"* with focus on aspects such as developing materials for young learners (LTE4: 172-175).

The proposal for establishing Concentration on EYL within English Language Education program challenges the currently practiced EYL unit which is offered in many English departments as an elective unit offered with 2-4 credit points as described in Chapter 3. The Concentration provides the answer to Nunan (2003, p. 609) who stated that "with the introduction of English at the primary school level, teachers need special training in the needs of younger learners". The Concentration is also consistent with Raja's (2011) suggestion that professional preparation in which student teachers are fully equipped with foundations to teaching English in primary schools in Indonesia is best developed within a specific concentration.

While the Concentration provides the answers to the absence of specific preparation in teaching English for Young Learners raised in Section 6.1.2, it also ought to be an appropriate response to the absence of specific policy directive that specifies the minimum qualification of English teachers at primary level. It has been demonstrated in Chapter 3 that the implementation of Chapter 1 of The Decree of Minister of National Education Republic of Indonesia No. 8/2009 on Professional Education Program for Teachers requires graduates of English Education Program and English Study Program who wish to pursue a career in English teaching to undertake the professional education program for teachers (*Pendidikan Profesi Guru*) or PPG in a longer period of time. With the new scheme, student teachers who wish to pursue a career in primary English teaching do not have to undertake their pre-service teacher education in a longer time because they

could simply enrol in Concentration on English for Young Learners during their pre-service education. This is also parallel to the stipulation made in Chapter 34 of Act No. 20/2003 on The National Education System because teachers are required to possess a minimum qualification, which is linear to their level and area of expertise.

The development of a specific Concentration on teaching English for Young Learners is a policy measure developed in countries such as Taiwan (Tsao, 2008) and South Korea (Ministry of Education of Republic of South Korea, 1998), but its establishment is more than likely to face a dilemma without a specific policy directive for pre-service education. As shown in the case of China (Ministry of Education of People's Republic of China, 2001), pre-service education needs clear a policy directive that stipulates the execution of the policy measure. This suggests that the establishment of the Concentration on EYL in Indonesia is groundless without a specific policy directive legalized by the Indonesian government.

6.2.2 Certification in EYL in English departments

Table 6.6 Codes relating to Certification in EYL in English departments

Groups of participants	Codes	Frequency of references
EC	Certification aimed for alumni	1
	Certification easy to prepare	1
	Transferrable subjects available	1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from PSET, LTE, MEB, and PSP

Table 6.6 reveals codes pertaining to the establishment of Certification in English for Young Learners. This provides an answer to the issue raised in Section 6.1.2 that relying on the current system of pre-service education is not sufficient to cater for the particular needs of those working in primary school English teaching.

The findings were exclusively generated from Educational Consultants (EC1 and EC2) who viewed Certification in English for Young Learners is a viable option that is aimed for student teachers who have already completed their undergraduate degree from English programs. EC2 stated that:

- 218 : we have alumni of English departments, right?
  219 : Why don't we further prepare them by posting them to university to attend
  220 : one more semester, and then we work very hard to prepare them.
  221 : I could see this is more feasible, it's much easier. That's because
  222 : they have already mastered the methodology after completing 150 credit points,
  223 : perhaps they just need to add another 20 credit points for one semester, which
  224 : then enables them to obtain a certificate to formally teach English
  225 : at primary level (EC2)

EC2 did not specify which type of the English department he was referring to in the commentary above. However his statement that "they have already mastered methodology after completing 150 credit points" (EC2: 222) infers the certification is applicable to student teachers who have graduated from English Language Education without undertaking English for Young Learners. Allowing the alumni of this program to undertake Certification in English for Young Learners is "much easier than educating teachers from scratch just to become English teachers in primary schools" (EC2: 234-235). He believed that the government just needs "to trust an LPTK to organize it" because several LPTKs such as Indonesian University of Education and State University of Malang "have sufficient human resources" which in his view "are good enough" to develop Certification in English for Young Learners (EC2: 230-234).

The finding also shows the transferability nature of Certification in EYL as stated by EC1:

- 75 : In my view, because there are some principles
  76 : that are transferrable in other subjects…
  79 : … Because there are lots of things that need to be covered
  80 : in primary school English teaching can be covered in other subjects. (EC1).

This transferability nature of the certification well suits the provision of components as varied as theories in children language acquisition, psychology of learning, as well as material development for young learners that are needed by primary school English teachers as suggested in Chapter 5. This implies that upon completion of the pre-service education the student teachers are able to continue with the Certification with specific focus on those areas. Prospective students will benefit from such a scheme because they could attend courses that are relevant to young learner pedagogy, provided they have not undertaken one.

Certification in EYL ought to provide greater flexibility for them to "obtain a certificate to formally teach English at primary level" (EC2: 224-225). This certificate is Certification in English for Young Learners, and not Teacher Professional Certificate that provides general preparation in pedagogy as stipulated by Chapter 1 of The Decree of Minister of National Education Republic of Indonesia No. 40/2007. This suggests that the formulation of Certification in English for Young Learners in lieu of Teacher Professional Certificate ought to provide an appropriate response to Chapter 29 of The Government Law of Republic Indonesia No. 19/2005 On National Standard on Education that requires teachers' professional certification.

The establishment of Certification in English for Young Learners is a policy measure that is non-existent in other countries under scrutiny as shown in Chapter 1; none of the countries that introduce English at primary level offers Certification in English for Young Learners to English department graduates. However, the results of the study demonstrate the necessity of such certification in order to prepare adequate preparation for alumni of English departments wishing to embark on primary school English education. Such policy measure is an original initiative that allows those teachers without formal qualification in teaching EYL to be professionally certified; its successful implementation is contingent on a specific policy directive.

6.2.3 Provision of practical components in English departments

Table 6.7 Codes relating to provision of practical components in English departments		
Groups of Participants	**Codes**	**Frequency of References**
PSET	Teaching techniques	1
LTE	Practical components early	2
	Practical components priority	1
	Practical components important	3
	Communicative approach	1
	Methodology	1
	Teaching techniques	4
	MKDU important	2
	Methodology	2
	Pedagogy	1
	Testing	1
	Communicative approach	1
	Learner-centered	1
	Psychology of development	1
	Knowledge of learners	1
	Learning styles	2
	Knowledge of contents	2
	Observation	1
	Technology of teaching	1
	Classroom management	3
	Content-based teacher education	1
MEB	MKDU important	1
	Contents up to date	1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from PSP and EC

Table 6.7 reveals codes that highlight that English departments need to be more practical oriented in order to accommodate the needs of TEYL (Teaching English to Young Learners). This provides the answer to the deficiency of English departments that do not provide sufficient provision of practical components raised in Section 6.1.2.

Participants suggested that the inclusion of practical components in English departments means the inclusion of practical activities that student teachers will need in their working environment. This requires an emphasis "*on the practical side of teaching and what teachers are gonna be facing in the real life classroom in the future" (LTE1: 171-172).* Similarly, LTE4 pointed out that the inclusion of practical components in English programs should be *"the content"* that student teachers *"need for the purpose of their teaching, for the profession"* as English teachers at primary level (LTE4: 152-152).

Evidence generated from the study also shows that the coverage of contents of Concentration on English for Young Learners needs to keep abreast with the current development in relation to young learner pedagogy. MEB1 has stated that

- 139 : … so, e::hm, in my view, .hhh (.)
  140 : *pre-service training* ((clearing throat)) in its practice, needs to be constantly updated= (MEB1)
  141 : =they need to be updated (R)

Findings from the study show that current developments in English teaching and young learners must place equal emphasis on both knowledge and practical experience. Participants suggested that the knowledge includes "*knowledge of content, and the knowledge of the learners"* and *"their learning styles"*, (LTE1: 24-25); "approaches to learning", "psychology of learner development" (MEB1: 1420143) and approaches such as *"communicative approach"* and *"learner-centered"* (LTE1: 174-175). In terms of practical experience, participants maintained that student teachers at pre-service level need to have "strong teaching techniques, methodology, didactic", be equipped with "components on testing" (LTE3: 242-243), and be given "*lots of experience of u:hm observing other teachers teach" (LTE1: 24).* Provision of "*methodology, pedagogy, learning styles, and the content of course"* and how to use *"technology of teaching"* to teach was also deemed necessary (LTE1: 43-44).

LTE4 highlighted the importance of *"content-based teacher education"* which allows a great degree of flexibility for teacher educators to incorporate content within the skills (LTE4: 131). For example, current theories or methodologies in language pedagogy can be

embedded within *"reading lesson, writing lesson, and speaking lesson"* (LTE4: 147). Thus group discussions that are employed during tutorials in pre-service teacher education would focus on *"how to set up pair work in large classes",* for example (LTE4: 149-150). PSET1 suggested that the discussions could also emphasize practical ideas such as "how to properly teach a classroom consisting of more than 30 students" (PSET1: 387-388).

Thus far, areas of knowledge and skills such as knowledge of learners and learners' styles, classroom management, technology of teaching, using learner-centered approach, among others, have been perceived as important. Clearly these areas cannot be understood single-handedly; they must be seen parallel to the findings generated in Chapter 5 that pointed out that teachers need provision of skills such as integrating language skills, providing feedback and correcting error, maintaining students' interests, and dealing with a wide range of learners. These are contents of practical components that need to be addressed in English departments to tackle the needs of primary school English teaching.

Despite the emphasis on practical components, participants also maintained that MKDU (*Mata Kuliah Dasar Umum* or General Component Units) must not be excluded. Commentaries by participants such as LTE3 and MEB2 show that MKDU are essential in the development of character building of student teachers and cannot be removed from the curriculum at the expense of practical components. This is evident in the following:

- 252 : Because in order to build the characters,
  253 : the teachers, eh, why we need to give them Indonesian as an MKDU? MKDU, right?
  254 : That's because being an English teacher does not necessarily mean they could
  255 : speak Indonesian in any way they like! (LTE3)
- 161 : from the objective of tertiary education, because tertiary education is
  162 : still in the process of building characters. So which character are we focusing on to prepare
  163 : student teachers after they complete their study? Still the character of Indonesians, for
  164 : example, Civic Education, we need it, eh, strengthening the use of Indonesian language,
  165 : as what, the pride of Indonesian people, it's necessary. We don't want our graduating
  166 : student teachers, when they speak to their students, they cannot use it properly (MEB2)

The findings above indicate that English departments that aim to prepare English teachers at primary level need to accommodate the presence of both of practical components as well as general component units (MKDU). While the need for including practical component has been argued throughout the section, MKDU are irreplaceable in the development of character building of student teachers. The extent to which practical components are catered for in the curriculum in order to well attend to the need of primary school English teachers is however beyond the scope of this research. It is best left for further research.

6.2.4 Improving the language proficiency of student teachers

Table 6.8 Codes relating to improving the language proficiency of student teachers		
Groups of participants	**Codes**	**Frequency of references**
LTE	Content-based teacher education necessary Using technology to improve proficiency Blended learning necessary Developing learner autonomy	1 2 1 1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from PSET, MEB, PSP, and EC

Table 6.8 lists all the codes that are linked to the necessity to improve the language proficiency of student teachers at pre-service level. Data from participants demonstrates that English departments need to develop 'content-based teacher education' and 'learner autonomy' when attempting to improve the English language proficiency of student teachers.

English departments need to ensure that theories in teaching methodology, for example, are inherently embedded within a reading or writing lesson. This is evident in the following:

- *145 : let' say< two hundred hours or three hundred hours of exposure> to the skill, and then we*

146 : get exposed them to the content. So they still continue IMPROVING their skill, but within

147 : that skill we actually include teaching technique, etc. So in reading materials, the theory

148 : is embedded in their listening lesson, in their reading lesson↓, their writing lesson↓, and in

149 : the speaking lesson. So the DISCUSSION, for example, is focused on let's say discussing

150 : how WE set up pair work in large class. It's STILL discussion, IMPROVING their English

151 : but their English here… (LTE4)

152 : is already good enough= (R)

153 : =is already good enough but also the content that they talked ABOUT is the content that we

154 : need for the purpose of their teaching, for the profession. (LTE4)

- *131 :… Content-based educa…, e:h, content-based teacher education that I say e::h, is like this.*

  132 : <so> at the BEGINNING, at the beginning of the year of the teacher education probably

  133 : <the candidate teachers> can be exposed very much on the skill. So they, they are pushed into

  134 : skills, ah, speaking skills, writing skills and NOW with the development of technology

  135 : in fact, things like grammar, pronunciation can be just digitally set up, right?↑ (LTE4)

- 241 : Yes, I think we need to fill in with (2.0) all language skills, so they are strong, the

  242 : *language components* are strong (LTE3)

The suggestion to improve the language proficiency of student teachers in this section exclusively came from one group of participants: LTEs. This is reasonably grounded due to the fact that they are the ones who have been training teachers at both pre-service and in-service levels, hence knowing the needs of teachers in terms of skills and knowledge (Section 4.1.2). This contention gains more importance considering the findings that show that nine out of twelve teachers were not confident with their language proficiency (Section 5.2.9) and the results from other studies that show that the majority of English teaching professionals at primary level in Indonesia are not proficient users of English (Suyanto, 2010; Agustina, et al., 1997; Suyanto & Chodidjah, 2002; Susanto, 1998; Lestari, 2003; Dardjodiwjodo, 2000; Jazadi, 2000). Clearly, an emphasis on language proficiency must not be neglected in the development of language teacher education for primary school English teachers. As suggested by Murdoch (1994) and Cullen (1994), efforts to develop the teaching competence of teachers must go hand in hand with the ones aimed to improve their language proficiency.

It has been suggested that teacher education must place specific focus on improving areas related to oral skills such as fluency and pronunciation (Section 5.2.9). Findings generated in this study show that efforts to achieve proficiency in these areas are viable through the utilization of technologies in language teacher education. Student teachers can actually utilize *"the development of technology"* (LTE4: 134) to improve their language skills such as speaking, writing, reading, listening, grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary. LTE4 suggested that the utilization of technologies in this context means the encouragement from teacher educators to student teachers to use appropriate ESL/EFL software to practice their pronunciation *"on their own time"* (LTE4: 137). The teacher educators could *"focus on very much other skills that need the presence of the, of the trainer"* and teacher educators could *"have the intervals of checking" the progress of the student teachers"* (LTE4: 139-144).

LTE4's contention above suggests the utilization of blended learning in teacher education. Hall & Knox (2009) showed that an integrated approach in the use of technology in language teacher education has been claimed positive for the development of both language proficiency as well as pedagogical competence of student teachers. English programs could utilize technologies for further assisting various skills in which student teachers are particularly struggling with.

Such practice is advisable in the light of recent approaches to language teacher education that place a large emphasis on learner autonomy as suggested in Chapter 1. It is a useful measure for developing their autonomous learning without necessarily ruling out the continuous support and encouragement in the supervision given by their teacher educators. Doing so means student teachers would no longer be seen as mere recipients of knowledge but rather as active participants in the development of their knowledge as well as language and pedagogical skills. It is also in line with recent development of language teacher education that places a larger emphasis on "the promotion of a shift from teacher educator-directed learning to student-directed learning among student teachers" (Lunenberg & Korthagen, 2003, p. 41).

6.2.5 Provision of English in PGSD

Table 6.9 Codes relating to provision of English in PGSD		
Groups of participants	**Codes**	**Frequency of references**
PSET	PGSD graduates to teach English	1
LTE	More English for PGSD student teachers	1
EC	More English for PGSD student teachers	2

No findings in this sub-category were generated from MEB and PSP

Table 6.9 encompasses codes that refer to the necessity to provide more components on English in PGSD in order to attend to the needs of primary schooling English education. This provides an answer to the concern raised in Section 6.1.3 that PGSD is not an ideal avenue to prepare those interested in primary school English teaching.

Participants provided responses that show agreement for more provision of English for prospective teachers in PGSD. PSET13 even encouraged the government to "prepare PGSD graduates to teach English" (PSET13: 311-312). This is important because the employment of teachers with strong English proficiency is a "much better" solution (PSET8: 476). EC2 provided his agreement in the following:

- 196 : This means that if the policy is going to take place we need to equip
  197 : the subject teachers and by the same token, these class
  198 : teachers also need to be trained↑ So they who enter PGSD need to get
  199 : a lot of SKS so they could (.) develop themselves in order to teach
  200 : English when it's needed. So we do this from various ways. There is a pre-service that is
  201 : aimed for subject teachers, but there are also class teachers who also
  202 : teach English, and they need such training as well. They need skills in teaching English.
  203 : So this means there is extra courses that we place in PGSD (EC2)

The evidence above suggests that deliberate efforts to ensure the applicability of units relevant to English in PGSD are desirable in order to compensate for their lack of

knowledge of English and poor English proficiency. This is particularly relevant especially because, as shown in Chapter 5, teachers who graduate from PGSD or SPG (PSET7 and PSET8) were not confident with their language proficiency. This means student teachers in PGSD expecting to become classroom teachers upon completion of their studies need to be given strong provision of language skills to boost their English proficiency. Furthermore, provision of English-related knowledge is also significant to fill in the gap of what has been missing in PGSD pre-service education as shown in Chapter 3: specific knowledge and skills related to language acquisition and language teaching methodologies. The provision of more relevant units to teaching English for Young Learners is expected to tackle the issue of specificity in PGSD.

According to LTE3, a relatively small number of PGSD programs have initiated the opening of some units relevant to preparing student teachers to teach English to children. LTE3 stated that "some PGSD programs have prepared student teachers with English units" so that "once their student teachers graduate from the program they could teach English" (LTE3: 18-19). Although evidence of the extent as to how these programs have been truly successful in preparing student teachers to teach English in SD has not been available in the literature, equipping student teachers in PGSD with strong English skills is desirable.

Section 6.1.3 showed that PGSD is not an ideal avenue for preparing student teachers to teach English at primary level. In addition, the employment of PGSD graduate teachers to teach English at primary level is also a violation to Chapter 34 of Act No. 20/2003 which requires teachers to possess a relevant undergraduate degree to the subject they are teaching. PGSD is aimed for primary school English teaching, thus the graduates of this program are expected to become classroom teachers but not English teachers. However, given Indonesia's vast territory and enormous population, many teachers are needed in rural and remote areas, and in such circumstance the appointment of PGSD graduate teachers to teach English is inevitable.

The findings of this section suggest that if student teachers at PGSD are to be appointed English teachers, they need to be prepared with sufficient 'content knowledge' of English

while at the same time displaying a high level of English proficiency. Only by doing so can PGSD provide specific reference to primary school English teaching and deliver quality education in order to appropriately respond to the challenges and demands of the occupation. This infers that it is necessary to establish a policy directive that would allow such appointment to take place while at the same time providing the prospective teachers with sufficient English skills. In other words, further specification of teachers' expertise amongst PGSD graduates is imperative to tackle the needs of teaching English in primary schools.

6.2.6 Training scheme for teacher educators

Table 6.10 Codes relating to training scheme for teacher educators

Groups of Participants	Codes	Frequency of References
LTE	EYL exposure to teacher educators Teacher educators must be trained to be more interactive Training for teacher educators important	2 2 2
EC	Teacher educators must be a language model	2

No findings in this sub-category were generated from PSET, MEB, and PSP

Table 6.10 lists the codes that are linked to the importance of a training scheme for teacher educators to help them teach EYL at pre-service level. Participants agreed upon the notion that improving the quality of teacher educators is imperative in an attempt to provide quality instruction for preparing prospective teachers of English at primary level. This is relevant in response to the findings of Section 6.1.4 that highlight that the poor delivery of English programs was contributed by poor quality of teacher educators.

First, participants suggested that teacher educators at pre-service level must be given considerable provision of exposure to young learner pedagogy. The reason is because when they have insufficient exposure to young learner pedagogy it is difficult for them to inspire their students who are in training to become teachers. LTE3 stated that a teacher

educator who "trains student teachers but knows nothing of primary school English teaching is a lie. It's a big non-sense" (LTE3: 117-118). For this reason, EC1 pointed out that "lecturers and professors at tertiary education should teach in primary schools, if they really know how to teach" (EC1: 261-262). Such an opportunity would provide them with a good grasp of classroom challenges that student teachers have when teaching young learners. It would also provide them with in depth analysis on the rationale of their teaching practices or teaching techniques that would be useful for student teachers.

This suggests that preparation for student teachers to teach English at primary school is groundless without adequate preparation given to teacher educators who have no specific knowledge and skills relevant to Teaching English to Young Learners. Clearly preparation for student teachers to become competent teachers of English at primary level requires considerable attention be given to teacher educators. LTE4 has stated that *"if we cannot guarantee the trainers, then why, why bother having those trainings?"* (LTE4: 292-293). EC2 pointed out:

- 241 : E::h, in my opinion, in order to produce professional teachers, the first thing
  242 : to do is that, the lecturers at pre-service have to be professional. This is
  243 : VERY important. (EC2)

This is in line with current literature in teacher education. Korthagen, Loguhran, & Russell (2006) stated that "learning about teaching is enhanced when the teaching and learning approaches advocated in the program are modeled by teacher educators in their own practice" (2006, p. 1034). Only when teacher educators are familiar with the daily challenges in primary school English teaching can they inspire their student teachers. The congruency of action of teacher educators with what they teach means the abilities of teacher educators to become role models and to explain the pedagogical and didactical choices they employ in the classroom (Lunenberg & Korthagen, 2003).

Second, evidence from this study reveals that it is necessary for teacher educators to be a good language model for their student teachers. EC1 stated that "anyone who is interested in developing teaching English in primary schools has to ensure the existence of

teacher educators who are capable of becoming a model" (EC1: 264-265). Clearly if student teachers are expected to have good language proficiency, then teacher educators should have good proficiency themselves. Teacher educators should have "very good command of English, with whatever variety they have, their pronunciation has to be very good. Eh, if possible, it has to be close to native speakers of English" (EC1: 266-267). EC1's suggestion for teacher educators to have very strong language proficiency is reasonable especially because their students are prospective teachers- and in some cases are already teachers - of English at primary level who are expected to become a good language model for the primary school children, as suggested in Chapter 5.

Further evidence from the study shows that lecturers at pre-service teacher education need to *"be trained to lecture properly, not the old style, the old-fashioned way"* (LTE1: 343). The presence of teacher educators who teach in more interactive and participatory ways is mandatory; otherwise, the government should *"get them out and bring ones that can"* (LTE1: 667). This suggests that the conceptualization of the education of teacher educators as a process of continual, interactive, and participatory needs to match the changing contexts in which they work and provides a way to think about it as a process of change. This would further allow them to reflect upon their assumptions and values of professional knowledge and practice, the contexts of schools and higher education, as well as their students' learning, because these all are indispensable in generating their teaching approaches. This is in line with the contention made by Cochran-Smith (2003, p. 25) that "obviously if we are to have teachers who are change agents, we must also have teacher educators who are prepared to be the same."

It has been demonstrated in Chapter 2 that Article 46 Act No. 14/2005 on Teachers and Lecturers requires teacher educators to possess a master's degree if they teach undergraduate courses and a doctorate degree if they teach a graduate degree. The findings of the study stipulate that teacher educators at English departments are expected to be familiar with the pedagogical concepts related to young learner pedagogy, the recurrent challenges in teaching young learners, and have good language proficiency.

These are specific skills that require a professional training that may not have been addressed in the mainstream master's or doctorate degrees.

The fact that the majority of teacher educators have not been prepared with EYL pedagogy implies that the preparation may only be feasible through a training scheme for teacher educators with the specific needs of teaching EYL. A training scheme for teacher educators at pre-service education is imperative for the success of preparing teachers of English at primary level amidst a reverse from more conservative approaches to more interactive participatory approaches in teacher education. It further provides an answer to the stipulation of Articles 69-71 Act No. 14/2005 on Teachers and Lecturers that requires the professional development of teacher educators.

6.2.7 Overhaul of pre-service education

Table 6.11 Codes relating to overhaul of pre-service education

Groups of participants	Codes	Frequency of References
PSET	Overhaul contextual	1
LTE	Overhaul needs setting up Overhaul necessary Overhaul needs master plan Overhaul focuses on practical teaching	1 3 1 1
EC	Overhaul needs setting up Overhaul necessary	1 1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from MEB and PSP

Table 6.11 includes codes relating to the necessity to develop an overhaul of pre-service teacher education. This is relevant to capture the suggestion for a complete renewal of pre-service teacher education to better prepare student teachers to become English teachers at primary level that has been conclusively implied throughout the chapter.

Both PSET1 and LTE1 showed their agreement that an overhaul is necessary. For PSET1, the overhaul is vital for the presence of a pre-service education that caters for "the needs of the teachers" and takes into account "the situation of primary schools in Indonesia (PSET1: 396). In addition, LTE1 stated that "*if we're looking at the needs of, if we're looking what the needs of the teachers a:re, it all has to start back at the teacher training colleges, and it it's u::hm, that needs an overhaul, that that needs a complete change of direction"* (LTE1: 42-44).

Reform of the pre-service teacher education is necessary to help prepare student teachers with the demands of their vocation. However it cannot be done sporadically because *"the whole thing needs rethinking", "money",* and *"careful setting up"* (LTE1: 663-664). Both LTE2 and EC2 confirmed their agreement. They highlighted the importance of having a master plan for redesigning the pre-service teacher education to provide adequate preparation for teachers of English at primary level. This is evident in the following:

- 209 : Yes, so the first thing is we need a master plan (.) it's something like a grand design of teaching
  210 : English at pre-service level. (LTE2)
- 279 : at the moment we need designing.. e:h, what is it. Redesigining teacher
  280 : education in Indonesia. (EC2)

Section 6.2.3 suggested that the inclusion of practical components in English departments is necessary to help prepare student teachers to teach English at primary level. Evidence drawn in this section has however suggested that the need for practical components is not exclusive to English departments. The curriculum at the whole pre-service education, including English departments and PGSD, needs to be redesigned to attend to the inevitable demands resulting from this situation by placing stronger focus on the practicality of teaching. This was highlighted by LTE1 in the following:

- 170 : the WHOLE pre-service teacher *training, syllabus, is in need of overhauling with so*
  171 : *much focus on the practical side of teaching and what teachers*
  172 : *teacher are gonna be facing in the real life classroom in the future (LTE1)*

These findings challenge the traditional teacher education that is not practical oriented and called for providing practical components in pre-service education to attend to the

needs of the student teachers to teach English at primary level. This is in line with the contention made in Chapter 1 that the view on teacher education that does not put a large emphasis on practice has been increasingly challenged for its limitations and inadequacies. A growing pressure to rethink both the structure and practices of teacher education with such view has been made by numerous researchers including Barone, Berliner, Blanchard, Casanova, & McGowan (1996) and Sandlin, Young, & Karge (1992).

At the practical level within the Indonesian context, this suggestion reiterates Lengkanawati's (2005) call for the setting up of standards within teacher education institutions that assist teachers in their professional development to meet the demands of the new curriculum. This means the impractical orientation of pre-service education in Indonesia as shown in Indonesia needs to be overhauled to the extent that allows student teachers to be given more practical methods and techniques in teaching English to Young Learners.

Of course, this is in accordance with the contention made in Section 6.2.3 in regard to the creation of more practical oriented English departments that are capable of tackling the specific needs of primary English education. As the findings in this section suggest, however, such practical orientation is not exclusive to English departments, but must also reach another approach of pre-service education that may be aimed for producing prospective English teachers at primary level: PGSD (Section 6.2.5). In other words, an overhaul in pre-service education only takes place when practical components in English and young learner pedagogy become integral components of the curricula of both English departments and PGSD.

6.3 Conclusion

This chapter has presented and discussed responses of participants in regard to the delivery of pre-service level to prepare English teachers in primary schools. The discussion throughout the chapter has demonstrated the inadequacy of pre-service education in

preparing student teachers to teach English at primary level. PGSD has been argued not an ideal avenue for those pursuing a career in primary school English teaching. Furthermore, there is a delivery gap between English departments in preparing English teachers at primary level. While the English department of a university such as State University of Malang was perceived as adequate in preparing student teachers with specific knowledge and skills to teach English at primary level, most English departments at pre-service level were perceived as inadequate to successfully accomplish the task.

Various issues have been associated with the poor performance of pre-service education including the lack of specificity and practical components, the teacher educators lacking the desired quality, and the lack of provision of English and other knowledge relevant to English in PGSD. Suggestions have culminated on the idea to overhaul pre-service education to better prepare student teachers to teach English at primary level. Specific measures that go along with the overhaul of pre-service education include the creation of Concentration on EYL and Certification in EYL, designed for both student teachers and alumni of English departments, respectively. The overhaul will also need to include efforts to provide more tuition in English and knowledge relevant to English pedagogy aimed for prospective teachers attending PGSD teacher education. A specific training scheme involving teacher educators is also necessary to equip them with knowledge and skills relevant to teaching English to Young Learners in an attempt to better prepare pre-service student teachers.

The suggestions discussed in this chapter will be compared to the suggestions generated from Chapter 5 and the subsequent chapters to offer policy recommendations in Chapter 10. The following chapter presents and discusses responses of participants in regard to the delivery of in-service teacher education to prepare English teacher at primary level and suggestions for improvement.

Chapter 7

The Delivery of In-Service Teacher Education for Primary School English Teachers and Suggestions for Improvement

7.0 Introduction

This chapter presents and discusses the responses of all groups of participants: PSETs (Primary School English teachers), LTEs (Language Teacher Educators), MEBs (Members of Educational Board), PSPs (Primary School Principals), and ECs (Educational Consultants) to the following set of questions:

Question 7.0.1: Do you find in-service education adequate to prepare teachers to teach English at primary level?

Question 7.0.2: If the in-service education is not adequate, what are your suggestions to improve it?

Sub-categories were conceptualized through focused coding after analysis of results arising out of the questions. These categories were assessed against the relevant literature, case studies, and contextual factors appearing in Chapters 1, 2, and 3 respectively. Comparisons between the results of this chapter and findings generated from Chapters 5 and 6 were also made where relevant. Section 7.1 presents results and discussion in reference to question 7.0.1, while section 7.2 provides results and discussion arising out of answers to question 7.0.2. Finally, section 7.3 summarizes what has been discussed throughout the chapter.

7.1 Results and discussion arising out of answers to question: *'Do you find in-service education adequate to prepare teachers to teach English at primary level?'*

Findings in this section are presented and discussed under the following sub-categories:

1. Public in-service education is not adequate
2. Issues with public teacher educators
3. Training mismanagement
4. Contents of in-service education are impractical
5. Public in-service education is inaccessible
6. Good in-service education by private institutions
7. Private in-service is unaffordable

7.1.1 Public in-service education is not adequate

Table 7.1 Codes relating to public in-service education is not adequate

Groups of participants	Codes	Frequency of references
PSET	No in-service training available In-service education not adequate	9 3
LTE	In-service education not adequate In-service education sporadic	2 1
MEB	In-service education not adequate	2
PSP	In-service education not adequate	2
EC	In-service education not adequate In-service education is a big problem	2 1

Table 7.1 lists codes relating to the delivery of in-service education provided by government-based training institutions. As shown in the table, responses from participants are conclusive in highlighting the inadequacy of in-service education in preparing teachers to teach English in primary schools.

Findings generated from this study demonstrate that the majority of teachers did not undertake any in-service education to prepare them to teach English at primary level. These include PSET1, PSET2, PSET3, PSET4, PSET6, PSET7, PSET8, PSET9, and PSET10. No information in regard to the attendance and impression on training programs by government-based training institutions was obtained from PSET5 because she had to leave before the question was posed to her. Three other teachers (PSET11, PSET12, and PSET13) were not fully satisfied with the contents and management of training programs conducted by government-based training institutions.

Evidence generated from other group of participants (LTE, PSP, MEB, and EC) confirms teachers' concerns in regard to the inadequacy of training programs held by government-based training institutions in preparing teachers to teach in primary schools. Training programs by government-based training institutions were identified as 'not adequate', 'a big problem', and 'sporadic' by teacher educators (LTE2, LTE3, and LTE4), educational consultants (EC1 and EC2), and school principals (PSP1 and PSP2). Even two teacher educators who worked at a government-based training institution, LPMP North Sulawesi (MEB1 and MEB2) acknowledged this issue. MEB2, for example, stated that in-service training programs provided by government-based training institutions "were not adequate" to specifically prepare teachers of English at primary level (MEB2: 178).

Specific issues contributing to this dissatisfaction of the participants are not discussed in this section but will be further examined in the subsequent sections.

7.1.2 Issues with public teacher educators

Table 7.2 Codes relating to issues with public teacher educators		
Groups of participants	**Codes**	**Frequency of references**
PSET	Teacher educators lack of expertise	1
LTE	Teacher educators lack of expertise Teacher educators not prepared with EYL training Teacher educators limited in number	3 1 1
MEB	Teacher educators limited in number	2

No findings in this sub-category were generated from PSP and EC

Data from participants in Table 7.2 shows that the inadequacy of in-service training provided by government-based training institutions is primarily attributed to the issues related to teacher educators.

First of all, findings generated from participants including PSET and LTE suggest that in government-based training institutions "such as LPMP, the trainers are not necessarily those who understand teaching English to Young Learners." (LTE2: 156-157), hence highlighting the lack of expertise of the teacher educators in English to Young Learners (EYL). This is evident from commentaries made by PSET9 that "the teacher educators, not all of them can teach English at primary level" (PSET9: 295-296) and LTE4 who suggested that *"most of our trainers have no idea on how to deliver communicative teacher training. So they, they TEND to give training (.) a one way training"* in which they are *"the most knowledgeable" and deliver it "in a very theoretical-based kind of training"* (LTE4: 251-255). The specific expertise needed for teaching English to Young Learners was missing because "there is no specialization on this (EYL) during their teacher education" both at undergraduate and postgraduate levels (LTE2: 158-159).

The findings above are consistent with the fact that two members of educational board who were teacher educators at LPMP North Sulawesi had not been prepared with specific

training in English for Young Learners. While MEB1 graduated with a doctorate degree in Education from State Malang University, MEB2 obtained his master's degree in Teaching English as a Foreign Language from the University of London, the UK. Neither of them had undertaken a specific course in Teaching English for Young Learners (TEYL) prior to data collection. This indicates that teacher educators in government-based training institutions may have been adequately prepared with education in providing general training in English, but not with the specific needs of teaching English to primary school children.

The situation above clearly resembles that of pre-service teacher education where the quality of teacher educators has caused a mismatch between expectations and reality (Section 6.1.4). Student teachers expect more practical components related to young learner pedagogy to be delivered during in-service training programs but this is constrained by the lack of knowledge and skills of the teacher educators.

In addition to the issue on the quality of teacher educators, the findings of the study also highlight an issue of the quantity of teacher educators. Members of educational board, namely MEB1 and MEB2, suggested that there is an imbalanced proportion between English teachers and teacher educators. The number of primary school English teachers who need in-service teacher education far outnumbers the number of teacher educators. This is evident in the following:

- 343 : No, we can't do it one hundred percent. (LTE3)
  344 : Not one hundred percent? Why? (R)
  345 : It takes time. So many teachers!
  347 : …Too many teachers to be trained. That's the first one. (LTE3)
- 215 : If I take a start from the institution, the Institution for Educational
  216 : Quality Assurance, LPMP, we can only help teachers with the available 16
  217 : teacher educators for one province, North Sulawesi, from SD, and now TK
  218 : we have English too, until SMA/SMK. (MEB1)
  220 : … Can you imagine the ratio? That's impossible. Only with 16 Widyaiswara to assist... (MEB1)
  221 : oh, so there are 16 Widyaiswara? (R)
  222 : Yes. (MEB1)
  223 : Are there all teacher educators in English, or? (R)
  224 : All. (MEB1)

225 : All. And how many are there who train English? (R)

226 : for English, there's only one. (MEB1)

LTE3's statement provides general account on the limited number of the teacher educators in Indonesia, whereas MEB1's statement was specifically applicable to North Sulawesi Province in which there is only one English teacher educator assigned for the whole province. Both statements are arguably representative; however, they provide an accurate portrayal because they are parallel to the current statistic released by the Ministry of National Education. At present the 8 English teacher trainers working in P4TK and no more than 33 English teacher trainers working in LPMP surely cannot cope with the task of providing training to the currently existing 47, 575 English teachers at primary level (Departemen, 2009). This means one English teacher educator is responsible for training approximately 1, 161 primary school English teachers. The ratio is even worse because the teacher educators are actually employed to provide training programs for teachers not only in primary education (SD) but also in secondary education (SMP and SMA).

The imbalanced ratio between the numbers of trainers and teachers is one of the determining factors contributing to the lack of continuity and limited access of teacher training programs held by government institutions as discussed in Section 7.1.5. It is highly unlikely to hold continuous training programs to cater for the needs of English teachers from all different levels for the whole province when there is only one teacher trainer available in the province. The limited number of teacher educators makes it unlikely to conduct teacher training for primary school English teachers on a regular basis. It is even more difficult when the training is aimed to reach teachers in rural and remote areas in Indonesia.

7.1.3 Training mismanagement

Table 7.3 Codes relating to issues with training mismanagement		
Groups of participants	**Codes**	**Frequency of references**
PSET	In-service education shortened in duration No follow up to in-service education	1 1
LTE	In-service education gives little impact In-service education not carefully planned In-service training lacking fund In-service training not satisfactory	1 3 1 1
MEB	No follow up to in-service education In-service education prone to political intervention	1 2
PSP	No follow up to in-service education	1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from EC

Table 7.3 lists the codes that refer to the issues related to training management at government-based training institutions. Data from participants shows that various issues enmeshing the training management include 'lack of funding', 'no follow-up', and 'shortened in duration'.

LTE4 pointed out that in-service training provided by government-based training institutions such as LPMP and P4TK Bahasa *"actually it doesn't really give (.) eh, impact, eh, to the teachers"* (LTE4: 255-256). This was attributed by a number of factors as identified by participants from other groups (PSP, MEB, and PSET).

First and foremost, in-service education held by government-based training institutions used to have "a lot of money" but "now they're dead due to lack of funds" (LTE3: 420-421). As a consequence, a lot of training programs held by government institutions have been largely associated with lack of continuity. Both PSP3 and PSET11 maintained that a lot of in-service training programs held by government-based training institutions have

"no follow up" (PSP3: 191 and PSET11: 344). MEB2's statement that "this year we have a training for English teachers" but "next year we have none" (MEB2: 228-230) confirms that training is usually held once without assurance on a similar program to occur in the future. LTE3 gave an example that KKG activities in "East Java, especially Malang" still exist but "are not very regular" (LTE3: 423-424).

Often political intervention of educational bureaucrats also adversely affects the implementation of training management at government-based training institutions. Participants suggested that the intrusion of bureaucratic administration contributes to the problematic situation concerning the conduct of teacher training programs. For example, MEB1 stated that when teacher educators at government-based training institutions "are going to train teachers", they are required to ask permission from Dinas at the Municipal Level" (MEB1: 459-460). She also raised the concern that teacher educators cannot "visit to the school without their permission" because "that would violate the rule, because the schools and the teachers belong to them (Dinas)" MEB1: 463-464). Haphazard practice of training is apparent when the conduct of teacher training is dependent "on whether or not it can make money for the director of the government-based training institution" (MEB2: 240-241). Often training programs are exclusively marked by poor implementation because they are shortened in duration from what they were proposed to be. PSET stated that once she "had training for three days, for example, for a couple of days, right? But it was condensed into only one day" (PSET11: 342-343).

The issues mentioned above are however not the end of mismanagement of in-service training programs. Participants suggested that the design and contents of the training programs are both predominantly based on assumptions rather than the true needs of the teachers. Both LTE4 and LTE2 stated that in-service training programs by government institutions were "*sporadic*" and "not clearly designed" (LTE4: 227 and LTE2: 179-180). Even the teacher educators in government-based training institutions such as *"P4TK don't know what the level of the participants in the training is"* (LTE4: 227& 235). It is of no

surprise that because of these limitations, LTE2 pointed out that “their training programs are less than satisfactory” (LTE2: 181).

This particular finding suggests that political intervention occurring within the domain of teacher education is not exclusive to the appointment of supervisors who have no expertise as shown in Chapter 3. The centralization of power occurring at the district level has made it possible for bureaucrats without relevant expertise to be involved in the design of in-service teacher education. It seems that bureaucrats’ involvement is largely money-driven because training design is viewed as an opportunity where they could earn incentives for their attendance in meetings. This explains why bureaucrats from “the Quality Assurance Unit/ LPMP want to get involved, and those bureaucrats from Dinas at the provincial level want to get involved and others want to get involved” (LTE3: 347-349).

Clearly the findings above indicate mismanagement of educational decentralization that takes place at the bureaucratic level. Literature has shown that the tyranny of bureaucracy and the lack of accountability are damaging for effective educational management (Feuerstein, 2011; Fitzgerald, 2009). In the Indonesian context, the unprofessional behavior of bureaucrats and an educational system with poor accountability practices are reflected by how political goals have often conflicted and outplayed educational goals (Zein, 2011). This is indicative of teacher education being politicized and such “political side needs… to be taken into account more explicitly” (Bruner, 1996, p. 29). The fact that educational bureaucrats have misused the authority rendered to them is indicative of lack of control and monitoring in the management of training programs held by government-based training institutions.

7.1.4 Contents of in-service education are impractical

Table 7.4 Codes relating to contents of in-service education are impractical		
Groups of participants	**Codes**	**Frequency of references**
PSET	Contents of in-service trainings theoretical Contents of in-service trainings not specific Activities by KKG (teachers group) theoretical	1 1 1
LTE	Contents of in-service trainings theoretical Activities by KKG (teachers groups) theoretical	1 1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from MEB, PSP, and EC

Table 7.4 encompasses codes which refer to issues with contents of in-service education by government-based training institutions.

Evidence drawn in this study shows that the contents of training programs held by government-based training institutions are theoretical. For example, PSET12 stated that "in most workshops we attended, we only get theories, so the practical input is very limited." (PSET12: 526-527). Even when the training has practical orientation, it "is very limited. It is limited on how to apply the theories, and we know it already." (PSET12: 530-531). PSET12's lamentation was echoed by LTE3 who highlighted "how on earth would English teachers at primary level be given linguistic theories?" (LTE3: 352). PSET3 maintained that the training programs provided were very general and did not address his specific needs as an English teacher at primary level. He pointed out that:

- 505 : Eh, no. It's how to become a good teacher, a good teacher of English. I remember.
  506 : Oh, I see. It was general, not for primary school teaching? (R)
  507 : Yes, general (PSET3)
  508 : Not for primary school teaching? (R)
  509 : No, not for primary school teaching, very general (PSET3)

Two participants also suggested that meetings organized by KKG (*Kelompok Kerja Guru*/ Teachers Group) are lacking practical activities that could assist teachers to fully develop

their professionalism. LTE1 stated that “so much time is spent on preparing or planning for the exam, or looking at KTSP, nothing is practical in the meetings” (LTE1: 297-298). This is parallel to the contention made by PSET13 who stated that KKG meetings have thus far been a moment for sharing teaching experiences rather than purely aimed for professional development activities:

- 300 : the teaching of English (.) Yes, at least that’s in MGMP. (PSET13)
  301 : Is there any training there? (R)
  302 : Yes, what is it called? (PSET13)
  303 : Is it MGMP or KKG? Isn’t it MGMP is at the level of= (R)
  304 : =Oh yes, that’s at SMP level. It’s actually KKG. (PSET13)
  305 : Is there any training there? (R)
  306 : No, no training. We only share about our experiences. (PSET13)

These findings are not exhaustive in highlighting the lack of specificity and impractical orientation of training programs held by government-based training institutions. However, the fact that training programs in government-based training institutions are lacking specificity and are too theoretical shows a similar image with Vietnam (Hamano, 2008) and bears a resemblance with similar situation presently occurring in pre-service education (Sections 6.1.1 & 6.1.2). A parallel line between in-service training programs by government-based training institutions and pre-service education appears. Both in-service education held by government-based training institutions and pre-service education have not been specific to address the practical needs of English teachers in SD.

7.1.5 Public in-service education is inaccessible

Table 7.5 Codes relating to public in-service education is inaccessible		
Groups of participants	**Codes**	**Frequency of references**
PSET	In-service education not available in rural areas In-service education limited to RSBI schools	6 1
LTE	Participation in in-service education due to favoritism	1
MEB	Gap of quality between teachers in rural and urban areas Participation in in-service education due to connection	1 1
PSP	In-service education limited to RSBI schools	1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from EC

Table 7.5 lists codes indicating the issue of access to attending training programs held by government-based training institutions is shown in Table 7.5. Data from teachers shows that participation in in-service training programs was often low because the programs were not available for teachers in rural areas, while data from teacher educators and members of educational boards highlights the 'connectionism' and 'favoritism' that have been enmeshing the practice of in-service training.

Several teachers who lived in rural areas, including PSET2, PSET3, PSET13, PSET8, and PSET10 all pointed out that they had not undertaken any professional development supports from the government-based training institutions primarily because specific training for English teachers at primary level were not available. Furthermore, teachers who taught in schools with lower status such as PSET7 and PSET8 (SDN Gemim Rurukan 2), PSET13 (SDN Tegalandong 2), PSET2 and PSET3 (SD Don Bosco Tomohon), and PSET10 (SDN Rempoa 2) seemed to have missed a similar opportunity. This is evident in the following:

- 419 : In my experience, I've been teaching for 22 years. And I've been
  420 : asked to teach for that long, eh, English is a local content subject,
  421 : so far there hasn't been any trainings for us (PSET7 and PSET8). (PSET8)
- 487 : …for training, no, not specifically. (PSET2)
- 528 : since teaching here, I haven't attended any training that equips me with my

529 : particular discipline that I'm currently teaching, English language (PSET3)

- 353 : maybe they had before, but I never, never, never attended it (PSET1)
- 306 : no training, there is no training in KKG. We only share our teaching experiences (PSET13)
- 218 : when it comes to training for teaching English in primary schools, no, no training (PSET10)

Two PSPs confirmed the aforementioned statements by PSETs. They agreed that in-service training programs held by government-based training institutions were not widely accessible. Both PSP3 and PSP1 highlighted that in-service training programs were "very limited" (PSP3: 191 and PSP1: 155) and were not "widely accessible" (PSP1: 158) to teachers especially those in rural areas and whose school has lower status[3] like PSET7, PSET8, PSET2, PSET3, PSET10, and PSET13.

This situation is in stark contrast with teachers who teach in a prestigious school like RSBI (Rintisan Sekolah Bertaraf Internasional or Pioneering Internationally Standardized School). PSET4 who worked for SDN Muhammadiyah 2 Denpasar, Bali, said that she had attended trainings "held by the Ministry of National Education about teaching English in primary schools" (PSET4: 524). PSP3 stated that as an international-based standard school, his school had received full support from the central government in terms of the professional development of teachers. This explains why two of his teachers, PSET4 and PSET6, were given the opportunity to attend in-service trainings even though both were not civil servants. This provides evidence for the contention made in Chapter 3 that supports are more likely to be available to schools with high status and are located in urban areas, while leaving underprivileged schools with limited opportunity.

The consequence of this situation is the widening gap of quality between teachers in urban areas and those in rural ones and between teachers coming from regular public schools with the international standard schools. PSP1 stated that "in RSBI schools, or schools with international standards, or even SSN (*Sekolah Standar Nasional*/ Nationally

[3] Schools with lower status are generally the ones referred to as regular public schools, as opposed to the prestigious ones such as SSN (Sekolah Standar Nasional/ nationally Standard School) and SBI (Sekolah Berstandar International/Internationally Standardized School).

Standardized Schools), the teachers generally have much better proficiency in comparison to regular public schools." (PSP1: 132-133). Reflecting on the pedagogical situations of teachers in North Sulawesi, MEB2 pointed out that those who teach in urban areas such as Manado are generally better in terms of quality in comparison to those in rural areas.

- 93 : If I want to say it's good, then there are some good teachers, but there (.)
  94 : are others who are not good. Especially those in schools in cities, like in Manado, in
  95 : general they are okay. But for those who live outside the cities such as in Minahasa,
  96 : Mobagu, Bitung, they are far from adequate (MEB2)

Furthermore, evidence from the study points out the intransparency of participant selection for a training program. Favoritism and connection to the power wielders were the basis for selecting training participants. Many eligible participants were not given the opportunity to attend the training because *"selection of participants is really based on favoritism, favoritism and connection"* (LTE4: 260-261) and sometimes "the teachers they (Dinas) send are not eligible" but they are sent to attend the trainings "because of connection" (MEB2: 478-480). This finding confirms the result of a study conducted by Chodidjah (2008b) who stated that only teachers who were close to power wielders at the local level were given the opportunity to take part in in-service training programs.

The findings of the study also reveal that the delivery of in-service teacher training programs in Indonesia has been largely focused on teachers with civil servant status. LTE1 pointed out that *"many times if you are a DIKNAS teacher, you know, if you're employed as a civil servant, then you're offered ongoing (1.0) in-service training opportunities"* (LTE1: 194-195). A lot of teachers, because of their status as a teacher in a private school or as a non-civil servant teacher, *"have never had any in-service training at all",* and the reason for this is *"because there was no money available or because it wasn't considered important"* to train these pools of teachers (LTE1: 196-198). LTE1 illustrated a predominant view amongst government officials working in Dinas:

198 : The idea is you finish your training, so you're a teacher now
199 : therefore you don't need any more, you can carry on,

This is relevant especially because PSP2, who worked as a school principal in SDN Jombang 2, East Java stated the competence of his English teacher who "has completed an undergraduate degree" was "unquestionable", so that she did not require further training (PSP2: 8-10). This suggests that the view on teachers not needing in-service training is prevalent not only amongst government officials or bureaucrats who work in Dinas but also those who work as a school principal. According to LTE1, such view is *"just ridiculous, especially when" we "consider the initial training wasn't adequate",* which may lead teachers *"to teach badly"* (LTE1: 199-200).

This situation confirms the wariness shown in Chapter 3 in regard to the social injustice currently experienced by English teachers with non-civil servant status. It has been shown that teachers with non-civil servant status such as PSET13, PSET10, PSET2, PSET3, and PSET1 were unable to attend in-service training programs. The fact that "the employment of English teachers with civil servant status is very limited" (PSP3: 77) makes it even more difficult for them to attend in-service training programs held by government-based training institutions.

These findings assert that access to attending in-service training provided by both government and private institutions has been a recurring issue for teachers of English at primary level, characterized by conflicting issues based on geographical context, the status of teachers, and the status of schools. The fact that teachers in rural areas and those from underprivileged schools having their rights to attend training programs held by government-based training institutions denied could have been an impact of the poor implementation of education centralization. Education development that fails to attend to the needs of these teachers marks the failure of the educational authority at the local level to provide equal support for all elements of education. The enactment of decentralization of education pioneered by the government as shown in Chapter 3 seems to be a political rhetoric as it fails in implementation.

On the other hand, unequal support for English teachers with non-civil servant status seems to be parallel to the fact that policies set out in The Decree of Minister of Education Republic of Indonesia No. 18/2007 on Teacher Certification and The Decree of Minister of National Education Republic of Indonesia No. 40/2007 on Teacher Professional Certificate through Education are both aimed for teachers with civil servant status. What this suggests is that the current policies are not supportive of teachers of English with non-civil servant status. This situation brings two implications: 1) either this requires the presence of a policy directive that would warrant equal support for both teachers of civil-servant and non civil-servant statuses; or 2) the non civil-servant English teachers be appointed civil servants in order to ensure rights and responsibilities. As discussed later in Section 7.2.4, the non civil-servant status is disadvantageous for English teachers, and improvement is unlikely to happen without alteration to their status of employment.

7.1.6 Good in-service education by private institutions

Table 7.6 Codes relating to good in-service education by private institutions

Groups of participants	Codes	Frequency of references
PSET	Involvement in trainings by private institutions high	1
LTE	Teacher educators in private institutions are professional Involvement in trainings by private institutions high	2 1
MEB	Private institutions conduct needs analysis	1
EC	Private institutions have high prestige Private institutions have good reputation Teacher educators in private institutions are professional	1 1 1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from PSP

Table 7.6 shows a list of codes pertaining to the delivery of in-service training programs held by private institutions. Evidence generated in this section shows that in-service training programs held by private institutions are satisfactory in terms of quality.

Participants argued that private institutions such as IALF (Indonesian Australian Language Foundation) and British Council have "high prestige" and "good reputation" for their professional delivery of in-service training programs (EC2: 72). The findings of this study conclusively highlight the professionalism of these institutions as shown in the following:

- 73 : I have very deep respect for them because they are professional
  74 : in their particular field. The names that you mentioned like Itje Chodidjah are professionals.
  75 : The institutions that you mentioned, including LIA, they have really thought about this area.
  76 : But I doubt some PTS, including some private universities that try to hold the training.
  77 : The previously mentioned institutions, on the other hand, for me they are credible.
  78 : They are professionals. (EC2)
- 182 : Yes, everything that is designed and run by private institutions
  183 : is useful, even when it is little or a lot. (EC2)

Participants further argued that interest in the attending training programs held by private institution is reasonably strong. LTE2, for example, stated that "the involvement of the participants in trainings held by private institutions is high" (LTE2: 191). The response from PSET6 made a direct contrast between in-service training programs provided by foreign institutions to the ones held by government institutions. He stated that:

- 609 : … I trust
  610 : private institutions more than the government. Because sometimes these institutions, they
  611 : have new innovations. On the other hand, the trainings held by Dinas are, e::hm,
  612 : outdated have no innovations. Hehehe. To be honest, they're not interesting and often
  613 : they don't match with the objectives of the school (PSET6)

Participants pointed out that the reason for such positive portrayal for private institutions is due to the involvement of teacher educators who have the expertise in ESL/EFL teaching in general and English for Young Learners in particular. Participants argued that teacher educators in these private institutions are able to design innovative and practice-based

training programs because they "have really thought of what the real needs of the teachers are" (MEB1: 183-184). Other commentaries are provided below:

- 188 : E:hh, let's return to the context of primary school teaching, so not yet. But, the good thing
  189 : is that institution like IALF and others (2.0), because they have confident
  190 : teacher educators who teach there and then they have more practical orientation (LTE2)
- 450 : They invite educators, English, teacher educators for English teachers to teach
  451 : teachers from kindergarten until tertiary education. Mentari is a private institution
  452 : that has provided useful practical techniques of teaching from native speakers,
  453 : and selected outstanding e: ESL EFL experts. This is what is important. British Council, yes,
  454 : British Countil is still running such in-service training. (LTE3)
- 184 : … So they really
  185 : monitor the needs of the teachers such as the pedagogical content knowledge or
  186 : practical teaching techniques. (MEB1)

The findings above demonstrate that training programs by private institutions are able to meet the needs of teachers of English at primary level primarily due to the presence of teacher educators with expertise relevant to teaching English to Young Learners. These teacher educators have been able to design training programs that meet the needs of the teachers. This is in stark contrast to the training programs held in pre-service education and the training programs held by government-based training institutions. Teacher educators in both pre-service education and government-based training institutions have no relevant expertise in English for Young Learners (Sections 6.2.5 & 7.1.1), hence preventing them from providing adequate preparation for English teaching practitioners at primary level. This further indicates the significant roles of teacher educators in determining the quality of preparation for teachers of English at primary level at all levels of teacher education.

7.1.7 Private in-service education is unaffordable

Table 7.7 Codes relating to private in-service education is unaffordable		
Groups of participants	**Codes**	**Frequency of references**
LTE	Training by private institutions not affordable Training by private institutions inaccessible in rural areas Teachers attending trainings by private institutions sponsored	2 1 2
MEB	Training by private institutions inaccessible in rural areas	1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from PSET, PSP, and EC

Table 7.7 lists codes relating to the issue with in-service training programs held by private institutions. Data from teacher educators and members of educational board shows that the training programs are 'not affordable' and 'inaccessible' for teachers in rural areas.

Findings generated from LTE3 and LTE4 show that training programs held by private institutions are not affordable for the teachers. This is evident in the following:

- 282 : OK. The private one, even though they said that their in-service training is to help teachers
  283 : NUMBER ONE is money oriented.
  284 : Oh, I see, it's too expensive, right? (R)
  285 : Money oriented. So, IELTS for English, for... TOEFL, many things, in the end
  286 : it's for money, to try to get profit. They cannot deny it. (LTE3)
- *208 : Okay, but for private, I think it is very sporadic because usually private is*
  209 : also expensive (LTE4)
  211 : Not affordable, especially for teachers in, private, eh, in state, state schools. Teachers in
  212 : private schools are usually (.) eh, funded by the schools, eh, to join those kinds of
  213 : training. So it's, it's a, it's okay, for SOME private schools, but for most schools, no. (LTE4)

Even LTE1 who worked with a private training institution showed her agreement with the views of LTE3 and LTE4. She pointed out that training "*programs such as EF and IALF are often out of the price range of teachers.*" (LTE1: 186).

Training programs held by private institutions are as a consequence largely concentrated in big cities and urban areas but are inaccessible to teachers in rural and remote areas. Participants showed that access to attending training programs is severely limited due to the unaffordability of these programs. The private institutions themselves did not seem to put the efforts to reach teachers in remote areas who are in great need of in-service trainings. Such views were expressed by participants in the following:

- 417 : Yes, yes, the training is very much necessary and compulsory, I think. But up to now
  418 : we haven't heard anything about training programs from British Council in North Sulawesi.
  419 : Eh, eh. (R)
  420 : Eh, they haven't really participated. (MEB2)
  421 : IALF Bali, they have got ELTIS project (R)
  422 : Ha, yes, IALF. But this institution it does not reach us. We haven't got anything from
  423 : them (MEB2)
- 194 : No. Because, because the opportunity (to do training) is not much; it's limited to teachers in
  195 : big cities. In addition, the price is unaffordable. Even worse, if the government does not have
  196 : the money. So as a result, they have to pay by themselves, and the chance
  197 : for them to do that is very little (LTE2).

On the contrary, only teachers who have been *"funded by the schools"* or sponsored are able to attend *"those kinds of trainings"* (LTE4: 212-13). LTE1 confirmed that in IALF Bali, the training center where she worked at, *"the teachers who join, who join, short or longer term programs, they never pay for themselves, they've been sponsored."* (LTE1: 191-192).

The findings above indicate that financial supports are indispensable for teachers in order to be able to attend training programs held by private institutions, which echo the contention made in Section 3.3.3. Only those teachers who have been sponsored are able to attend professional development activities organized by private institutions. Unfortunately, exercising personal agency in order to be able to attend training programs held by private institutions does not seem to be a viable option for the bulk of teachers coming from underprivileged schools in rural areas. This indicates that unless financial supports for this group of teachers to attend training by private institutions are made

available, they will be perpetually denied access to attending teacher education related activities to further enhance their professionalism.

7.2 Results and discussion arising out of answers to question: *If the in-service education is not adequate, what are your suggestions to improve it?*

Findings in this section are presented and discussed under the following sub-categories:

1. Ensuring the presence of quality public teacher educators
2. Components of in-service education
3. Establishing a link between stakeholders
4. Ensuring access to public in-service education
5. Planning and evaluation in public in-service education

7.2.1 Ensuring the presence of quality public teacher educators

Table 7.8 Codes relating to ensuring the presence of quality public teacher educators

Groups of participants	Codes	Frequency of references
PSET	Involving teacher educators at pre-service level helpful	2
LTE	Involving teacher educators at pre-service level necessary	1
MEB	Consider the ratio of teacher educators at government-based training institutions and teachers	1
	Recruiting teacher educators at government-based training institutions necessary	1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from PSP and EC

Table 7.8 includes codes pertaining to the idea that ensuring the presence of quality teacher educators at government-based institutions is imperative for the preparation of teachers of English at primary level. This is relevant in response to the limited number of quality teacher educators at government-based training institution raised in Section 7.1.2.

MEB1 suggested that robust planning needs to take into account 'the ratio' of how many teachers need the training in one province and how many teacher educators available in that province. This is evident in the following:

- 204 : Eh, yes. First we need to consider the ratio, yes. (MEB1)
  205 : He eh. (R)
  206 : Now, teachers of English in primary schools, eh, how many are there? And then
  207 : how many training centers are available, eh, to help the teachers to professionally develop?
  208 : And if we have an increase every year, then is it possible that these training centers are capable
  209 : to reach all teachers, with, eh, the available resources? (MEB1)

To deal with the absence of teacher educators from government-based training institutions, LTE3 stated that the government "should allow greater involvement of teacher educators from teacher colleges who know about teaching English to Young Learners" (LTE3: 360). Further evidence shows that when involvement of teacher educators from teacher colleges occurs, participants' satisfaction is more than likely. Teachers such as PSET4 and PSET9 pointed out the usefulness of in-service training they attended to assist them with teaching English to young learners. While PSET4 attended a training held by Dinas Dikdas in Bali in association with teacher educators from Udayana University, PSET9 joined a training held by Dinas Dikdas Mataram in association with teacher educators from State University of Mataram. They claimed the knowledge obtained from the training was useful and had resulted in the increasing interest in English language amongst the students. This is evident in the following:

- 562 : the knowledge that I learned from the training, I usually implement it directly to
  563 : the children. So I apply the methods recommended in the training by considering
  564 : the needs of the students, right? We apply it and then we see the results: Is the
  565 : theory I learn from the training applicable and useful? I found that most of what
  566 : I learnt are applicable and useful. It helps alter the study pattern of the students
  567 : as well, students are more keen to learn English, so it's very useful. (PSET4)
- 290 : Praise to God that I have learnt sufficient knowledge and skills in teaching from
  291 : the training as we were given the knowledge and were asked to implement it.
  292 : Oh, I see. So that was a workshop, yes? (R)
  293 : Yes, it was a workshop. We were taught, then we practiced with our colleagues

293 : and then we used it for teaching in class, how we could teach in class with

294 : various teaching methods and techniques. (PSET9)

The findings above demonstrate that the presence of quality of teacher educators is essential for the continuation of quality in-service training programs. This indicates that assurance to the continuity of in-service training programs held by government-based training institutions is unfeasible without adequate teacher educators. A policy implication of this is that a large recruitment to fill up the quantity of teacher educators at government-based training institutions is imperative to add to the present teacher educators in service.

Such reform is nevertheless fruitless without simultaneous reform taking place on the domain of the quality of the teacher educators. Reforms of in-service teacher education are groundless without teacher educators at government-based training institutions being equipped with relevant knowledge and skills related to EYL. This implies a training cohort on TEYL for teacher educators at government-based training institutions is desirable in order to tackle the issue of the quality of teacher educators. Greater involvement for teacher educators from teaching colleges to take part in various training schemes provided by government-based training institutions is equally important.

It is however worth noting that not all teacher educators from teaching colleges are of high quality. Parallel to the results in Section 6.2.6 that highlight the importance of creating a training scheme for teacher educators in English departments to prepare them with relevant knowledge and skills in teaching EYL, results in section 7.1.2 show a similar issue faced by most teacher educators in government-based training institutions. Clearly these two groups of teacher educators need to be included in the training cohort. On the other hand, Section 7.1.6 has demonstrated the positive image of teacher educators at private institutions of having good quality to conduct training for primary school English teachers. This implies the necessity to create an invitation to teacher educators at private institutions to help develop the teacher education scheme that would help teachers with their professional preparation in teaching English to primary school children. A policy

initiative in this regard would mean the involvement of teacher educators at private institutions to help develop a teacher education scheme for teacher educators at both pre-service level and government-based training institutions.

The benefit of such policy initiative is threefold. First, it would ensure the updates of knowledge and recent developments in TEYL that becomes one of the central issues raised in Chapter 5. Teacher educators, especially those at government-based training institutions, would have the opportunities to keep abreast with recent TEYL related issues as well as to work on their oral skill.

Second, the involvement of teacher educators at private institutions reflects a wider base participation from relevant stakeholders involved in teaching English at primary level. This is particularly relevant in the light of bottom-up approach in LTE Policymaking that has been thoroughly discussed in Chapter 1. It is very rarely that teacher educators from private institutions are directly involved in both policymaking and policy implementation, and putting this policy initiative operational would allow its occurrence.

Third, such policy initiative is a reasonably more affordable policy than exercising a highly costly policy of recruiting teachers from native English speaking countries like the one currently implemented in Japan, Hong Kong, Taiwan, and South Korea. Teacher educators from private institutions may play a larger role in assisting the professional development of English teacher educators while at the same time providing them with appropriate activities and tasks to improve their English proficiency. The implementation of this policy initiative may also allow the viability of a cascading system in which graduates of the training scheme may be able to implement their knowledge and skills when training teachers of English at primary level.

7.2.2 Components of in-service education

Table 7.9 Codes relating to components of in-service education		
Groups of participants	**Codes**	**Frequency of references**
PSET	Contents of training must be integrated Teaching methodology important	1 2
LTE	Contents of training must be integrated Using technology to improve proficiency Teaching methodology important	1 1 1
MEB	Curriculum planning important	1
PSP	Curriculum planning important	1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from EC

Table 7.9 lists the codes that are linked to components that need to be included in the development of contents of in-service training programs held by government-based training institutions. Evidence generated from the table shows that the integration between language proficiency and teaching methodology is essential when designing the contents of teacher training programs at in-service level. This provides an answer to the lack of specificity and impractical orientation of training programs held by government-based training institutions raised in Section 7.1.4.

Participants argued that contents of training programs are expected to tackle both the domains of teachers' language proficiency as well as language teaching methodology. This is evident in the following responses:

- 476 : it has to be integrated yah. So in in-service training
  477 : we need to develop a program in which we have some portion of activities
  478 : to improve their language. For example, pronunciation drills, how many hours.
  479 : And then there's a program on how to teach. So there's teaching performance.
  480 : And after teaching performance there has to be, for example, videos.
  481 : and also discussion among the teachers, for one or two hours. So teachers
  482 : have to be open to accept criticism. So for English proficiency, we need to allocate

483 : the hours. (LTE3)

- 424 : E::h, so what is really important is the language, and knowledge about language, and then
  425 : how to teach the language, and this knowledge includes the preparation, the
  426 : process and assessment. (PSET9)
- *319 : I 'don't', I don't think there's any*
  320 : particular skills. 'I mean', IDEALLY, I would always, whatever I was teaching the teachers,
  321 : would always have an eye of how that could be used BY them in the classroom, okay,
  322 : they're adults, (and they're children, the students have kids), but doing an activity with them
  323 : in a way the methodology that they could then, they're getting EXPOSED to a methodology
  324 : they could, they're going to use with kids as well. (Yah). (LTE1)

Evidence generated in this study shows that efforts to improve the language proficiency of teachers at in-service level are viable through the utilization of technology. LTE4 stated that *"language improvement (.) with the development of technology can be done very easily"* as teachers can incorporate tools such as *"the internet", "CD", "text messages",* among others, in order *"to improve their language"* (LTE4: 366-373). The use of technology to help improve the proficiency of teachers is particularly relevant to the contention made in Section 6.2.4 that independent study learning through the use of ESL/EFL software is necessary for improving student teachers' pronunciation.

Furthermore, findings drawn from the study show efforts to develop methodological competence of the teachers are indispensable. PSET9 stated three key areas of teaching methodologies that need to be covered in in-service trainings are "preparation, process, and assessment" (PSET9: 425-426). This indicates three focal issues: lesson planning, classroom management, and testing and assessment (Harmer, 2007). For example, LTE3 illustrated the importance of lesson planning when teachers have to design a lesson that is contextually and culturally appropriate to the students in the following:

- 175 : Yes. So how to teach, or what to teach, they know it. What to teach. So when it's in villages in
  176 : Indonesia the topic is about pizza, lasagne, it's not appropriate.
  177 : But if it's in metropolitan area, in the have society, talking about pizza, talking about eh,
  178 : hamburger, that's okay. (LTE3)

The finding above reiterates the suggestion made in Chapter 5 that provision of lesson planning and classroom management is essential for teachers of English at primary level.

Participants further suggested that the ability to create contextual lesson plans needs to go hand in hand with the skill to develop the KTSP curriculum to cater for the needs of the students in their school. This is implied in the following:

- 202 : in other words, you suggested that if there's a training in this, then it has to be able
  203 : to help the teachers to design KTSP curriculum
  204 : which is specifically oriented for their local needs, specified for their schools, is that right? (R)
  205 : Yes, absolutely right. I totally agree (MEB2)
- 149 : SKKD is Standards of Competence and Basic Competence. So the government, through the
  150 : national curriculum has established basic curriculum. There are 8 standards.
  151 : These are the basic contents. For syllabus and lesson plan, those are the responsibility
  152 : of the teachers, because the teachers know these best. So this
  153 : would result in the teaching of English in Bali, here in Denpasar, for example,
  154 : is different from the teaching of English in Bangli. This is possible. (PSP3)

While this finding provides a response to the absence of an appropriate environment for teachers to fully exercise their autonomy and authority when developing the KTSP curriculum as demonstrated in Chapter 5, it also relates to the contextual situation and cultural diversity of Indonesia, which consists of hundreds of ethnic groups and languages. A school in a particular area in Indonesia may have specific needs that are different in nature in comparison to schools in other areas. Such contextual and cultural differences require teachers in multicultural societies to actively encourage learners "to embrace rather than simply enjoy or reject cultural difference for enhanced intercultural enrichment and societal harmony" (Crozet, Liddicoat, & Lo Bianco, 1999, p. 12).

This suggests training programs held by government-based training institutions must be able to prepare teachers with specific training in how to develop culturally appropriate lesson plan, syllabus, and curriculum specific to the needs of the students. This is particularly relevant because opportunities to adapt mandated curricula to the local cultural situation are vital in the spirit of policy reforms of language teacher education

(Hopkins & Stern, 1996). By the same token, such effort is parallel to the decentralized educational reforms that the government is currently embracing as demonstrated in Chapter 3.

7.2.3 Establishing a link between stakeholders

Table 7.10 Codes relating to establishing a link between stakeholders

Groups of participants	Codes	Frequency of references
PSET	Teacher educators at pre-service level get involved	1
LTE	Teacher educators at pre-service level get involved Local governments get involved	3 1
MEB	KKG initiates professional development activities	1
PSP	KKG (teachers groups) should be more active KKG initiates professional development activities	1 1
EC	Teacher educators at pre-service level get involved	1

Table 7.10 encompasses codes which refer to the establishment of a linkage between various stakeholders. These include the involvement of KKG (*Kelompok Kerja Guru* or Teachers Groups), teacher educators, and local governments.

Participants asserted KKG must play more active roles in organizing professional development activities. The activities developed in KKG must exceed beyond regular meetings and provide professional development activities in which teachers could "report things that they have done, or things they find difficult when teaching English in primary school... and they could also invite a guest speaker" (PSP2: 21-23). KKG could actually develop professional development activities that are locally centralized at "rayon" or district level for teachers with limited access to meet and conduct "some kind of development process" (MEB1: 212-213). According to PSP3, "it must be very difficult if teachers have to do a long trip" so concentrating the meeting at teachers' group level will

"help prevent teachers from making unnecessary long trip to the center of the province" (PSP3: 219). This concurs with Rachmajanti's (2008) suggestion for the empowerment of KKG in teachers' professional development activities.

Participants, namely LTE2, LTE3, and EC1 pointed out that professional development can actually be empowered by the contribution of teacher educators from teaching colleges. KKG could set up training programs which invite teacher educators from "teacher training colleges, LPTK" particularly from "English education" to provide people with relevant qualifications in teaching English to "take care elementary schools as the experts in elementary school education" (LTE2: 223-228 and LTE3: 402). Such effort is necessary as a means of "cross-fertilization between campuses" (LTE2: 229). As suggested by LTE3, these teacher educators are those "who are not money-oriented" and are happy to do the training "for community service as a follow up of" their "research" (LTE3: 297-299). To establish the link between the teachers groups, schools, and teaching colleges, EC1 suggested "universities that offer English education for primary schools" need "to have a sister school, so they can provide suitable external input and could also assess the readiness of the school, the readiness of the teachers, and to examine whether the (training program) is suitable to meet the needs of the teachers" (EC1: 152-155).

Furthermore, "local governments with all their financial resources have to be involved so that the involvement of campuses will be optimum" (LTE2: 230-231). The role of policy agents at the local level is important in terms of financial provision for the development of training-programs at in-service level. This is because in-service training programs are often lacking in continuity due to limited funds (Section 7.1.4) and the fact that training programs by private institutions are often unaffordable (Section 7.1.7). As suggested by Hamano (2008), who reviewed the contextual situation of in-service training in Vietnam, the role of the local governments in a decentralized government must be heightened to provide maximum financial support for teacher education. In other words, local governments must play a larger role in providing substantial support for in-service training. This is particularly important in the implementation of decentralization of education that the Indonesian government is currently embracing as shown in Chapter 3.

The findings above demonstrate that the roles of teacher educators at pre-service education, governments at the local level, and teacher groups are equally important in assisting government-based training institutions to develop training programs. Teacher educators from teacher colleges with relevant qualifications in TEYL could take part with KKG in designing quality teacher education programs to attend to the needs of the teachers. Adequate support from the educational unit at the local level like Dinas Dikdas must also be advocated if such training programs are to be optimum. Teacher Professional Enhancement Group (PKG) that was carried out during the 1980s-1990s (Chodidjah, 2010) may need to be revived and be expanded to reach out the teachers of English at primary level through the involvement of teachers groups at the local level (KKG).

Such policy initiative concurs with a contention made by Korthagen, et al. (2006), who suggested that meaningful relationships between schools as represented by teachers groups, teaching colleges, and student teachers is a vital principle in enhancing teacher education. This indicates the necessity to establish a linkage between these stakeholders in an attempt to providing maximum support for the professional development of teachers of English in SD. It is also parallel to the suggestion of the establishment of a wider-base participation in LTE Policymaking that has been asserted in Chapter 1.

7.2.4 Ensuring access to public in-service education

Table 7.11 Codes relating to ensuring access to public in-service education

Groups of participants	Codes	Frequency of references
PSET	Appointing teachers as civil servants necessary Teachers' status depends on status of English in curriculum	1 2
LTE	Continuous trainings necessary Government must decide the status of English	1 1
MEB	Continuous trainings necessary	1
PSP	Continuous trainings necessary	1

	In-service trainings accessible to all teachers	1
EC	Teachers in rural areas must be prioritized Teachers' status depends on status of English in curriculum	1 1

Table 7.11 lists specific codes pertaining to the importance of ensuring access to in-service education by government-based training institutions. Participants from across groups (MEB, PSP, EC, and LTE4) agreed that assurance to the continuity of teacher training program is necessary if primary school English teaching is to be optimum.

For example, PSP1 pointed out that "mere training is not sufficient" because "it has to be widely accessible and continuous" (PSP1: 160-161). This is more relevant in the case of teachers in rural areas and those in underprivileged schools, whose opportunities to attend in-service training programs are often denied (Section 7.1.5). EC1 stated that teachers in rural areas "need more intensive program, maybe wider, and much bigger in terms of scope in comparison to places where the potential of the teachers are good already" (EC1: 131-132). For teachers with such underprivileged status, "continuous training" with "follow up" is necessary to help upgrade their skills and knowledge in order to be able to cater for the needs of their students (MEB1: 296 and LTE4: 419).

It has also been suggested that appointing English teachers at primary level as civil servants is necessary to grant access to all teachers. Some local governments have taken political action to appoint English teachers with civil servant status, but such initiative has yet to appear in most regions where decentralization of education is exercised. This voice was raised by PSET11:

- 383 : … what happens in the field is that
  384 : we have never tired of giving advice. For example, here in Malang.
  385 : Here in Malang, to become a CPNS, to become CPNS, a teacher of SD should
  386 : come from S1 PGSD. The thing is in SD we have English, even though it is
  387 : a local content subject. Even though it is a local content subject they should be brave, I think.
  388 : Malang should have the courage to appoint S1 from English Language Education. But
  389 : unfortunately it isn't.
  390 : Ehm, so it hasn't appointed any teachers from English major?

391 : Not yet. Why are other cities brave enough to do it, but Malang isn't? (PSET11)

Zein (2009) argued that a compulsory status of English is beneficial for early language acquisition, global competition, as well as educational equality. The findings of this study however suggest that primary school English teaching is far more than a compulsory status of English. The status of English teachers must also be taken into account in accordance with the status of English in the primary schooling timetable. But this must not neglect the status of English in the primary school curriculum in Indonesia. The status of English as a local content subject according to the Decree of the Ministry of National Education No. 22/2006 contradicts the current situations where "almost all (primary) schools in Indonesia, now are competing and starting English earlier, and earlier" (LTE4: 416-417). She suggested that "*the government, first of all, needs to be actually clear whether English is going to be content (compulsory) subject or optional subject*" and demanded the government to make *"a clear guideline"* if English remains "*optional"* (LTE4: 417-418).

Participants suggested that the status of English strongly impacts the support attached to English language teaching. EC1 suggested that primary school English teaching "has not been a priority" of the central government primarily due to the fact the English is not a compulsory subject (EC1: 12). English language teaching has also been inhibited from receiving larger support "because English is not a compulsory subject in the curriculum, it is only a local subject, an optional subject for primary schools" (PSP2: 39-40). Another example was given by PSET9 who stated that in Lombok, West Nusa Tenggara, none of the English teachers were appointed civil servants "because English is a local content subject in school" (PSET9: 263).

The findings above demonstrate that the relationship between substantial supports for English teachers is inextricably linked with the status of English in the curriculum and the status of teachers. The status of English as a local content subject and the non-civil servant status of English teachers at primary level have prevented them from obtaining maximum

support for their professional development. This is parallel to the contention made in Chapter 3 in regard to the parallel relationship between the support that teachers may receive and the status of the subject they teach. The low level of status of their subject in addition to their non-civil servant status will continue to create problems for them. Since teacher education programs must be complementary to the substance of the national policies (Hopkins & Stern, 1996), a different landscape to the status of teachers that allows them to be appointed civil servants and are thus entitled to training programs held by government-based training institutions may appear when English is made compulsory. This is necessary in order to provide response to the denial of access to teachers with non-civil servant status as shown in Section 7.1.4.

In addition, ensuring access means challenging perpetual inequality and injustice presently afflicting teachers from underprivileged schools and those in rural areas. Literature shows that the teacher education must engage in ways that challenge policies advocating perpetual inequality in society (Meyenn & Parker, 1999; Sang, Valcke, van Braak, & Tondeur, 2009). This requires the presently occurring gap between privileged and underprivileged schools be closed to the extent that educational equality is granted to all elements of education. Clearly policy reforms of teacher education also need to ensure that much wider access be given to schools with underprivileged access, while retaining the current access given to the privileged ones.

7.2.5 Planning and evaluation in public in-service education

Table 7.12 Codes relating to planning and evaluation in public in-service education		
Groups of participants	**Codes**	**Frequency of references**
LTE	Planning in in-service training necessary Geographical situations must be taken into account Teacher educators to help planning Evaluation in in-service training necessary Local government to help funding	1 2 4 1 1
PSP	Evaluation in in-service training necessary	1
EC	Teacher educators to help planning	1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from EC

Table 7.12 lists the codes that are linked to the necessity to create sound management in planning and evaluation in training programs by government-based training institutions. Evidence drawn in this section shows various issues need to be fully considered when planning and evaluating in-service teacher training programs.

For example, participants pointed out that the vast geographical situations in Indonesia are a particularly significant issue to be taken into account when designing a training program. Issues such as how to recruit teachers, accommodation, and transport, among others, are some typical issues worth considering when the planning process takes place, especially because many teachers live and work in remote areas. These concerns were voiced by the following participants:

- *318 : … You*
  319 : have got to remember that INDONESIA IS AN ENORMOUS range of islands, teachers
  320 : working in isolated areas (.) So, again, to bring the teachers in, from miles up in the HILLS,
  321 : to come to a language class is very difficult↓. It needs to be done in blocks, you know, in ten
  322 : day courses or something, I think, you can't <all just say>, "Oh, come every Wednesday",
  323 : because you know, it could be a four hour journey by MOTORBIKE for them. So, u:hhmm,
  324 : yeah, it would really need to be carefully planned. (LTE1)
- 330 : So try to picture Indonesian *situation*. You have to recruit teachers in two weeks? Where
  331 : are we going to let them stay (for the duration of the training)?

332 : [hehehe] so *the logistics* are difficult, Bu?

333 : *logistic, maintenance, transportation, accommodation*. So for me, collaborating with

334 : *teacher training* institutions and LPTK in one place. (LTE3)

It was suggested that the involvement of relevant experts from teaching colleges and local governments is necessary to help carefully plan the training program. Both LTE3 and LTE1 agreed that "meetings involving local government and universities should be set up" and planned *"the whole semester"* (LTE3: 4901-491 and LTE1: 295). Contributions from teacher educators from teaching colleges are vital in ensuring that well-informed decisions in determining the contents of the teacher training are largely based "on the needs" of the teachers and "what is going to be trained" (EC1: 245-246).

Teacher educators are also expected to make significant contributions in dealing with practical considerations such as "how many hours allocated for language skills", "how many hours for discussion", and "how many hours for reflection" (LTE3: 491-495). On the other hand, contributions made by bureaucrats at local government will primarily cover issues such as "how much funds will be allocated for the program" (LTE3: 492). The involvement of teacher educators and policy agents at the local level suggested in this section is in accordance with the suggestion made in section 7.2.3 that pointed out the importance of establishing a link between various stakeholders to help develop training programs at in-service level.

Section 7.1.3 has demonstrated that in-service training programs at government-based training institutions have been lacking monitoring and supervision. The findings in this section further show proper training management with specific emphasis on supervision and evaluation are vital. This is evident in the responses from PSP3 and LTE3:

- 179 : "a policy needs feedback and evaluation. After that

  180 : we need to ensure the continuity, right? So it must be

  181 : that we need to evaluate the existing programs?" (PSP3).
- 414 : yes, that's why in every in-service training, the end of the in-service training, there must be

  415 : a questionnaire. Questionnaire, what is the feeling of the teachers, what are their concerns?

  416 : we need to analyse these. So the process of developing, revising, improving in-service

Article 11 of The Decree of Ministry of National Education No. 8/2007 on the Organization and Structure of P4TK and Article 5 of the Decree of Ministry of National Education No.7/2007 on the Organization and Structure of LPMP both point out the responsibility of the Unit of Program and Information in the design of the contents of a training program. The unit is primarily responsible for the mapping out of the competence of the teachers as well as needs analysis of the teachers. As suggested by the findings above, the roles of the Unit of Program and Information however need to be supported by the contributions made by teacher educators from pre-service education and government at local level in order to provide much stronger supervision, as suggested in Section 7.2.3. This indicates a linkage between local governments, government-based training institutions, and teaching colleges is essential in both the design and implementation of in-service teacher training programs.

7.3 Conclusion

This chapter has presented and discussed responses of participants with regard to the delivery of in-service level to prepare English teachers in primary schools and provided suggestions for an overhaul that should take place at in-service education. The discussion throughout the chapter has demonstrated the inadequacy of in-service education in preparing teachers to teach English at primary level.

A number of issues have undermined the delivery of in-service education for primary school English teachers in Indonesia. It has been shown that there are a limited number of quality teacher educators in government-based training institutions with relevant expertise to teaching English to Young Learners. Training programs held by government-based training institutions are lacking management in terms of planning, evaluation, and transparency. Furthermore, the contents of the training programs are impractical and are not specific to preparing English teachers at primary level. Often the training programs

primarily overlook the need of teachers with non-civil servant status and those teaching in underprivileged schools and rural areas. While in-service training provided by private institutions have been regarded of high-quality primarily due to the presence of teacher educators with relevant expertise, it is unfortunate that the training is not affordable and is inaccessible for many teachers.

The discussion throughout the chapter has also made some suggestions aimed for the improvement of in-service teacher education for primary school English teachers. Assurance to the presence of quality teacher educators needs to be created through a large scale of recruitment of teacher educators. Moreover, a specific training scheme that allows their involvement and that of teacher educators from pre-service level is imperative to prepare student teachers with relevant knowledge and skills in TEYL. It has also been suggested that components of In-service Training Programs need to be more practical with more specific focus on developing language proficiency and EYL teaching methodology (including developing lesson plans and KTSP curriculum with culturally appropriate contents). Access to in-service training needs to be made available for teachers with non-civil servant status and those who teach in underprivileged schools and rural areas. Stronger cooperation between teaching colleges, teacher groups, local governments, and government-based training institutions needs to appear in order to ensure adequate planning and evaluation to the training developed at in-service level as well as access to attending affordable training by private institutions.

The suggestions discussed in this chapter will be compared to suggestions made in chapters 5 and 6 and those made in the subsequent chapters to offer policy recommendations in Chapter 10. The following chapter presents and discusses responses of participants with regard to learning-teaching options in teacher education to prepare English teacher at primary level.

Chapter 8

Learning-Teaching Options in Language Teacher Education for Primary School English Teachers

8.0 Introduction

This chapter presents and discusses the perspectives of the participants on the learning teaching options in language teacher education at both pre-service and in-service levels designed for primary school English teachers. All data employed in the discussion of this chapter was generated from interviews involving PSETs (Primary School English Teachers), LTEs (Language Teacher Educators), and MEBs (Members of Educational Board). These groups of participants were shown a list of learning-teaching options in language teacher education based on literature (Richards & Farrell, 2005; Gebhard & Oprandy, 1999; Richards, 1998; Richards & Nunan, 1990) as following:

a. Classroom Observation
b. Teaching Supervision
c. Teaching Practicum
d. Action Research
e. Video Analysis
f. Microteaching
g. Workshops
h. Lectures
i. Teaching Journal
j. Language Improvement Classes

After being shown the list, the participants were asked: *Which of these learning-teaching options are useful for primary school English teachers and why? Have you got any procedures for developing these learning teaching options?*

Although the focus of analysis in this chapter was data from PSETs, LTEs, and MEBs, responses from PSPs (Primary School Principals) and ECs (Educational Consultants) were also included if they were relevant to the discussion of the data. The data were assessed against the relevant literature and contextual factors that have been examined in chapters 1, 2, and 3, respectively, and findings generated from chapters 5, 6, and 7.

The following sections present and discuss the views and perspectives of participants on the learning teaching options mentioned above. A concluding section that summarizes the discussion throughout the chapter is also provided.

8.1 Classroom observation

Table 8.1 Codes relating to classroom observation		
Groups of participants	**Codes**	**Frequency of references**
PSET	Observing experienced teachers valuable Peer observation for comparison study Peer observation is a learning opportunity Peer observation with teachers from the same district	1 1 4 2
LTE	Peer observation is a learning opportunity Positive atmosphere important for observation Observation should have guidelines Observation should be focused Post-observation is valuable for discussion Aspects to observe must be specified Observing experienced teachers valuable	2 1 2 1 1 1 2
MEB	Aspects to observe must be specified Observing experienced teachers valuable Observation should have guidelines Observation to observe students' behaviors	1 1 1 1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from PSP and EC

Important codes relating to classroom observation emerge from responses of participants, as listed in Table 8.1 above. These include the idea that classroom observation is 'valuable' and is perceived as 'a learning opportunity' as well as the idea related to the importance for observation to 'be focused' and to have 'guidelines'.

Responses from participants such as LTE1, MEB1, and PSET4 assert the usefulness of observing experienced teachers as a learning-teaching option for novice teachers. Both LTE1 and MEB1 agreed on the importance of classroom observation in that they stated

that "teachers need to observe teachers who are better than them" (MEB1: 374) and *"observing experienced teachers is very, very valuable especially as a new teacher, you know, to watch other teachers teach, especially experienced ones"* (LTE1: 372-373). PSET4 fully realized this and stated what she has "repetitively done is observation of experienced teachers" (PSET4: 73). For PSET4, such opportunity is indispensable because she wanted "to see how other teachers have successfully used different organizational patterns" and in particular "those with different range of learners" (PSET4: 28 & 31).

This is particularly relevant when discussion could take place between the observer(s) and the observee after the observation session. LTE1 further illustrated:

- *404 : Yeah, I think it, that's very valuable, because let's say I'm a new teacher and I watch*
  405 : this experienced teacher and I've got sort of things that I'm looking for=As a new teacher
  406 : I would think, "I wonder why she did that?"↑ (.) And I can go away never knowing the
  407 : answer=OR, I can meet her afterwards and say, "Oh, I really enjoyed your lesson and I liked
  408 : this, I liked that, can I just ask you, why did you do that?"↑ And then the teacher could say,
  409 : "Oh, well, because of this, and this this.↓" "Oh, alright!"=So, you know, very useful to have
  410 : discussion, it could be formal↓, it could be informal↓, it can be directly after the lesson↓, it
  411 : can be the next day↓, it can be the week later↓ (.) IDEALLY, you do it while it's still fresh
  412 : in the teacher's mind, yah↑(LTE1)

What LTE1 meant above is that novice teachers could discuss with the experienced teacher about teaching techniques they are unsure with or particular aspects of the lesson that intrigue them. Such opportunity is important for them to clarify and articulate their views of pedagogical techniques that they were interested in (Gebhard, 1999a).

In addition to the usefulness of observing experienced teachers, participants also suggested the usefulness of peer observation which allows the current in-service teachers to observe other teachers. PSET1 stated that peer observations allow teachers like him to "see our strengths and weaknesses, or when we see someone is doing it well, and could manage their class well, then we could follow the same practice" (PSET1: 429-431), while PSET2 stated that peer-observation allows her to "reflect on her weaknesses, to find out what her weaknesses are" (PSET2: 686). These views are corroborated by LTE1 who stated

that *"peer observation is also very useful"* because when *"you watch somebody who is not so experienced, a peer, you may not learn something new from them, but you may learn something not to do."* (LTE1: 385-387).

Two teachers, namely PSET10 and PSET13, both pointed out the importance of peer observation that utilizes the connection between teachers in the same district. PSET10 stated that "teachers who are in the same district, they generally have similar or typical problems" so that teachers could generally "start learning from others, from teachers of other schools" who are in the same district (PSET10-306-310). Such opportunity is valuable for PSET13 because it is a "process of comparison study, whether we are already good in the learning and teaching process, or we could adopt something good from our colleagues" (PSET13: 353-355). This positive evidence of peer-observation marks a significant shift because *"in the past, people always felt that observing is, is being criticized, is being judged (.)",* but at present *"in many contexts teachers now start to understand, to understand that actually observing is about learning."* (LTE4: 403-404).

When it comes to developing procedures for classroom observation, data from participants yielded significant results. LTE4 pointed out that first and foremost, it is necessary to *"give teachers understanding that observation here is not intimidating one another, but it is actually part of learning"* (LTE4: 405-406). Therefore, it is very important for teacher education programs at both pre-service and in-service levels *"to develop learning community where people do not feel threatened when they are watched, or when they discuss things and when they make mistakes, then they feel that mistake is part of the learning"* (LTE4: 407-410).

Three participants also argued that it is necessary to systematize classroom observation. For LTE4, *"observation should be clearly focused"* (LTE4: 389). It is imperative for teacher educators to give the observers *"something to guide them"* (LTE1: 375), so that "*they have some guidance, they know they're actually focusing on something, because if you're just left to watch the lesson, it's too big, it's too much"* (LTE1: 382-384). Teachers could focus on the "teaching patterns of techniques" on specific aspects including "language

proficiency", "using teaching media", "approaches to learners", and "learning assessment" (MEB1: 376-380). Teachers could also select *"on different things"* such as *"the way teacher gives instruction", "the students", "the lesson from students' point of view", "classroom management", "the use of English", "classroom interaction*" (LTE1: 379-381). These findings are in line with literature that maintains the importance of observation checklist to provide a systematic way of collecting information on specific aspects of a lesson (Wajnryb, 1992; Richards & Farrell, 2005; Gebhard, 1999a; Day, 1990).

The discussion in this section has two implications. First, the findings above suggest that classroom observation is useful not only for student teachers who could learn from experienced teachers, but also the currently in-service teachers who could observe their peers. The findings above indicate that classroom observation allows observers to identify techniques and practices that they could apply to their own teaching, which reiterate the contention made in Section 1.6.4. Observation provides observers with opportunities to fully reflect on their own strengths and weaknesses as well as to adopt useful teaching techniques, especially in areas that leave room for improvement as identified in Chapter 5, including maintaining students' interests, giving feedback and correcting errors, integrating language skills, and dealing with different range of learners.

Second, it is worth noting that the procedures for developing classroom observation were primarily generated from LTE and MEB, but none of the teachers provided insights on this issue. Teachers might not be familiar with procedures or techniques of classroom observation. This indicates that teachers may not have been adequately prepared to take on further responsibilities on their own professional growth, which also includes developing procedures of learning-teaching options such as classroom observation. What this means is that the inadequate preparation for teachers of English at primary level at both pre-service and in-service levels is reflected in their inability in identifying strategies or techniques for improvement.

8.2 Teaching supervision

Table 8.2 Codes relating to teaching supervision		
Groups of participants	**Codes**	**Frequency of references**
PSET	Supervisors who are bureaucrats do not have the expertise	1
LTE	Supervisors from teaching colleges necessary	2
MEB	Supervisors from teaching colleges necessary Teacher educators from teaching colleges handle several schools	1 1
EC	Supervisors who are bureaucrats do not have the expertise Supervision is not well-organized	1 1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from PSP

Table 8.2 includes codes generated from responses of participants, namely PSET4, PSET11, LTE3, and MEB1 on teaching supervision and were corroborated with relevant data generated from EC2. These codes associate teaching supervision with being prone to political intervention from educational bureaucrats.

Evidence from the study demonstrates the involvement of bureaucrats who have no particular expertise in primary school English teaching. PSET11 pointed out that "once I was observed by a school superintendent whose background was not in English education… but he did not seem to understand what I was doing" (PSET11: 427 & 431). She further illustrated that

- 431 : The students were listening and were doing what I told them to do.
  432 : But the superintendent was confused and asked me, "So there is no
  433 : writing?"
  434 : "No, it was a listening lesson" (PSET11)

EC2 confirmed this by pointing out that "those who are in charge in English language teaching have not clearly organized things with teaching supervision (0.5), because of an issue in terms of human resource, because most of them are bureaucrats" (EC2: 123-125).

This finding further corroborates the results of section 7.1.3 with regard to the political intervention of educational bureaucrats in the domain of primary school English teaching and poor monitoring system presently occurring in the management of in-service education.

For MEB1, this situation necessitates teacher educators from pre-service education to take up a further role beyond mere lecturers in English departments. She suggested that it is necessary

- 235 : ... to make a link, to link with universities, so that universities
  236 : especially English department, some of the lecturers in the department are willing to
  237 : take up the role to become school's advisor (.), something like a school supervisor, so they
  238 : come to the school not only when they're invited, but because it's part of a
  239 : continuous process. They are supervisors but they are responsible
  240 : for a particular subject (MEB1)

LTE3 confirmed her agreement by stating that "universities with English education have to get involved, to get involved through community service" (LTE3: 110-111). Such community service is "a follow up" of their "research" so they could "help teachers, to improve their knowledge, by giving them training to become creative." (LTE3: 300-301). Practically, a "teacher educator in English, he/she could handle, for example, five schools" to "supervise the learning-teaching process" of the teachers in these schools (MEB1: 242-246). These views are parallel to the needs of teachers. PSET4, for example, stated that "what I really need is someone who can share with me how to implement ideas, from the abstract into reality" (PSET4: 65-66).

These findings suggest teaching supervision in language teacher education for primary school English teachers is a role best exercised not by educational bureaucrats, but by teacher educators from teaching colleges. Stronger cooperation needs to be established between teaching colleges and schools (Section 7.2.3) to allow mutualistic symbiosis between teachers and teacher educators. While the supervisory role could provide an avenue for the dissemination of the teacher educators' research to a wider audience, teachers could articulate views, clarify perceptions of their teaching practices, and

discover solutions (Freeman, 1990). This requires the teacher educators at pre-service level to extend their roles beyond the traditional supervision to not only supervise student teachers at pre-service level but also the currently in-service teachers of English at primary level. Such supervisory role is particularly relevant to the needs of teachers in managing lessons in large-classroom and developing culturally appropriate lessons and curriculum, as suggested in Chapter 5.

8.3 Teaching practicum

Table 8.3 Codes relating to teaching practicum		
Groups of participants	**Codes**	**Frequency of references**
LTE	Having mentor valuable Practicum not carefully implemented Practicum needs to be standardized Practicum valuable Practicum needs to start early Remuneration for senior teachers necessary	2 1 2 1 1 1
EC	Practicum not carefully implemented Practicum not institutionalized Practicum needs to start early Early exposure does not happen Practicum happens too late Teacher educators not focused	2 1 2 1 2 1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from PSET, MEB, and PSP

Table 8.3 lists codes pertinent to the importance of teaching practicum and its procedures. These codes are generated two participants, namely LTE1 and EC2.

LTE1 highlighted that opportunities for student teachers to acclimatize to the context of teaching environment are viable through teaching practicum. Doing teaching practicum allows student teachers to *"have a mentor to guide",* which is *"very valuable"* when they go *"to a primary school"* (LTE1: 538-541). This is particularly useful when *"the assigned*

teacher" could *"guide", "sit", "watch the "practice teaching"* of the new teacher and give them *"feedback"* (LTE1: 595-596).

This finding is parallel to the literature that suggests that the roles of senior teachers are best extended to areas such as giving advice to student teachers on effective teaching practices, making theory-practice links overt, observing them and commenting upon their work, and evaluating and writing reports upon their practicum performance. Moreover, senior teachers are responsible for other roles on acclimatizing the student teachers to the school environment such as guiding student teachers to the broader roles of teachers within the school as well as the community (Sinclair, 1997; Field, 1993; Cameron, 1995).

This is relevant because pre-service teacher graduates have not been sufficiently trained to deal with parents and the large neighborhood outside the school (Barbour & Barbour, 1997). The omnipresence of this notion is irrefutable and Indonesia is not exclusion. As shown in Chapter 5, teachers are situated in interactive personal and institutional communication with students, parents, and community members, and this makes the importance of acclimatization to the teaching environment in teaching practicum even more considerable.

This echoes the contention made in section 7.2.3 with regard to establishing a linkage between teaching colleges and schools. Freeman (2011) pointed out that a major challenge of teacher education is how the context of teaching environment can be orchestrated to support the learning of student teachers. For Skyes, Bird, & Kennedy (2012) this means embedding pre-service training in schooling because schools today present specific mixes of students, policies, curricula, and conditions of work. Anchoring training in these specifics might travel a long way in closing the gap between preparation and practice.

Further evidence from the study however shows that the practice of teaching practicum in Indonesia has not been carefully implemented. Often senior teachers *"take the money"*

given to them and *"they disappear", whether "they go home early, or they go to the teacher's room for a cigarette".* These senior teachers perceived the student teachers who visit them as a mere *"assistant coming in to help them and they can disappear"* (LTE1: 603-609). LTE1's concerns were confirmed by EC2 in the following:

- 250 : this teaching practicum has not been carefully implemented. I'd like to say
  251 : that nationally in general, teaching practicum (.) eh, is not (.) INSTITUTIONALIZED,
  252 : and is not carefully implemented.
  254 : … Eh, those who are doing teaching practicum, they are supposed to be supervised by
  255 : their teacher educators, but the teacher educators themselves are not focused on their task.
  256 : They did not supervise the student teachers (EC2).

This finding echoes the observation of Rachmawati (2010) that the currently implemented teaching practicum in Indonesia has not been clearly formatted in terms of the shares of responsibility between student teachers and senior teachers who supervise them as well as poor monitoring of the practicum.

For this reason, LTE1 pointed out that teaching practicum *"needs to be standardized"* and *"needs to be much more clearly explained"* so that *"there's a report"* that gives evidence for the presence of both the senior teachers and student teachers and that *"they were from this time to this time"* (LTE1: 609-613). LTE1 reiterated that the teaching practicum *"is very valuable, but it's got to: be set up properly, it's got to be understood by all parties"* (LTE1: 640-641). In order to compensate senior teachers when taking on the demanding and time-consuming mentoring role to further assist the professional growth of student teachers, she suggested that *"they've got to be given recognition, remuneration for it"* (LTE1: 638-639).

This finding points out the importance of having a clearly set up teaching practicum that outlines the rights, roles, and responsibilities of student teachers, teacher educators, and the teachers at the school being visited. Both student teachers and senior teachers need to have a good grasp of what roles are expected from each other and avoid the occurrence of unrealistic expectations of each other. Standardization on the

implementation of teaching practicum that outlines the interplay of these intersecting roles is essential to ensure the feasibility of teaching practicum (Gebhard, 2009).

Further evidence shows that teaching practicum is best implemented early during pre-service education rather than later. Both LTE1 and EC2 argued that:

- *593 : Well, as I said earlier, very, very useful, but in Indonesia it's too little, much too late. Why*
  594 : do we wait until semester six they start it or semester seven?↑ Why wait until then to do it?↑
  595 : U:hmm, it's too little too late (LTE1)
- 260 : the next problem with us is that early exposure does not exist. In general
  261 : student teachers do their teaching practicum in semester seven or semester eight. However
  262 : it is supposed to be, like in Japan, students are already familiar
  263 : with school culture since semester one= (EC2)
  264 : =OH (R)
  265 : So early exposure does not happen for us. What happens is *late exposure to school setting.* So
  266 : this is too late. We need to build it up early since semester one, so that like the one
  267 : so that like the one in Japan, students have already been introduced to
  268 : school culture (EC2).

This challenges the currently implemented teaching practicum system as part of professional units that provides student teachers an opportunity to visit a school during Semester 7 or 8 of their pre-service teacher education (Section 3.4.2). As suggested by LTE1 and EC2, the creation of opportunities in which student teachers could visit schools to acclimatize to the context of the teaching environment need to start during the early years of pre-service teacher education.

The findings above indicate that the prevalent assumption that relevant contextual knowledge is innately built into the social adjustment skills of novice teachers once they enter the teaching workplace is implausible. Student teachers must have an opportune moment in which they could acclimatize to the teaching environment and observe the complexity of teaching starting at the early years, with the assistance of the senior teachers. For this to work, it requires the establishment of clear guidelines consisting of a

set of responsibilities and roles of student teachers and senior teachers as well as the provision of sufficient remuneration for senior teachers.

8.4 Action research

Table 8.4 Codes relating to action research		
Groups of participants	**Codes**	**Frequency of references**
PSET	Action research essential Action research useful to identify students' problems	1 1
LTE	Action research useful for reflection Collaborative action research necessary Proper training for action research necessary	1 2 1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from MEB, PSP, and EC

Table 8.4 encompasses codes pertinent to the importance of action research in the professional growth of teachers of English in SD and its procedures. These codes were generated from data provided by participants, namely PSET4, PSET9, LTE1 and LTE3.

Two teachers, namely PSET4 and PSET9 provided positive responses on the usefulness of action research for teachers' professional development. PSET4 pointed out that "action research is a must" (PSET4: 742). According to PSET9, action research is "useful to identify students' problems because as a teacher we need to know. We need to investigate what the problem is, and what kind of students we are dealing with" (PSET9: 388-390). These views were confirmed by LTE3 who stated the importance of action research by stating that "because teachers work on their own classroom, *action research, according to me, is a kind of teaching reflection"* (LTE3: 506-508).

In terms of developing action research procedures, LTE1 asserted that action research is best enacted collaboratively to provide opportunities for student teachers to participate actively in a research project: *"if it's gonna be done, do it properly, do it as a group of*

teachers" (LTE1: 502). This view is parallel to that of LTE3 who argued that "action research can be given in simple ways. For example, teachers are supposed to bring their problems to the classroom... and generate ideas to solve the problems with other teachers" (LTE3: 495-498).

The use of collaborative action research has been widely advocated in the literature (Vialle, Hall, Booth, 1997; Bartels, 2001; Burns, 1999; 2009; McKay, 2006). At pre-service level, student teachers may be assigned to work in a group to undertake a collaborative research project. Term papers and class presentations that are aimed to develop the culture of reflection and critical inquiry may be undertaken within the framework of action research. Such collaborative inquiry is necessary in teacher education programs to allow student teachers' awareness of the interaction between their classroom experiences and research-based theoretical understanding (Newell, 1996; Burns, 2009).

At in-service level, collaborative action research projects may be established through the involvement of teachers and researchers (Burns, 2009). The current in-service teachers may benefit from action research when collaborative research projects are undertaken with the assistance of teacher educators. As highlighted in Chapter 3, the role of teachers groups at regional level such as KKG is to initiate activities related to teachers' professional development. This suggests that teachers groups may initiate professional development activities in order to enable teachers and researchers work collaboratively to investigate various teaching problems the teachers may encounter in the classroom.

It is however worth noting that the usefulness of action research for professional development is groundless if the results are questionable. As LTE1 pointed out:

- *491 : … I think, I think, you know sometimes*
  492 : they come up with some really (1.0) .hhh dubious kind of research topics, u:hm, and the
  493 : results are pretty... (.) you know… To be (.) to be a good action researcher, you've got to be
  494 : trained, you need to know, and many of the teachers (.)=
  495 : ='And many of the teachers are not trained'. (R)
  496 : are not trained (LTE1)

This implies that action research must not overlook the fact that teachers have not been properly trained in undertaking action research. Proper training prior to the conduct of action research is essential in order to prevent teachers from producing research with dubious results. Teacher educators at both pre-service and in-service levels are required to equip student teachers with basic research skills in order to conduct action research properly.

8.5 Video analysis

Table 8.5 Codes relating to video analysis

Groups of participants	Codes	Frequency of references
PSET	Video analysis is useful for reflection Video may replace classroom observation	3 1
LTE	Video analysis is useful for reflection Video analysis is useful to develop objectivity Multimedia facilities for video analysis essential in universities Analysis of one's own video necessary Analysis of experienced teachers' video necessary	2 1 1 1 1
MEB	Video analysis is useful for reflection Video analysis is useful for specific teaching techniques	1 1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from PSP and EC

Table 8.5 encompasses codes that emerge from the responses provided by three groups of participants: teachers, teacher educators, and members of educational board. The codes are conclusive in highlighting the usefulness of video analysis for the professional growth of teachers of English in primary schools.

Three teachers, namely PSET10, PSET12, and PSET1 suggested that video analysis is a useful learning-teaching option for teachers' professional growth for various reasons. PSET10 pointed out that video analysis helps her to "see our own weaknesses, we want to

know things we need to improve" (PSET10: 323). This view is shared by PSET12 who maintained that using video helps her to "see ourselves like a mirror, we could find out our strengths and weaknesses" (PSET12: 619-620). Furthermore, PSET1 perceived video as useful to provide the fullest accounts of teaching practice and an objective ways of interpreting classroom behavior so that "video could be a replacement for classroom observation" (PSET1: 439).

Teachers' positive responses on the usefulness of videos are in accordance with data generated from teacher educators and members of educational board. MEB1 stated that through video analysis teachers could "reflect on what they do" and "why a particular teaching technique is useful for them" (MEB1: 391-392). MEB2 in particular stated that video analysis helps him "to train teachers on how to develop techniques" such as "to give feedback" and "to give instruction" (MEB2: 584 & 586). Teachers *"can learn so much just from watching"* themselves on a video (LTE1: 391) and eventually develop the sense of objectivity when they "are willing to be criticized" (LTE3: 482). As suggested by LTE1, there is *"a lot of value in having, uh, being able to look back over the lesson and analyze it through videos"* (LTE1: 518-519).

These findings are parallel to the review of the literature that highlights how video analysis is useful to allow student teachers to fully reflect on their teaching behaviors (Section 1.6.8). Such reflection may appear in the form of a peer discussion that can be used to discuss aspects such as lesson planning, classroom management, as well as curriculum design (Richards & Farrell, 2005).

In terms of procedures of video analysis, only LTE1 provided responses on developing a video analysis for teacher education. She pointed out two procedures in which video analysis can be utilized. First, she highlighted the importance of developing video analysis of student teacher's own teaching practice. She suggested that *"any universities should have a good multimedia facility whereby video cameras are available, so that peer teaching can be videoed, and then when teachers go out and do their training, they could*

have their lesson videoed" (LTE1: 513-515). Second, LTE1 maintained that it is also useful to analyse the videos of experienced teachers. She suggested that *"the more you give exposure you can give trainee teachers, the better. So to go and <see teachers teach> live, OR to watch a video of teachers teach."* (LTE1: 526-528).

The findings above indicate that video analysis is useful for student teachers at both pre-service teacher and in-service levels of teacher education. They could watch the video of their own teaching practices or that of experienced teachers and discuss with peers in a learning community such as teachers groups. Such opportunity allows teacher education to go beyond demonstrating teaching strategies because now pre-service and in-service teachers are encouraged to learn to observe, reflect, and think critically on various teaching strategies.

Furthermore, they are also trained to notice their own students' way of being and develop practices that help them to have insight into student thinking so that they are better able to adapt to their students' needs and the context in which they are teaching. Often teachers are unaware of students' ways of thinking or learning strategies, and analysis of video of classroom teaching would allow them to delve deeper into this realm (Masats & Dooly, 2011; Rosaen, Lundeberg, Cooper, Fritzen, & Terpstra, 2008; Zhang, Lundeberg, Koehler, & Eberhardt, 2011). Video analysis also helps teachers to adopt a particular teaching behavior for their future practices considering various resources and constraints within the language classroom (Masats & Dooly, 2011). This is particularly relevant to tackle various areas of pedagogy in which teachers are having difficulty with, as suggested in Chapter 5, such as maintaining students' interests, giving feedback and correcting errors, dealing with different range of learners, and integrating language skills.

8.6 Microteaching

Table 8.6 Codes relating to microteaching		
Groups of participants	**Codes**	**Frequency of references**
PSET	Microteaching valuable for student teachers Microteaching useful to develop character of teaching Microteaching useful to give direct practice	1 1 1
LTE	Microteaching valuable for student teachers Microteaching more preferable than peer-teaching Microteaching needs to start early Microteaching as part of teaching practicum Teaching colleges liaise with schools to conduct microteaching	1 2 1 1 1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from MEB, PSP, and EC

Table 8.6 reveals a list of codes generated from the responses of teachers and teacher educators. The codes indicate the importance of microteaching and procedures to develop it.

The use of microteaching in language teacher education for primary school English teachers was maintained by PSET9, PSET6, PSET12, LTE1 and LTE3. For PSET9, "the most important learning teaching option is about teaching, the classroom teaching, or microteaching" (PSET9: 378-380). PSET9 highlighted that the importance of microteaching is because it helps teachers to "develop their character of teaching, because every teacher has their own styles that doesn't have to copy other teachers' styles or characters" (PSET6: 723-725). This view was echoed by PSET12 who stated that microteaching allows her to "directly practice teaching" (PSET12: 614).

Responses from LTE are parallel to that of teachers. LTE1 stated that microteaching is *"very valuable before"* student teachers *"go off the school"* (LTE1: 630-631). LTE3 stated that "in most teacher training programs we have peer teaching, student teachers teach their own peer who are already good in English" and stated that "microteaching is much better than peer teaching" (LTE3: 545-549). Having conducted extensive teacher training

for primary school English teachers herself, LTE3 further stated that she "conducted a research that shows that microteaching is more effective than peer teaching" (LTE3: 549-550).

Further evidence shows that opportunities for student teachers to carry out hands on teaching of small groups of primary school students are best enacted in sequence, after the implementation of other learning teaching options such as video analysis and classroom observations. This was pointed out by LTE3 as following:

- 542 : The first is... through video. It's the first one.
  543 : The second is student teachers to observe teachers. Not only one, maybe more.
  544 : Then they could discuss, and compare the teaching practices of the teachers.
  545 : The third one, they could do their own demonstration, so they do teaching
  546 : practice in microteaching. (LTE3)

LTE3's statement above suggests that video analysis (Section 8.5) and classroom observation (Section 8.3) should precede microteaching in preparing student teachers for their professional development. This finding is in line with the results of a study conducted by He & Yan (2011) who argued that the practice of microteaching alone would be inadequate in preparing student teachers for the targeted real life school teaching contexts. This indicates that the integration of microteaching with the acquisition of pedagogical knowledge has to match with the provision of exposure to other teachers' teaching practices, both through video analysis and classroom observation.

Similar to the findings of Section 8.1, where no teachers provided responses to the procedures for classroom observations, in this section none of the teachers provided responses on developing procedures for microteaching. Procedures for microteaching were exclusively drawn from LTE1 and LTE3. In dissecting the procedures of microteaching, both LTE1 and LTE3 provided different but complementary ideas. LTE1 stated that it is necessary that microteaching is given *"from the beginning"* and suggested to *"start it much early in the course, start it in semester one"* in which student teachers have to teach *"mini lessons"* in *"10 minutes"* (LTE1: 631-634). LTE3, on the other hand,

stated that it is important to establish a strong relationship with a primary school in order to conduct microteaching. She outlined the procedure in the following:

- 557 : and I taught my students, if in the past I was the one who made the contact, now, I don't do it
  558 : anymore. I just write a letter and have the Associate Dean to sign it, then I tell the student
  559 : teachers to come to a neighboring school and talk to the school principal, "We would like to teach
  560 : 4 of your school students on such day, on such date, at such hour." After they have
  561 : got the students, they have to be responsible to return them, and I am also responsible
  562 : as the lecturer of EYL, so microteaching is very beneficial. (LTE3)

The findings above indicate that early opportunities in which student teachers are exposed to close real teaching experience through microteaching is desirable. This concurs with the contention made in Section 6.2.3 that highlights the importance of provision of practical components in pre-service education. This is particularly relevant to addressing areas in which teachers need further pedagogy preparation including maintaining students' interests, giving feedback and correcting errors, dealing with different range of learners, and integrating language skills, as suggested in Chapter 5.

Furthermore, microteaching could serve as a tool that builds a link between teaching colleges and schools via the student teacher's increased school experience, which is necessary for the establishment of linkage between teaching colleges, schools, and teacher groups (Section 7.2.3). The idea of having a sister school in which a school has a direct coordination with a teaching college as demonstrated in Section 7.2.3 is beneficial to allow arrangements for prospective teachers to conduct microteaching, possibly as part of their teaching practicum. Such arrangements may take place through the involvement of teacher educators, school principals, members of teachers groups, and senior teachers.

8.7 Workshops

Table 8.7 Codes relating to workshops		
Groups of participants	**Codes**	**Frequency of references**
PSET	Workshop must be practical Microteaching may be included in workshops	1 1
LTE	Workshop leader must be engaging Workshop participants must be prepared Preparation in workshops is vital Topics in workshops must generate discussion Needs analysis necessary for planning workshops	1 1 1 1 2
MEB	Needs analysis necessary for planning workshops	1
EC	Needs analysis necessary for planning workshops	1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from PSP

Table 8.7 shows a list of codes pertaining to the category that provides insights into the perceptions of participants in regard to procedures to developing successful workshops. This data was generated from four participants: PSET13, LTE1, MEB1, and EC1.

LTE1 maintained that preparation is vital for a successful workshop. She stated that "*there needs to be somebody who is going to be responsible for leading the discussion, who's going to prepare the opening remarks"* and is engaging to *"continue into a discussion"* (LTE1: 349-351). LTE1 pointed out that the presence of an engaging workshop leader is however not the only the determinant factor for a successful workshops because "*the students need to know well in advance what the topics of the seminar, or, or tutorial would be" and they need to "prepare thoroughly, they need to have done the reading"* (LTE1: 348-349 & 358-359).

The emphasis on workshops being a place for discussion and reinforcing the involvement of participants prior to the workshop session indicates a larger autonomy needs to be given to student teachers to become the primary source of knowledge (Section 1.5.1).

Conducting interactive workshops means participants are seen no longer as passive recipients but as active agents for their own professional growth. This argument gains more considerable importance especially if workshops place a more practical orientation, such as giving opportunities to participants to do short teaching simulations. This was voiced by PSET13 who expected workshops to possibly have a "microteaching component" in order to give teachers opportunities to gain "practical experiences" and "how to do the practice teaching" (PSET13: 371-373).

Further evidence generated from MEB1, EC1, and LTE1 highlights the importance of conducting a needs analysis during workshop preparation. EC1 claimed that the conduct of a workshop "depends on the needs, depends on the needs and which aspects we are training" (EC1: 245). This idea was echoed by LTE1 who said*, "oh, it depends, depends on the topic, it depends on the university"* (LTE1: 353). For MEB1 conducting a needs analysis prior to holding a workshop session is important "because the strengths and weaknesses of teachers, each of them is different. And the approaches we use are different" (MEB1: 348-349). These findings corroborate the suggestion in Chapter 5 that highlights the importance of analysis on the needs of the student teachers to determine the contents of teacher training programs.

This is especially necessary in order to help identify workshop topics that generate discussion. LTE1 suggested that successful workshops have been equated with the utilization of mind-stimulating topics that engage participants in lively discussions. This is illustrated in the following:

- *355 : probably the most successful ones are the ones that (.) you get to*
  356 : the time up point, a:nd the students <are still> wanting TO DISCUSS, so they end up going to
  357 : the canteen and they continue discussing it out of class, I mean for me, that would be u:hh
  358 : that's, that's, u:hh, what's exciting about teaching where, there's you know, it's not just
  359 : "Oh, it's my turn now, oh, OK. I think this, what do you think?" "Oh, I think this", you
  360 : know, it's got to be, it's got to be a topic that generates↓, which means the preparation time (LTE1)

The employment of topics that generate discussion may possibly be based on the recommendations that have provided signposts for language teacher education to cover pedagogical areas such as providing feedback and correcting errors (Section 5.2.3). This is particularly relevant due to the fact that primary schooling education in Indonesia is multicultural, typified by a diversity of ethnicity, religion, mother tongue, and cultural traditions. A challenge to such a culturally diverse setting is the potential misunderstanding between students and teachers, whose ethnic and socio-cultural backgrounds are different. Culturally responsive teachers reflect on whether their decisions on feedback provision and error correction promote or obstruct students' access to learning. Culturally responsive classroom management is a *frame of mind* as much as a set of strategies or practices (Weinstein, Curran, & Tomlinson-Clarke, 2003). However, such understanding is unfeasible without thorough analysis on the needs of the students, and this would be a challenge that may be properly tackled through workshops.

8.8 Lectures

Table 8.8 Codes relating to lectures

Groups of participants	Codes	Frequency of references
LTE	Lectures are valuable for learning Lecturers must be engaging Psychology of learning included in lectures	2 1 1
EC	Knowledge of learners included in lectures	1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from PSET, MEB, and PSP

This sub-category provides insights into the perceptions of participants in regard to the usefulness of lectures in teacher education for primary school English teachers and the procedures to develop it. Table 8.8 shows a list of codes pertaining to this particular category, as generated from three participants (LTE1, LTE2, and EC2).

The data on the usefulness of lectures for the professional growth of student teachers was provided by LTE1. She stated that *"lectures are valuable, they can be very valuable"* learning-teaching options in pre-service teacher education (LTE1: 335-336).

The findings of the study also provide some insights for developing highly successful lectures for pre-service teacher education. First of all, LTE1 suggested that it is necessary for lecturers to be able to deliver the lectures in ways that are engaging and arouse the interest of the student teachers. She pointed out that *"a lot of it depends on the personality of the lecturer"* and at the same time "*it doesn't have to be the lecturer just standing there, drowning, drowning, drowning, you know lectures can be interactive, lectures can, can have nice graphics, you know, involved the students"* (LTE1: 335-339).

Secondly, lectures do not necessarily always have to be a one-way direction of information delivery but may be innovative by integrating other learning-teaching options such as video analysis. This is illustrated in the following:

- *531 : a hundred of undergraduate students in your lecture hall, and you've got a screen, you've*
  532 : got an LCD player, and you can just show them some shots, you can pause it, and you can
  533 : say to them, "Did you see what the teacher did there?↑ Did you see… what happened next?"
  534 : Yah!↑ To be able to analyze teaching videos=fabulous, wow↑. And they're available, the
  535 : Internet makes them available, USE THEM. Yah!↑ (LTE1)

When it comes to the topics that need to be covered in lectures, LTE2 and EC2 provided complementary ideas that highlight the importance of knowledge that helps teachers to know their students better. LTE2 stated that what student teachers need is "a unit that explicitly teaches them to get to know our learners, our students. There is a psychology about what SMA students are like, and early adolescence, or middle adolescence, or SMP students, and early adolescence of SD students" (LTE2: 138-140). EC2 shared a quite similar view when he stated that "students at undergraduate level, they must be introduced to psychology of development, children psychology, and are introduced to many methodologies which prepare them to teach at primary level" (EC2: 103-105).

The inclusion of topics such as knowledge of learners and psychology of learning in lectures is consistent with the findings in Section 5.3.1. This is also in line with the literature that suggests that effective autonomy promotion is contingent on teachers' knowledge on learners' strategies including the way they learn and the approaches they take when learning. The teachers' new roles have shifted to identify learners' strategies and help them to become more independent and autonomous (Oxford, 1991).

Autonomy, as are other aspects of language learning, is culturally bounded (Palfreyman & Smith, 2003). As Suharmanto (2003) suggested, student empowerment should initially identify models of learning strategies suitable to Indonesian learners given the contextual and cultural factors. Focusing autonomy on the cultural contexts of language will emphasize the teachers' effort to empower students to find cultural alternatives and to find meanings in English that are against cultural assumptions (Pennycook, 1997). Provision of these areas of knowledge is indispensable and may be thoroughly provided through lectures focussing on awareness raising of the cultural and contextual factors surrounding English language teaching.

8.9 Teaching journal

Table 8.9 Codes relating to teaching journal

Groups of participants	Codes	Frequency of references
PSET	Teaching journal implemented later after English proficient gained	1
LTE	Teaching journal is valuable for reflection	3
	Writing in English is a burden if teachers are not proficient	1
	Teaching journal implemented later after English proficient gained	2
	Writing journal must be genuine	1
	Teaching journal is mixed with oral discussion	2
	Teaching journal must be innovative	1
	Writing the journal in Indonesian if necessary	1
	Teaching journal could be recorded	1
MEB	Teaching journal is mixed with oral discussion	1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from PSP and EC

This sub-category provides insights into the perceptions of participants in regard to the usefulness and procedures of teaching journal for the teacher education of primary school English teachers. Table 8.9 shows a list of codes pertaining to this particular category as generated from four participants (PSET9, LTE1, LTE4, and MEB1).

LTE1 suggested that teaching journal is a valuable tool for teachers to "reflect on their lesson" and is "*almost like a diary of what*" they are "*learning*" (LTE1: 416-417). In the teaching journal, teachers could reflect on "*the lesson plan*", "*the materials*", amongst others (LTE1: 418). LTE1 argued that *"a teacher who has just taught a lesson should have something to say about it. What it went really well"* or what *"went really badly"* (LTE1: 424-425) and they need to keep questioning themselves *"What have I learnt from it? So that how can I move forward in my teaching?"* (LTE1: 420-421).

Further evidence shows the procedures in developing teaching journal. For PSET9, when teachers are asked to write a journal in English, it is best to implement it "later after the teachers are proficient English users" (PSET9: 411). This was confirmed by LTE4 who stated that *"teaching journal, yes, for teachers who have moved up"* or whose *"language has improved"* (LTE4: 376-377). It is important that teachers are proficient English users before attempting to write in English, otherwise the initiative will *"just become a burden"* for them (LTE1: 422) especially *"if we force them to write in English"* but we are *"not sure that they have good writing skill at all to do it."* (LTE1: 455-456).

These findings suggest sufficient proficiency in writing in English as a foreign language is essential for teachers before they are asked to write reflection on their accounts of their teaching experiences. If teachers are having difficulties in expressing themselves in English, it is more than likely that they will not be able to provide genuine accounts of their teaching experiences. For LTE1, what is important is that the experience of writing a teaching *journal "has got to be genuine"* (LTE1: 429). Although teachers are trained to become competent English teachers, it does not necessarily mean that the reflection in

teaching journal has to be written in English. Even LTE1, who is a native speaker of English, pointed out that with teaching journal she *"would prefer it is written in Indonesian"* because it *"is less of a burden, and then it comes from the heart"* (LTE1: 450-452).

LTE1 further stated that *"teaching is about the pedagogy, and there's no problem talking about that (pedagogy) using my mother tongue"* (LTE1: 460-461). The fact that teachers are allowed to write in Indonesian challenges the prevalent assumption that requires teachers to write teaching journal in English. Furthermore, it also reveals flexibility and innovation in the learning-teaching option in language teacher education for primary school English teachers. As suggested by LTE1, *"we need to start thinking outside the box, we don't have to follow it the way it has always been."* (LTE1: 440-441).

The participants maintained that the innovation in developing a teaching journal is apparent when it is mixed with critical discussion. MEB1 stated that in developing teaching journal, teachers "need to share, they need to discuss, they need to talk, because sometimes it is not sufficient if we just do this through writing" (MEB1: 463-464). If necessary, teachers could also utilize technology, as suggested by LTE4 who stated that "we can use a lot of different devices now" such as "CD" or "hand phone" for teachers to record their voices in order to reflect on their teaching accounts (LTE4: 370-371). LTE1 summed up that a teaching journal *"doesn't have to be written all the time. Say, ten lessons, five of them could be written, and five of them could be oral, talk to your tutor or observer"* (LTE1: 438-439).

8.10 Language improvement classes

Table 8.10 Codes relating to language improvement classes		
Groups of participants	**Codes**	**Frequency of references**
PSET	Language improvement is priority Classroom language must be improved Language improvement classes important	1 1 2
LTE	Teachers need language improvement Language improvement uses technology Classroom language must be improved	2 2 2

No findings in this sub-category were generated from MEB, PSP, and EC

This sub-category provides insights into the perceptions of participants with regard to the importance of language improvement classes for teachers and the procedures for developing it. Table 8.10 shows a list of codes pertaining to this particular category as generated from six participants (PSET4, PSET7, PSET8, PSET9, LTE3, and LTE4).

PSET9 stated that language improvement classes are "a priority" (PSET9: 383), while both PSET 7 and PSET8 agreed that language improvement classes are "very important" (PSET7: 463 & PSET8: 468). Two teacher educators (LTE3 and LTE4) shared similar views with these teachers. LTE3 stated that "we need to ensure that teachers have strong language skills, that they have strong language components" (LTE3: 242-242), which is echoed by LTE4 who pointed out that *"they need (.) you know, some training which focuses on the language"* (LTE4: 44).

In this respect teacher educators can utilize "*the development of technology*" (LTE4: 134) to improve the language skills of student teachers. For example, the utilization of technologies in this context means there should be encouragement from teacher educators to student teachers to develop "their pronunciation" by using appropriate ESL/EFL software so that we "*can focus on very much other skills that need the presence of the trainer"* (LTE4: 143). This finding has reiterated the contention to use technology in

the development of student teachers' language proficiency with a particular emphasis on pronunciation and knowledge of phonetics and phonology (Sections 5.3.3, 6.2.4, and 7.2.2). The literature shows that an integrated approach in the use of technology in language teacher education has been claimed positive for the development of both language proficiency as well as pedagogical competence of student teachers (Hall & Knox, 2009).

In addition to the emphasis on pronunciation, participants such as PSET4, LTE3, and LTE4 asserted language improvement classes must also include classroom language to train them to properly communicate their ideas to the students effectively and efficiently. PSET4 pointed out that as a teacher she considered "all four skills are equally important" but desired more tuition in how "to use formal language that is easily understood by the students" (PSET4: 318-320). This formal language is called "classroom language" and "should be mastered by teachers" in order to communicate effectively and "save their energy and time" (LTE3: 133-134). Both LTE3 and LTE4 maintained that the provision of classroom language would help teachers to "identify the structure, what is the structure of English for SD students?" (LTE3: 77), and it would help provide them with information as to *"how they grade their language, how they paraphrase, how they chunk the language"* (LTE4: 86-87).

8.11 Conclusion

This chapter has presented and discussed responses of participants in regard to the usefulness of various learning-teaching options in teacher education in Indonesia and how they are best developed to attend to the need of primary school English teachers. Data was generated primarily PSET, LTE, and MEB, but occasionally data from other groups of participants (EC and PSP) where relevant, was included in keeping up with the grounded categories of the study.

The results of the study have envisaged the creation of opportunities for student teachers to exercise their pedagogical practices and acclimatize to their teaching environment. This is viable through the employment of various learning teaching options, focusing on the development of practical experience, including video analysis, teaching supervision, and microteaching. Opportunities to reflect on teaching experiences may appear when student teachers who undertake pre-service teacher education observe experienced teachers, while the current in-service teachers of English at primary level could observe their colleagues as part of their in-service teacher education. The discussion suggests that learning-teaching options for developing practical experiences are conducted early during pre-service teacher education, and need to have clearly organized guidelines especially for learning teaching options that have not been carefully implemented such as teaching practicum, classroom observations, and teaching supervision.

The results have also suggested that innovation is imperative in developing procedures for various learning teaching options to tailor to the needs of student teachers. Traditional way of delivering lectures may only allow the provision of knowledge of learners and psychology of learning, yet innovative way of delivering lectures will combine it with the display of videos of experienced teachers to stimulate discussion amongst student teachers. This is also evident in the suggestions of participants to design teaching journal that is written in Indonesian rather than English, or practical workshops that allow participants to do teaching simulations in microteaching. Such efforts will provide student teachers not only with opportunities to highlight more in-depth analysis on the reflection of their teaching practices and that of others, but also to directly apply their knowledge and skills in teaching English.

Innovation in developing learning-teaching options is also present in the efforts to establish cooperation between teaching colleges and schools. While teacher educators could play a much wider supervisory role in assisting the professional development of the current in-service teachers through regular monitoring of their language proficiency as well as assisting them in action research projects, senior teachers may become a mentor

for student teachers who undertake a teaching practicum. The connection between schools in the same district could also be utilized to the greatest extent when teachers could observe each other's teaching as part of their in-service education.

The discussion throughout the chapter has also highlighted an inclination towards the constructivist approach in language teacher education that gives more autonomy to student teachers (Section 1.5.1.). This is evident in the utilization of critical discussion occurring post video display, classroom observations, and microteaching to bring innovative and creative perspectives to various aspects of teaching. This is evident when student teachers are expected to discuss their teaching experiences with their peers and teacher educators in the form of critical dialogue journal that blends both written and spoken tasks. Furthermore, the incorporation of technologies in an effort to improve the language proficiency of student teachers also means more autonomy and greater independence are rendered to them. Therefore, it is clear that student teachers are no longer seen as mere recipients of knowledge but rather as active participants in the development of their knowledge as well as language and pedagogical skills. This is in accordance with recent developments of language teacher education that has placed a larger emphasis on "the promotion of a shift from teacher educator-directed learning to student-directed learning among student teachers" (Lunenberg & Korthagen, 2003, p. 41).

It is clear from the data above that higher levels of responses were generated from learning-teaching options such as classroom observations and teaching practicum as opposed to other learning-teaching options such as teaching-journal, teaching supervision, video analysis and workshops. The low level of responses to teaching journals, supervision, video analysis, and workshops does not affect the validity of the study; rather, the fact is best interpreted as teachers perceiving the usefulness of these options in a small-range of activities. Teachers might not be familiar with the use of these options in language teacher education or might not have had experiences with using these options in their professional development activities. Such unfamiliarity seems to be parallel to the fact that no teachers provided procedures for developing classroom

observations, microteaching, teaching supervision, teaching practicum, and lectures because findings on this particular issue were primarily generated from teacher educators and members of educational board. Teachers might not have been adequately prepared to critically develop their skills and take charge of their own professional growth, which also includes the development of procedures of learning-teaching options.

This certainly has implications on the development of language teacher education for teachers of English at primary level, which will need to be compared to suggestions made in this chapter and that of chapters 5, 6, 7, and 8 in order to offer policy recommendations in Chapter 10. Attempts to provide teachers with opportunities to develop an awareness of various forms of learning-teaching options as well as to take charge of their own professional growth must be made. The following chapter will present and discuss various issues in regard to the probability of policy on teacher education for primary school English teachers.

Chapter 9

Policy on Teacher Education for Primary School English Teachers

9.0 Introduction

This chapter presents and discusses the perspectives of participants on policy on teacher education for primary school English teachers. All data employed in the discussion of this chapter was generated from interviews involving all groups of participants based on the following set of questions:

A. <u>Questions asked to PSETs, LTEs, MEBs, PSPs, and ECs:</u>

Do you think a policy on teacher education for primary school English teachers is necessary?

If you think the policy is necessary, who are the stakeholders who need to get involved in the formulation and implementation of the policy?

B. <u>Questions asked to PSPs and ECs:</u>

What are the constraints of developing a policy on teacher education for primary school English teachers in Indonesia?

What are the resources for developing a policy on teacher education for primary school English teachers in Indonesia?

Data from each group of participants was compared to one another and was assessed against the relevant literature, policy documents, and the findings of the previous chapters. The following sections present results and discussion arising out of the responses of the participants to the questions above in consecutive order. A concluding

section summarizing the results of the discussion throughout the chapter is provided at the end of the chapter.

9.1 Results and discussion arising out of answers to the question: *Do you think a policy on educating primary school English teachers is necessary?*

Table 9.1 Codes relating to policy on teacher education for primary school English teachers

Groups of participants	Codes	Frequency of references
PSET	Policy essential Policy necessary Policy was welcome Policy to help prepare teachers	2 4 2 4
LTE	Policy important Policy interesting Policy essential Policy necessary Policy for grand design Policy to revolutionize teacher education	1 1 1 1 1 1
MEB	Policy based on needs Policy essential Policy all-encompassing	2 1 2
PSP	Policy necessary Policy was agreed	2 1
EC	Policy overarching	2

Table 9.1 lists codes relating to the need for a policy on teacher education for primary school English teachers. The table above shows the majority of the participants perceived the policy as, for example, 'important', 'essential', and 'necessary.

In response to the question, EC2 stated that "before establishing the policy of introducing English in primary schools, the government should have prepared the teachers five years

earlier, but this was not the case." (EC2: 8-10). He was referring to the introduction of English at primary level that was legalized by the Decree of Ministry of National Education No.22/2006. The policy stipulates English to be taught at primary level but does not specify a policy on teacher education for primary schools. As suggested by EC2, the fact that English has been introduced at primary level without a specific policy on teacher education provides evidence for the contention made in Section 1.2 that policymaking on teacher education for primary school English teachers has not been carefully planned.

In relation to this, MEB1 stated that "a policy needs to appear based on the needs of the people" (MEB1: 265) and "it is necessary to consider the extent of the needs before formulating the policy, before implementing it" (MEB1: 282-284). Such remarks echo the argument made by Kaplan & Baldauf (1997) that a sound policy requires robust analysis of various factors in the polity prior to policy implementation. The call for a needs analysis prior to policy implementation is of high importance especially when the needs of teachers that are set out in Chapter 5 and the designs of learning-teaching options in Chapter 8 are taken into account. Such endeavor is necessary in an effort to ensure the implementation of the policy reforms proposed in Chapters 6 and 7.

The findings in this section show teachers' support for a clearly mandated national policy for reforms at both pre-service and in-service teacher education to prepare teachers of English at primary level. The reason for this, according to PSET9, is "because those who teach in primary schools have not been prepared to teach English" (PSET9: 316-317). This view is shared by PSET11 who highlighted that the necessity of the policy is because "what we see in the field, the right person is not in the right place. They have to teach English, but their background is not English" (PSET11: 368-369). In addition, PSET1 asserted that the policy is needed to "cater for the need and situation of primary schools in Indonesia" (PSET1: 386), while PSET6 stated that the policy will "help teachers to access training, because it is not easy to teach a foreign language to children in Indonesia where exposure to English is very limited" (PSET6: 592-593). It is not surprising that other teachers referred to the policy as "a must" (PSET10: 232), "necessary" (PSET12: 544), "very much necessary"

(PSET9: 316; PSET6: 591; PSET11: 366) and some felt “very happy” (PSET3: 539) and “excited” (PSET2: 538) with the proposal for the policy.

The views of the teachers are parallel to that of the other groups of participants: teacher educators, primary school principals, and members of educational board. Participants used distinct yet corroborating words to refer to the necessity of the policy, such as “necessary” (PSP3: 119), “very much necessary” (PSP2: 39), “yes, important” (LTE3: 376), “yes, this is interesting” (LTE4: 271), and “essential” (MEB2: 417). Other participants highlighted their agreement with the idea of creating a policy for language teacher education for primary school English teachers, for example: “I totally agree with the idea (of creating the policy)” (PSP1: 167). When the researcher made a remark “what happens is that teachers are often victimized, u:hmm, you know, become the victims of education policy without necessarily being trained”, LTE1 exclaimed “EXACTLY!” (LTE1: 301). She pointed out that the policy “*could REVOLUTIONIZE, u:hmm the way teachers teach. It, it’s no good just focusing in the in-service, it’s got to go back to the pre-service, that whole thing needs rethinking.”* (LTE1: 664-666). LTE2 in particular pointed out that “Yes, we need it” for “some kind of master plan. So the grand design, what kind of grand design do we need?” (LTE2: 209-210) when highlighting the massive impact that the policy may make on the pedagogical practices of English teachers at primary level.

These findings provide an answer to the call for a national language policy to legalize teacher education for primary school English teachers at both pre-service and in-service levels as suggested in chapters 6 and 7. Furthermore, it is also consistent in keeping with the establishment of various policy reforms that are intended to sustain the professional development of teachers and to prepare them with the demands of their vocation (see Appendix 4). Such policy directives are inherent within the national educational reforms as mandated by Act No. 20/2003 on The National Education System (Pemerintah, 2003) and The Government Law of Republic Indonesia No. 19/2005 On National Standard on Education (Pemerintah, 2005a). The educational reforms are however partial if no reformative policy measures are made to enhance the professionalism of primary school English teachers. An overhaul on the system of both pre-service and in-service teacher

education has the potential to revolutionize the practice of teacher education for primary school English teachers, but this is unlikely without the establishment of policy measures made by the government.

Further evidence from participants namely LTE3, EC1, and MEB2 shows responses that highlight the importance of considering the interplay of other factors in the design of the policy. EC1 pointed out that "if the government wants to make a policy, in my view, it is better that the policy is all-encompassing. Let the supply, the supply for courses be creative, as creative as possible, depending on the dynamic (.) eh, or the demands of the people, the readiness and the potential of the teachers and the prospective teachers" (EC1: 123-126). EC1 provided the reason for this that "once we make a nationwide policy that generalizes the situations, the implementation would be extremely hard." (EC1: 127), a view shared by MEB2 who stated that "if we try to publish a centralistic policy from Jakarta, it may not match the local needs" (MEB2: 194-195).

The reason for an overarching policy was provided by EC1, MEB2, and LTE3. EC1 further stated that "some regions are very low in terms of teacher potential. Such regions of course need more intensive program, maybe wider, and much bigger in terms of scope in comparison to places where the potential of the teachers is good already." (EC1: 128-132), while MEB2 added that "it is necessary that these primary school English teachers here, especially those in remote areas to teach English according to the local of North Sulawesi. That's because they have got different costumes, and local traditions." (MEB2: 191-194). The importance of a policy with an overarching nature is more considerable "especially because SD is administrated by two government departments. Academically it is run by the Ministry of National Education, but when it comes to administration, job rank, and etcetera, it is run by the Ministry of Home Affairs." (LTE3: 376-379).

The call for an all-encompassing policy on teacher education for primary school English teachers is linier with the spirit of decentralization of education, as discussed in Chapter 3. The government has established a national educational policy that places a larger

authority to schools and educational actors and administrators at the local level. An overarching policy on teacher education provides national guidelines for professional development programs of primary school English teachers but does restrict the implementation of the programs. A movement away from a 'one size fits all' approach is a reflection of greater appreciation of the contextuality of teaching and teacher education. This is parallel to Mann's (2005) argument that programs on teacher education programs need to introduce teachers to the range of development tools and processes available in the local context in order to encourage engagement and commitment. In Indonesian context, overgeneralizations on the diverse situations of Indonesia in terms of ethnicity, religion, linguistic, and cultural backgrounds are futile in implementation. A nationwide policy that captures the spirit of this diversity is best enacted to accommodate the wide range needs of teachers.

9.2 Results and discussion arising out of answers to question: *If you think the policy is necessary, who are the stakeholders who need to get involved in the formulation and implementation of the policy?*

Findings in this section are presented and discussed under the following sub-categories:

1. Involving teachers
2. Involving teacher educators
3. Involving various educational actors
4. Establishing consortium on primary school English teaching

9.2.1 Involving teachers

Table 9.2 Codes relating to involving teachers

Groups of participants	Codes	Frequency of references
PSET	Suggestions from teachers for good policy	1
	Teachers know the field	1
	Teachers are not consulted	1

	Policymaking without teachers' input is futile	1
LTE	Teachers' involvement for needs analysis Planning by bureaucrats based on assumption	1 2
MEB	Planning by bureaucrats based on assumption	1
EC	Involvement of teachers necessary Teachers' involvement for needs analysis	1 1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from PSP

Several important codes on involving teachers in policymaking on teacher education are listed in Table 9.2. The table shows that most participants were in favor of the involvement of teachers to inform sound policymaking.

LTE4 stated that when planning training programs educational bureaucrats *"develop everything based on assumption, so they assume that there should be this subject, this subject, this subject"* (LTE4: 243-245). This is consistent with the findings in Section 7.1.3 that highlight how the involvement of educational bureaucrats in language teacher education has eclipsed the potential contribution that teachers are able to make. The fact is that the bureaucrats working at the government "don't know the needs of the teachers at the school level. They just know textually. But the real needs, they don't know" (MEB1: 326-327).

Further evidence from the study challenges this phenomenon. According to several teachers, namely PSET1, PSET3, PSET6, and PSET6, the involvement of teachers in policymaking is necessary. PSET1 stated that it is important to involve teachers "because the ones who deal with students directly are the teachers. So I am hoping that out of any suggestions we make, they (the government) could formulate a good policy." (PSET1: 404-405), a view shared by PSET6 who stated that "Yes, we need the teachers, because they know the field" (PSET6: 633). PSET9 stated that "we need input from teachers at schools as well, so the government knows the needs of the schools. Because if the input is only

from the government it'd be another project, and not based on the real needs of the teachers." (PSET9: 328-330).

PSET6 further stated that teachers were not consulted in the creation of a policy "and for the voice of the teachers, yes, … sometimes our voice, our voice is not heard. So even when there is a program, the program is only a program" (PSET6: 607 & 625-626). This situation resembles that of China (Li, 2010) where teachers have not actively participated in policymaking in relation to English language education at both primary and secondary levels. It is of no surprise that PSET3 provided his rationale on why consulting teachers on policy on teacher education is important, "and for the voice of the teachers, I guess they need to be heard because they are the ones in the field. If we don't listen to them, the policy will be misleading, a waste of time" (PSET: 607-609).

Teachers' views were confirmed by members of other groups of participants (EC, LTE, and MEB). For example, EC2 stated that "we need to include the schools and the teachers to take part in the policy formulation" because "if we talk about the contents, techniques, and things related to the operational then they have to come from the bottom" (EC2: 153-154 & 165). MEB1 reiterated the importance of the link that needs to be established between the "central government" and "the schools" to highlight the importance that "the teachers need to be involved" (MEB2: 324-326). She reiterated that "not only government institutions or training providers, but also the teachers need to be involved who really know the conditions" (MEB1: 327-328). The teachers involved in the policy formulation, according to LTE4, *"can be key teachers"* (LTE4: 305).

The findings above are consistent with the literature that the involvement of teachers is indispensable in policymaking (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997; Spolsky, 2004; Cooper, 1989). Teachers' involvement means greater appreciation of the context in which teaching and teacher education processes take place. Such initiative is expected because "bottom up teacher development is not only crucial to individual teaching development but for the teaching profession as a whole" (Mann, 2005, p. 112). This is particularly important in an

effort to reveal the needs of teachers to contribute to informed policy decisions that well attend to the needs of teachers (Section 5.4).

9.2.2 Involving teacher educators

Table 9.3 Codes relating to involving teacher educators		
Groups of participants	**Codes**	**Frequency of references**
PSET	Universities get involved in policy formulation	1
LTE	English departments get involved in policy formulation Teacher educators get involved in policy formulation	1 2
MEB	Teacher educators often not allowed to be involved	1
EC	Teacher educators get involved in policy formulation	1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from PSP

This sub-category provides insights into the perceptions of participants with regard to the involvement of teacher educators. Table 9.3 shows a list of codes pertaining to this particular category as generated from five participants (PSET4, LTE3, LET4, EC2, and MEB2).

Three participants (PSET4, LTE3, and LTE4) provided responses that highlight the indispensable roles of teacher educators from teaching colleges in providing substantial input to policy formulation. Both PSET4 and LTE3 agreed that "universities can be asked to cooperate", especially "English education programs have to take part to join the field" (PSET4: 653; LTE3: 402-403). LTE4 confirmed the views of PSET4 and LTE3 in the following:

- *309 : … we can also have lecturers in the university*
  310 : who have exposure to the, the children's class. And if we have those people in place,
  311 : it's a lot easier to then develop, you know, develop, the, the, the…= (LTE4)
  312 : =the policy? (R)
  313 : the policy as well as the format of the teacher training (LTE4)

The contribution by teacher educators from government-based training institutions was also considered significant by MEB2 who lamented the fact that often teacher educators are not involved in the development of teacher training programs. He stated in the following:

- 253 : … But the fact is, sometimes it's not successful. Sometimes
  254 : when they are trying to plan a training program, teacher educators are not invited to get
  255 : involved, just because we are not structural staff. That's the one. This explains
  256 : why we have never been involved. Sometimes we have a training program in DIPA
  257 : but then all of a sudden, the training for primary school English teachers is eliminated! (MEB2)

This finding reiterates the political intervention of educational bureaucrats that has superseded the potential contribution that both teacher educators and teachers may possibly make (Sections 7.1.3 & 9.2.1).

These findings are highly relevant considering the fact that a large portion of LTE policymaking remains theoretical (Section 1.7) but the management of training programs is prone to political intervention (Section 7.1.3). The involvement of teacher educators with relevant qualifications is vital in filling in the theoretical gap that cannot be met by other stakeholders. It is even better if these teacher educators are "professionals who are members of a professional association like TEFLIN" (EC2: 157-158). A greater involvement from TEFLIN (Teachers of English as a Foreign Language in Indonesia) in extending its influence to English teaching at primary level is encouraged, as LTE4 stated that teacher educators must consist of people who "have the exposure to the children's class" (LTE4: 310). Initiatives to take part in reforms in teacher education and certification are among some of the many dimensions in which TEFLIN may exert its roles (Lie, 2007). This is particularly relevant to the pressing call on the decentralization of education in which TEFLIN could potentially assist and mediate.

The findings above imply the significant role of teacher educators and teaching colleges in policy formulation of teacher education for primary school English teachers. Providing input for policy formulation remains the primary task of teacher educators with relevant

qualifications in addition to the diverse nature of supervisory roles that they are expected to contribute as suggested in Sections 7.2.3 and 8.2.

9.2.3 Involving various educational actors

Table 9.4 Codes relating to involving various educational actors

Groups of participants	Codes	Frequency of references
PSET	Involvement of school foundation necessary Involvement of school principals necessary Involvement of teacher's groups necessary	1 1 1
LTE	Involvement of Educational Unit necessary Involvement of teachers' groups necessary	2 1
MEB	Involvement of local government necessary	1
PSP	Involvement of school principals necessary Involvement of local government necessary	1 1
EC	Involvement of school principals necessary	1

Table 9.4 lists codes that highlight the involvement of various educational actors. Participants provided responses that assert that input from various actors from the school structure is important.

For example, PSET3 stated that "other party that needs to be involved is the (school) foundation… because they know about the needs of private schools" (PSET7: 596-598). A similar view was provided by EC2 who highlighted the importance of involving school principals "because… the school principals are the ones who know the actual condition in the field." (EC2: 165-166). Furthermore, PSET4 argued that it is also necessary to involve "schools or *gugus* or school groups, and so there we could appoint a chair, the principal is responsible also" (PSET4: 654). Similarly, LTE3 provided argument that allows the

involvement of “teachers groups” to “run workshops and to invite guest speakers from LPMP” (LTE3: 165-166).

Participants from other groups provided responses that highlight the involvement of bureaucrats from Dinas Pendidikan Dasar (Local Educational Unit for Primary Education) and Pemda (Pemerintah Daerah or the local government). This is evident in the following:

- 408 : so who are we expecting to cooperate? The cooperation with PEMKOT,
  409 : and there is Dinas Pendidikan. Who do we cooperate with? With Dinas. (LTE3)
- 230 : basically, higher education can work with local government, with all resources
  231 : in a kabupaten, for example, so that the contribution of the campus is optimum for the
  232 : enhancement of education (LTE2)
- 249 : Yes, later on, after they develop it with PEMDA (LTE2)
- 141 : so the policy of the government now is autonomy and MBS. (.) So the government
  142 : does not give a lot of input, they only give SKKD, e::h, whereas the curriculum
  143 : is the responsibility of the school to be proactive. Because we are already in MBS, schools have
  144 : now the responsibility to conduct education, so that schools are now more active. (PSP3)

These findings are not contradictory, but are best interpreted as complementary to each other. Participants such as PSET3, PSET4, LTE3, and EC2 seemed to have put more weigh on the involvement of actors from schools to increase the emphasis on the involvement of teachers and schools, which echoes the contention made in Section 9.2.1. Other participants seemed to have perceived input from educational bureaucrats as important in the light of providing substantial support and resources for the implementation of training programs in both pre-service and in-service education as shown later in Section 9.3.1. This implies decisions on issues such as funding and the procurement of teaching materials to be used in the training program should be their area of contribution. This is relevant because “local general revenues” coming from local government “comprised the single largest source of funding for both district-provided and school-funded professional development” (Fermanich, 2002, p. 48). When the roles of these educational agents are limited to administrative functions such as provision of funding, it is best interpreted as an exertion of the decentralization of education roles they have been rendered upon (Section 3.1.2).

Four groups of participants: teachers, teacher educators, members of educational board, and school principals believed that representatives of their groups should be included in the policymaking processes, while educational consultants believed that similar contribution made by school principals is indispensable in the processes. This demonstrates that there is not only considerable correlation between group membership and perceptions of who needs to be involved in policymaking processes, but also the increasing awareness of the participants of the importance of bottom-up approach in language policymaking. The participants seemed to have agreed upon the importance of policymaking on language teacher education as a collaborative process exercised by various elements of educational sectors.

This demonstrates the participants' direct reaction to the deeply rooted top-down approach in educational policymaking that was widely implemented by previous government. This is reasonably grounded because input in areas including contents, techniques as well as administrative functions from various stakeholders is indispensable in LTE Policymaking. It has been demonstrated in Section 1.4.1 that a missing link often appears in language policymaking when policies are formulated by policymakers in the absence of a wide participation from other policy agents. The involvement of various educational actors is not a mere effort to prevent teachers from being victimized by disoriented policies; moreover, it is an educational measure to ensure the efficacy of the policy implementation.

9.2.4 Establishing Consortium in Primary School English Teaching

Table 9.5 Codes relating to establishing Consortium in Primary School English Teaching

Groups of participants	Codes	Frequency of references
LTE	Consortium allows bottom-up approach in policymaking	1

EC	Consortium useful to map the needs of teachers Consortium enables collaboration with related stakeholders	1 2

No findings in this sub-category were generated from PSET, MEB, and PSP

Table 9.5 lists codes pertaining to the establishment of a Consortium in Primary School English Teaching. These codes constitute further evidence that materializes the suggestion made in Section 7.2.3 on the establishment of a link between relevant stakeholders such as the central government, the local governments, schools, universities, teachers' groups, and private institutions.

Two participants (EC2 and LTE4) called for the presence of a Consortium in Primary School English Teaching. For EC2, "the consortium is useful to map the actual needs of the teachers, what their potential is" (EC2: 137-139). LTE4 stated that *"the establishment of a consortium is necessary"* in an attempt to inform a bottom up approach in policymaking by pointing out that, *"I am very much for that (.) bottom up, instead of the top down, because, because you can imagine, in our context those who actually generate the policy, who work on the policy are not always those who have enough knowledge and enough skill in actually handling the situation that teachers have in their classes"* (LTE4: 319-322).

EC2 asserted that the Consortium ought to enable "relevant stakeholders" to "gather with teaching colleges and write the recommendations to the Directorate (of Higher Education), so the plan to develop the professionalism of the teachers will be part of a national policy for higher education" (EC2: 288-290). Furthermore, the Consortium also ought to make a link with other government institutions such as BNSP (*Badan Nasional Standard Pendidikan* or the National Educational Standard Body) that oversees the standardization of education in Indonesia. EC2 stated that the collaboration of the Consortium with BNSP that "tries to assess everything from the practice, not from the theory but from the competence of the teachers" will likely to "produce a good policy" (EC2: 140-142).

The findings above are significant, especially because the findings from the previous sections have postulated the necessity of a wide-base participation in teacher education policymaking (Sections 7.2.3; 9.3.1; 9.3.2; 9.3.3; and 9.3.4). Furthermore, the findings also demonstrate the important interplay between language teacher education policy, reform, and responses in teacher development in particular contexts (Claire & Adger, 2000). Participants seemed to have agreed upon the notion that language teacher education policymaking is best collaboratively exercised by various elements of educational sectors. A model of bottom-up policy approach in language policymaking has been advocated in the literature (e.g. Ramanathan, 2005; Baldauf, 2006). To support this bottom-up approach of policymaking input from various stakeholders is indispensable in areas including contents, techniques, and operational administrative. The involvement of teachers, teacher educators, and various educational actors such as school principals, school foundation, and educational boards at the local level, and teacher educators at government-based training institutions may form a joint collaboration in the Consortium.

9. 3 Results and discussion arising out of answers to question: *What are the constraints of developing a policy on teacher education for primary school English teachers in Indonesia?*

Findings in this section are presented and discussed under the following sub-categories:

1. The lack of funding for teacher education
2. The lack of data on teachers and teachers' needs
3. The status of English as a foreign language

9.3.1 The lack of funding for teacher education

Table 9.6 Codes relating to the lack of funding for teacher education

Groups of participants	Codes	Frequency of references
LTE	Incentive for teachers needed	1
	Government to provide money	1
	Direct funding to schools	1

	Only sponsored teachers are able to attend training Training in teacher groups Teacher groups collaborate with teaching colleges	1 1 1
MEB	Government-based training institutions lack of funding Budget depending on funding from central government Schools lack of funding BOS is sometimes misused	1 1 2 1
PSP	Incentive for teachers needed Incentives help teachers in rural areas Schools lack of funding BOS has not been used optimally Training developed teacher groups	1 1 3 1 1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from PSET and EC

This sub-category provides insights into the perceptions of participants with regard to the implementation of in-service training which is challenged by the lack of funding for both schools and government-based training institutions. Table 9.6 shows a list of codes pertaining to this particular category as generated from participants (PSP1, PSP2, PSP3, LTE1, MEB1, and MEB2).

Several participants, namely PSP1, PSP2, PSP3, LTE1, and MEB2 provided responses that show the limited funding that can be spent for teacher professional development activities. Both PSP1 and MEB2 pointed out that the funding allocated by the government is “very limited” (PSP1: 315; MEB2: 393), which is echoed by PSP3 who stated that “the lack of funds... seems to be the problem” (PSP3: 196). PSP1 gave an example that “the amount of funds spent on improving the competence of the English teachers using BOS funds is only in a very little percentage” (PSP1: 315-317). According to PSP2, “the problem is the BOS funding is not solely used for one thing. There are so many things that need to be solved by the schools. This explains why the BOS funding has not been fully maximized for developing the quality of English teachers.” (PSP2: 67-70). This situation is deteriorated by the fact that “even when the schools have BOS, the money is often spent for things related to the school principal’s duty.” (MEB2: 394-395).

Further evidence from the study shows that a similar situation applies to government-based training institutions. MEB1 stated that "sometimes when we want to do something we very much depend on the funding, right? When we would like to evaluate or follow up a program but there's no funding for it, what are we supposed to do?" (MEB1: 283-386). According to MEB2, the "budget for teachers professional development is dependent on DIPA, which is the budget for education from the central government in Jakarta." (MEB2: 233-236).

The findings above are indicative of the weak support given by the government to primary school English teaching, which is parallel to the findings of Section 7.1.3. For this reason, LTE1 called for the *"government"* to *"provide the money"* and *"probably the best thing would be to provide it to the schools"* (LTE1: 278-279). Direct funding to schools has been important in the presence of teachers attending training in lucrative private institutions as illustrated by LTE1, *"the ones we have got here at the IALF, are teachers who join, who join, short or longer terms programs, they never pay for themselves, they've been sponsored."* (LTE1: 190-192).

Participants such as PSP3 and LTE1 argued that the funding could also be used for giving incentives to teachers to attend teacher training programs. PSP3 illustrated that, "my colleagues in the public schools, they don't want to go if there's no money from the government. They don't want to do it. So this is where the problem lies, so continuity or follow up is inconsistent." (PSP3: 196-203). This explains why LTE1 encouraged schools and government "to pay the transport money for the teachers, so you know, it meant 15 ribu or 20 ribu" (LTE1: 250-251). According to PSP3, this extra incentive would greatly assist teachers especially for "teachers in remote areas" who "think that attending training would require a lot of money for transport" (PSP3: 219-220).

In response to the insufficient funding that jeopardizes the provision of adequate professional support for teachers, participants pointed out the necessity to utilize KKG (*Kelompok Kerja Guru* or Teachers Groups) to help develop professional development programs for English teachers at primary level. PSP3 argued that "it is better to set it up

through several groups. In province, city, or municipal level, each of them." (PSP1: 220-221). LTE1 pointed out that "schools can work in a cluster of schools to make a group" and they can *work "in conjunction with the local IKIPs or teacher training colleges, for example, u:hmm, working with a STAIN, an IAIN, or an IKIP, or you know, working with a local teacher training who can help by providing presenters or materials"* (LTE1: 283-287). This shows that the participants hoped that the involvement of teachers groups to help conduct teacher training programs would help release the burden of teachers who live in remote areas and are unable to frequently travel to the capital of the province.

The findings above call for the local governments to provide greater funds for government-based training institutions to conduct teacher training programs and allocate budget for schools to enable their teachers attending professional development programs. This is also to conform to Chapter 13 of Act No.14/2005 on Teachers and Lecturers that the local governments are required to develop the academic qualification and competence of teachers. By the same token, it is also necessary to utilize teachers groups (KKG) to play much wider roles by initiating professional development programs at the local level in association with teaching colleges, government-based training institutions, and private institutions. Such initiative concurs with the contention made in several sections in this thesis (Sections 7.2.3, 8.2, and 9.2.1-9.2.5) with regard to the establishment of a link between schools, teaching colleges, teachers' groups, and private institutions.

9.3.2 The lack of data on teachers and teachers' needs

Table 9.7 Codes relating to the lack of data on teachers and teachers' needs

Groups of participants	Codes	Frequency of references
EC	Government lacks of reliable data	2
	Policies are doubtful due to poor data	1
	Successful policy depends on data	1
	Data needed on the profile of teachers	2
	Data needed on the needs of teachers	1
	Data needed on the school facilities	1

	Data determines the length of training Data on the number of schools Data on the number of teachers	1 1 1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from PSET, LTE, MEB, and PSP

Table 9.7 shows a list of codes pertaining to the category of the importance of having data for the development of teacher education programs for primary school English teachers. Data on this particular issue was generated from EC1 and EC2, who seemed to have based their responses on their extensive experience in assisting the Ministry of National Education in educational policymaking in Indonesia.

EC1 stated that the "challenge" for policymakers in Indonesia is "on the availability of data… Data is not accurate and is not comprehensive" which often results in the fact that "the relevance of a policy to meet the actual needs is doubtful." (EC1: 172-176). EC1 stated that "it might be the case that if we ask questions to the Head of Dinas they cannot give us quick answers" (EC1: 177). EC1 reiterated the significance of having comprehensive and reliable data for policymaking, "as long as this data is not ready, a policy of any kind may not probably well-implemented, and it is not well-contextualized according to the local situations." (EC1: 183-185).

These findings clearly highlight the importance of data on policymaking. However, mere availability of data is not a sufficient prerequisite for improvement on teacher professional development programs (Stecker, Fuchs, & Fuchs, 2005). This explains why EC1 maintained the importance of policymakers to obtain data on the needs of the teachers, "what about the needs and strengths of the teachers?" (EC1: 178), which echoes the suggestion on the importance of needs analysis of teachers in language teacher education (Section 5.4).

EC2 concurred with EC1. According to EC2, it is a known fact that "when we want to develop the professionalism of teachers we are always confronted by minimum number of teachers in comparison of the number of the schools, but these are not always available." (EC2: 174-176). EC1 agreed that other data that needs to be taken into account include

“how many actually are there primary school English teachers in their municipality?”, “Are they qualified already?”, “have they graduated with a bachelor degree?” as well as considerations on issues such as “the interests of the teachers, and facilities available in the schools that would facilitate learning process… and profile of teachers” (EC1: 179-182 & 187-191).

EC1 pointed out that data on these areas would provide significant input to determine how long a training program must be held. He stated that “if what we are training is very technical and can be done within an hour or two, then the training can be a day”, for example, “if it is about how to use media, eh, IT, so it’s specific, then one day is enough” (EC1: 246-249). However, “if it is about improving the language proficiency of the student teachers, the proficiency of the students, then it depends on the input. Sometimes we need longer training, for months, or even for years.” (EC1: 250-252).

The generation of such data is viable when the suggestion for creating a wide-base participation in policymaking that has been made in Sections 9.2.1 - 9.2.4 is taken into account. The contribution made by the Consortium in Primary School English Teaching may be in the form of data provision (Section 9.2.5). The provision of data as well as the mapping out of the teacher educators in formal education made by the Consortium is supplementary to the Article 49 of The Decree of Ministry of National Education No. 8/2005 on the Organization and Structure of Directorate General of the Quality Enhancement of Educators and Educational Staff. This implies that the Consortium may become a partner to the Planning and Evaluation Unit of the Directorate General for Quality Enhancement of Educators and Education Professionals in obtaining such data for policymaking and implementation.

It is worth highlighting that the responses on the importance of data on policymaking were generated exclusively from one group of participants: educational consultants. As suggested in Chapter 4, the consultants consist of people who have the expertise and experience in educational policymaking and are familiar with issues related to

policymaking. Both EC1 and EC2 are university professors who provided consultations to staff of the Ministry of National Education in relation to various educational policymaking processes at primary, secondary, and tertiary levels of education. Such level of familiarity with issues pertinent to planning and policymaking and specific expertise explains their awareness of the importance of the procurement of data in policymaking. On the other hand, other groups of participants, the PSPs and MEBs, might be cognizant of the educational contexts and administrative functions related to teacher education, but might not necessarily be familiar with planning and policymaking process. This explains the absence of responses in relation to the importance of data in language policymaking from these groups of participants.

9.3.3 The status of English

Table 9.8 Codes relating to the status of English		
Groups of participants	**Codes**	**Frequency of references**
PSP	Status of English linked to limited support Second language English improves situation Second language English makes English half-compulsory Government to elevate the status of English	2 2 1 1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from PSET, MEB, LTE, and EC

Table 9.8 lists codes pertaining to the category for the elevation of status of English as a foreign language in Indonesia. The codes reveal that the status of English is inextricably linked to the present situation of English teaching at primary level that enjoys limited provision of support attached from the government.

PSP1 pointed out that “the policy will be affected by the status of English in Indonesia… If the status of English is no longer a foreign language but a second language, then the situation will be different.” (PSP1: 219-223). She believed that “when a policy is implemented, there are always political ramifications, so in my opinion, the best policy is first of all to alter the status of English from a foreign language into a second language…

then it is possible that the situation of English teaching gets better and developed." (PSP1: 224-230). PSP1 was certain that "if English was a second language, then it would have been at least half compulsory." (PSP1: 239).

Section 7.2.4 has pointed out that the establishment of English as a compulsory subject in the primary schooling timetable is necessary to put an end to the lack of support attached to the English teachers who are employed as non-civil servants. Evidence generated from this section argues for further impetus. PSP1 pointed out that "as long as English is still a foreign language, it is very hard for it to develop and gain strong support from the government" (PSP1: 199-200). This is necessary especially because "if English was now half compulsory, it would have been included in the national curriculum at the national level." (PSP1: 260-261). The present situation is unclear because English is not a compulsory subject, but demands to English teaching at primary level are indisputably increasingly high (Chodidjah, 2007; Lestari, 2003). For this reason, PSP1 reiterated her position that "the government must elevate the status of English as a second language" because "if we have a legislation on this, I think when we try to implement the policy on teacher education it'll be much clearer" (PSP1: 258-259 & 266-267).

These findings suggest that the bleak future of English teachers at primary level is an issue deeply rooted not only in the weak status of English in the primary school curriculum, but also in the status of English as a foreign language. Elevating the status of English from a foreign language to a second language has thus been considered a solution that may be able to solve the riddle. A second language status may give English more privilege and a stronger bargaining position in order to enjoy greater support. This may include the replacement of the Decree of Ministry of National Education No. 22/2006 that stipulates English as an optional subject with a new decree that stipulates compulsory English in curriculum.

It is however worth noting that English in Indonesia is a foreign language; in other words, Indonesia is a foreign language environment for English, and not a second language one.

The term ‘second language’ is used to refer to language learning in a community in which the target language is used widely in the society and with which the learners of the language are exposed to the language on a daily basis (Harmer, 2007). This suggests that in order for English to be a second language in Indonesia, the presence of a linguistic community which communicates in English on a daily basis is essential. Unlike in neighboring countries such as Singapore and India, such community in Indonesia is non-existent.

Data from PSP1 above suggests that Indonesia could become a ‘second language environment’ for English, if the government establishes a specific policy directive on English as a second language. What makes a country a second language environment is however the presence of a linguistic community that uses the language widely, and not the presence of a government policy. This is indicative of the naiveté of PSP1 in regard to what ‘second language’ means. It is likely that she might have confused the application of English as a ‘second language’ for ‘second official language’, which means that English becomes another official language, in addition to the main official language, Indonesian. By making English a ‘second official language’, greater support for English teaching may be obtained from the government. This is plausible to explain her responses when highlighting the argument that the provision of support for English teachers and English teaching at primary level is parallel to the status of the language in the country.

The establishment of English as a second language as a pre-requisite for English teaching seems, nevertheless, to be an impossible task due to the fact that it would require amendment to the Article 36 of the 1945 National Constitution, a task which is beyond the reach of the Ministry of National Education. The political and social ramifications of the establishment of English as a second language remain to be assessed yet. It is unclear how the elevation of status of English into a second language would bring positive consequences to the Indonesian society.

This is particularly relevant to the widely diverse linguistic environments of Indonesia. The place of English in the linguistic environment of Indonesia remains elusive, especially because of the pressing call for the projection of language policy in Indonesia to "maintain the vernaculars, while by the same token develop the spread of the national language of Indonesia" (Zein, 2010, p. 93). Although English has enjoyed stronger interest within the educational sphere and society at large, resistance from elements of society who oppose English gaining higher status, like the nationalists and Islamic fundamentalists, is more than likely (Rosidi, 2001; Dardjowidjojo, 1998). This indicates that such issue is best left to further research.

9.4 Results and discussion arising out of answers to the question: *"What are the resources for developing a policy on teacher education for primary school English teachers in Indonesia?"*

Table 9.9 Codes relating to resources on the development of the policy		
Groups of participants	**Codes**	**Frequency of references**
PSET	Involvement of lucrative private institutions necessary	2
LTE	Private institutions have the expertise	1
PSP	Cooperation with overseas institutions Involvement of lucrative private institutions necessary Technology must be utilized	2 1 1
EC	Using media to help develop English Early exposure for student teachers necessary Private institutions have the expertise Involvement of lucrative private institutions necessary	1 1 1 1

No findings in this sub-category were generated from MEB

This sub-category provides insights into the perceptions of participants with regard to the resources for the development of professionalism of English teachers. Table 9.9 shows a list of codes pertaining to this particular category as generated from participants (PSET4, PSET2, LTE2, PSP1, EC2, PSP3, and EC1).

Despite the proliferation of small-scale private institutions and their undeniable roles in English teaching in Indonesia (Section 3.3.3), the findings of this study did not provide specific information in relation to their roles in teacher education of primary school English teachers. Two teachers, namely PSET4 and PSET2, instead expressed their inclination towards the involvement of lucrative private institutions as a potential resource. PSET4 stated that we need to involve "private institutions in Indonesia such as IALF or EF" (PSET4: 641), which is echoed by PSET2 who stated that "they are private organizations e::h, which are specifically established to deal with this kind of training" (PSET2: 575-576).

These comments are parallel to the views expressed by LTE2 and PSP1. PSP1 stated that it is necessary to "cooperate with private institutions to improve the quality of English teaching" (PSP1: 291-292). According to LTE2, this is because "they have a collection of good techniques because the teacher educators have high level of proficiency" that "can help boost the confidence of teachers" (LTE2: 201-202). EC2 expressed his agreement on the views provided by LTE2 and PSP1 in his statement, "The second one, the most important one includes institutions that have been so far active to help develop teachers in primary schools, they are not government institutions, but private institutions, but in my view they have the expertise" (EC2: 158-162). These findings accentuate the potential contribution of private sectors in policy on teacher education for primary school English teachers to become a partner for the government in developing training programs (Section 7.1.6).

Evidence drawn in this section also highlights the idea of strengthening the cooperation with private institutions from overseas that have interest in English teaching in Indonesia. PSP3 stated that it is important to establish "cooperation with institutions from overseas" because they "have professionals in English language teaching" (PSP3: 271 & 123). Relevant institutions from "English, Singapore, and probably Australia" may be "invited by the government to improve the quality of our education, which is one avenue to develop English through such cooperation" (PSP3: 239-242).

Such suggestion is relevant to the presence of various international aids for teacher training that have been conducted by international organizations such as The World Bank, the Belgian Technical Corporation, and JICA (Japan International Corporation Agency) to improve the quality of teacher education in countries like Vietnam (Hamano, 2008). This is in response to the suggestion of the creation of further training for teacher educators in order to prepare them with the vocational demands of teaching English at primary level (Sections 6.2.6 & 7.3).

Rather than establishing the cooperation in the recruitment of English teachers from English speaking countries which is considerably costly as currently employed by Japan (JET Program, 2011), Hong Kong (Hopkins, 2006), Taiwan (Wuchang-Chang, 2007), and South Korea (Jung & Norton, 2002), it is more reasonably affordable to employ English teacher educators from these countries to train the local teacher educators at both teaching colleges and government-based training institutions. The involvement of overseas institutions is also significant in the provision of training resources that will assist the implementation of the policy. This is particularly relevant especially because one of the main challenges for the implementation of the policy is the limited funding allocated for both pre-service and in-service education to conduct teacher education for primary school English teachers (Section 9.3.1).

Other participants provided responses that highlight the necessity to take advantage of the increasing interest in English education in Indonesia. PSP1 pointed out that "the

development of technology" could be utilized "to improve the development of English language teaching." (PSP1: 290&293). Other participants, namely PSP3 and EC1 provided similar responses on the importance of media. PSP3 stated that "at the moment the media is abundant and is easily accessible. So yes, the internet is accessible for many of us" (PSP3: 276-277) and according to EC1, "they are useful to facilitate the teaching of English" (EC1: 197-198). For EC1, the use of media is essential because "the input for our students is very limited in their environment. For this reason, we need to continuously provide as many facilities, media, and other resources that will enable student teachers to gain as much input as possible." (EC1: 199-202).

The findings above are parallel to the positive linguistic culture of English education, as suggested in Chapter 3. The resurgence of English in the social and educational domains in the country as reflected in the publications of English coursebooks, the broadcast of advertisements using English language, the teaching of English in primary schools, and the establishment of international schools that use English as the language of instruction must be fully utilized for the development of teacher education.

9.5 Conclusion

The discussion in Section 9.1 has been parallel to the contention made in Chapters 6 and 7 that an overhaul on the overall system of both pre-service and in-service teacher education requires a nationwide policy to sustain the professional development of teachers of English at primary level. The policy measure ought to be integral with the national educational reforms as mandated by Act No. 20/2003 on The National Education System (Pemerintah, 2003) and The Government Law of Republic Indonesia No. 19/2005 On National Standard on Education (Pemerintah, 2005a).

A bottom up approach in teacher education policymaking has been suggested as necessary in the formulation and enactment of the policy. This requires the establishment of Consortium in Primary School English Teaching in which stakeholders, including school

principals, teachers, private institutions, bureaucrats at the educational institutions, teacher educators, teachers' groups, and researchers play indispensable roles relevant to their area of expertise. A transformative policy on teacher education is not an action exerted solely by policymakers, but an initiative of large contribution from relevant stakeholders. This is particularly important in order to reflect greater appreciation of the context in which teaching and the teacher education processes take place. The Consortium ought to play indispensable roles in the generation of reliable and comprehensive data on teachers' needs and potential to contribute to the creation of teacher education programs that well attend to the needs of the teachers. Clearly, a bottom-up approach in teacher education policymaking well resonates to the policy of decentralization of education that the government is currently embracing.

Such an approach is relevant to the suggestion on the overarching nature of the policy, which provides greater flexibility to policy agents at the local level to help create contextually appropriate professional development programs. This is essential for the development of some policy initiatives. First, it allows the local governments to respond to the 20% of national budget allocation on education as stipulated by the Act No. 20/2003 on The National Education System (Pemerintah, 2003) in order to ensure access to teachers be able to attend affordable training programs held by both government-based training institutions as well as private institutions. Second, the enhancement of roles of teachers groups at local level stimulates greater participation from financially challenged teachers and fosters the supervisory roles of teacher educators from teaching colleges in the professional development of primary school English teachers. Third, the currently existing cooperation between Indonesia and private institutions from English speaking countries is vital in the development of a training scheme that includes professional development for teacher educators from both pre-service and government-based training institutions. The provision of sufficient funds for the development of training programs for primary school English teachers has also been suggested as necessary.

This chapter has provided arguments on the probability of policy on teacher education for primary school English teachers and has called for the implementation of a bottom-up approach in policymaking. The following chapter draws conclusions from the study and makes policy recommendations on teacher education for teachers of English at primary level.

Chapter 10

Concluding Remarks

10.0 Introduction

This thesis has explored the participants' views on the needs of primary school English teachers in Indonesia in terms of knowledge and skills; the delivery of pre-service and in-service teacher education; the design of learning-teaching options at pre-service and in-service teacher education; and the probability of developing policy on teacher education for primary school English teachers. The aim of this chapter is to summarize and compare the findings generated from previous chapters on these particular issues. The first section discusses policy proposals and suggestions for alterations to current practices, which are generated directly from the findings of this research. The second section concludes the thesis with a particular reference to scope of the recommendations and how they may be relevant to findings to other contexts of language teaching, while the third section concludes the chapter.

10.1 Policy recommendations on teacher education for primary school English teachers

It has been pointed out in Chapter 3 that recent developments in educational policymaking have resulted in the possibility for a curriculum change from KTSP Curriculum to Curriculum 2013, by July 2013. The nationwide implementation of Curriculum 2013 however takes place gradually within the upcoming years, provided its successful implementation in 6,325 schools throughout the country. While the implementation of the curriculum will bring direct impact on the abolishment of English from the primary school curriculum, parental concerns and societal demands have given a strong urge to establish its place in the curriculum. A possible compromise is a decision to

establish English as an extra-curricular activity, which means its teaching will be left entirely to each primary school outside school hours.

Such development in educational policymaking inevitably would require adjustments to the policy recommendations made in this particular chapter. In the sections that follow, policy recommendations are grouped on the basis of relevance to the possible change of the curriculum from the KTSP Curriculum to Curriculum 2013 as well as their relevant categories.

10.1.1. Policy recommendations related to teachers

The following sub-sections discuss policy recommendations related to teachers, namely: 1) the profile and needs of teachers must be taken into account when designing teacher education programs; and 2) recommendations related to the status of English.

The profile and needs of teachers must be taken into account when designing teacher education programs

It has been demonstrated that the diverse profile of teachers of English at primary level in Indonesia encompasses a range of backgrounds such as educational levels, linguistic competency, and occupational backgrounds (Sections 5.1.1 & 5.1.2). The findings throughout Chapter 5 maintained how this diverse profile has a close relationship with the needs of teachers in terms of pedagogical practices and knowledge. Pedagogy preparation and teachers' experience were found to be influential in the pedagogical practices of teachers in areas such as classroom organization, creating activities or tasks that are appropriate to students' level, giving feedback and error correction, selecting and adapting materials from coursebooks, and dealing with a different range of students' learning styles and personalities. The multilingual skill of teachers was found to be a critical factor that determines the language of instruction of the teachers, whether they use the students' first language or English.

Teaching experience was also influential in determining the kind of knowledge the teachers mostly need. Teachers with a broad teaching experience were in need of provision of knowledge of English with a particular reference to knowledge of phonetics and phonology, while those with limited experience were in need of a strong provision of contextual knowledge and pedagogical knowledge. Nevertheless, the findings also demonstrated that teachers from all groups showed common needs on areas such as maintaining students' interest, planning contextually appropriate lessons, language proficiency, linguistic culture, intercultural language teaching, integrating language skills, and knowledge of learners to recognize learners' learning strategy, develop learning autonomy, and to assist learners with learning difficulties.

All these indicate that while there are typical needs of teachers of English at primary level that deserve attention, there are also specific needs which are distinctive to the profile of the teachers. This suggests that the profile of teachers and their needs must be taken into account when designing teacher education programs for primary school English teachers. Different profile and needs require different treatments; one size does not fit all.

This implies that the development of policy on teacher education on primary school English teachers is contingent on the analysis of the profile and needs of teachers. In order for such policy to be effective, it is imperative to ground it on the demonstrated needs and profile of the teachers. Decisions on what is given to which group of teachers will predominantly be based on a process of needs analysis of teachers, and this ought to form the goals of LTE Policy as set forth in the framework of LTE Policy (Section 1.4.2). This is necessary in order to correspond to Article 6.d.2. of The Decree of Minister of National Education No. 19/2005 on National Standards of Education (Pemerintah, 2005).

Recommendations related to the status of English

It has been pointed out that the current status of English as a local content subject in primary school timetabling adversely affects the provision of support attached to English teaching as well as the employment of teachers as civil servants (Sections 7.1.5. and

3.2.2). Due to their status as non-civil servant status, English teachers at primary level are not entitled to a full-salary or training programs held by government-based training institutions. It has been suggested that "low pay and lack of job security have a direct impact" on both the time that teachers allocate for teaching as well as their professional development (Haque & Cray, 2007, p. 640).

Considering the findings that the low status of English in the curriculum adversely affects the employment status of teachers, it is highly recommended that English be given much stronger status. This implies that the regulation on English as a local content subject as legalized by the Decree of Ministry of Education and Culture No. 60/1993 and the Decree of Ministry of National Education No. 22/2006 needs to come to an end and be replaced by a new nationwide policy that establishes English as a compulsory subject and appoints English teachers as civil servants (Section 7.2.4). The elevation of status of English as a compulsory subject in the primary school curriculum is highly desirable to allow teachers to gain an opportune moment to be appointed civil servants. Appointing teachers of English at primary level as civil servants is expected to put an end to the social injustice that the primary school English teachers have been experiencing. Civil servant status would likely to warrant not only equal professional supports for teachers but also their entitlement to full salary and other employment benefits.

The discussion throughout Chapter 9 also demonstrated the desirability of the establishment of English as a second official language to ensure greater provision of support for primary school English teachers. Although this is in line with the resurgence of English in the social and educational domains that Indonesian people have enjoyed in the past few years, the ramifications of English being a second official language remain socially and politically unjustified. Further research is needed to investigate as to whether the establishment of English as a second official language is a possibility and how it would give impact on the political and social constructs of Indonesia (Section 9.3.3).

Given the current educational policy with regard to the implementation of Curriculum 2013 at primary level, as suggested in Chapter 3, it is however unlikely that the three recommendations above could be totally accommodated. Within the new curriculum, English could only possibly find its place as an extra-curricular activity. This means stronger support for teachers, the alteration of status of teachers to become civil servants, as well as the elevation of status of English as a second official language are less likely to take place. This however does not mean the end of everything. The fact that there has been a tendency for educational units at provincial level to maintain English at primary level timetable as in the case of Dinas Dikdas East Java (Section 3.1.2) along with the fact that the implementation of Curriculum 2013 may not take place simultaneously nationwide until the upcoming years indicate that there is still time to reconsider the place of English at primary school level within the new curriculum.

Abolishing English from the primary school timetable without taking into account parental pressure as well as concerns from teachers, society, and educational experts that demand a place of English be maintained in the primary schooling timetable is imprudent. It is therefore recommended that the government conduct a national inquiry on the importance of English for children's academic development and how it may find its place within the proposed curriculum by involving relevant stakeholders such as parents, teachers, school representatives, educational administrators, and educational experts. Such inquiry would determine the extent of the perceived importance of English in primary schooling education and whether or not the recommendations made within this section may be applicable.

10.1.2 Policy recommendations that affect both pre-service and in-service education

The following sub-sections discuss policy recommendations that affect both pre-service and in-service education, namely: 1) Overhaul of pre-service and in-service education; 2) Establishing the Consortium in Primary School English Teaching; 3) Ensuring the availability of quality teacher educators with expertise in teaching English to Young Learners; 4)

Evaluation and monitoring system; and 5) Learning-teaching options in language teacher education.

Overhaul of pre-service and in-service education

The framework of LTE policy (Section 1.4.3) demonstrates the necessity of modes of teacher education (pre-service and in-service) to develop policy on teacher education programs to better prepare teachers. The discussion in Chapter 6 unfortunately showed the inadequacy of pre-service education in preparing student teachers to teach English in SD due to various issues such as a lack of specificity and practical components, the lack of quality of teacher educators, and the lack of tuition in English and other knowledge relevant to English in PGSD. Similarly, Chapter 7 argued the existence of a number of issues undermining the delivery of in-service education, namely a limited number of quality teacher educators in government-based training institutions; poor management in terms of planning, evaluation, and participant selection; minimal provision of practical components; and the unaffordability and inaccessibility of training programs by private institutions. It has been argued in both Chapters 6 and 7 that transformative impact on educational practices is a desirable outcome which unfortunately cannot be sustained without robust policymaking and simultaneous reforms that take place at both pre-service and in-service levels. Specific policy recommendations that are aimed to address issues at both levels of teacher education are made in both sections 10.2.4 and 10.2.5.

Establishing the Consortium in Primary School English Teaching

The discussion throughout chapters 6, 7, 8, and 9 suggested the creation of a wide base participation or bottom-up approach in both the formulation and implementation of policy on language teacher education for primary school English teachers. This implies that a transformative policy on teacher education is not an action exerted solely by policymakers, but an initiative largely contributed by relevant stakeholders, which has culminated on the suggestion to establish the Consortium in Primary School English Teaching (Section 9.2.5).

The establishment of the Consortium would mean a greater emphasis on the central roles of policy agency at all levels and the continuous interplay between these agents as demonstrated in the framework of LTE policymaking (Section 1.4.1). The involvement of representatives of relevant stakeholders to play indispensable roles relevant to their area of expertise and potential in the Consortium is parallel to the suggestion to establish a linkage between schools, teachers groups, teaching colleges, local governments, and private institutions (Sections 7.2.3 and 9.4). While they play indispensable roles in assisting the professional growth of teachers at pre-service level, teacher educators at teaching colleges are also expected to foster their supervisory roles in assisting the professional development of the current in-service teachers through regular monitoring of their language proficiency as well as assistance to their action research projects (Sections 8.2 and 9.2.2).

Teachers groups may also play greater roles in initiating training programs in association with teaching colleges. When these training programs are developed at the local level, teachers groups could become an avenue where teachers of the same district meet to consequently stimulate greater participation from financially challenged teachers (Section 7.2.3). While reputable private and foreign institutions could provide teacher educators in the training scheme for enhancing the professional qualification of teacher educators from both teaching colleges and government-based training institutions (Section 9.4), small scale private institutions may become a partner for teachers groups at a local level in designing professional development activities for teachers.

The primary objective of the Consortium ought to be translating the outcomes-linked evidence into policy and into teacher education in ways that fairly represent what is actually known from the research in order to attend to the needs of teachers. The Consortium ought to play an indispensable role in the generation of reliable and comprehensive data on teachers' needs and potential to contribute to the creation of teacher education programs that attend to the needs of the teachers (Section 9.3.2) as

well as to ensure the efficacy of the overhaul in both pre-service and in-service education as recommended in this section.

The spirit of wide-base participation impregnated by the consortium resonates well to the policy of decentralization of education that is currently embraced by the government (Sections 3.1.1 and 3.1.2). This could well be further enhanced with the contribution made by professional organization such as TEFLIN, which could provide consultancy on policy input as well as help mediate relevant stakeholders with the central government (Section 9.2.2). Such approach is relevant to the suggestion on the all-encompassing nature of the policy which provides greater flexibility to policy agents at the local level to help create contextually appropriate professional development programs (Section 9.2.3). This is particularly important in order to reflect greater appreciation of the context in which teaching and teacher education processes take place, hence indicating an important interplay between language teacher education policy and educational reforms in particular contexts (Claire & Adger, 2000). This congruency is pertinent in demonstrating the linkage between the outcomes of teacher education and the policy reforms that initiates it in order to represent what is known from the research to attend to the practical needs of the teachers.

Ensuring the availability of quality teacher educators with expertise in teaching English to Young Learners

The discussion in Sections 6.1.4 and 7.1.2 highlighted that teacher educators in both teaching colleges and government-based training institutions have not been prepared with specific need of teaching English for Young Learners. It has also been demonstrated that the supply of teacher educators at government-based training institutions such as LPMP and P4TK cannot meet the demands of providing in-service training programs for primary school English teachers (Section 7.1.2). These situations have implications on the availability of quality teacher educators in teaching colleges and government-based training institutions to prepare teachers of English at primary level.

Firstly, teacher educators at pre-service education and government-based training institutions need to be equipped with a training scheme that provides them with a considerable portion of exposure to young learner pedagogy, the development of more interactive approaches in teaching, as well as provision of knowledge of phonetics and phonology and pronunciation (Sections 6.2.6 & 7.2.1). This could be established through cooperation with private institutions with interests in the development of English teaching in Indonesia that provide specific training in this area (Section 9.4). Such policy initiative is absent in the countries under scrutiny in both Chapters 1 and 2 and seems to be a much more affordable measure in comparison to the employment of native speaking English teachers that are currently implemented by countries such as Japan, South Korea, Taiwan, and Hong Kong. Furthermore, it will also conform to Articles 69-71 of the Act No. 14/2005 on Teachers and Lecturers that requires the professional development of teacher educators.

Secondly, a recruitment mechanism at government-based training institutions is desirable to add to the teacher educators currently in service and to address the lack of continuity of in-service training programs (Section 7.2.1). This is relevant especially because The Decree of Ministry of National Education Republic of Indonesia No. 8/2005 on the Structure of Directorate General on the Quality Enhancement of Educators and Education Professionals does not specify recruitment process for teacher educators at government-based training institutions.

Evaluation and monitoring system

Section 7.1.3 demonstrated critical factors that jeopardize the implementation of in-service training programs. For example, mismanagement can be seen in the largely money-driven involvement of educational bureaucrats in designing training programs. Other problems also occur. Unequal opportunities for professional development activities for teachers are apparent in the lack of transparency of training participant selection (Sections 7.1.5), while inadequate funding support for teacher education programs was

also another important issue raised in the study (9.3.1). Recommendations are made in this section in order to address these deficiencies in planning and administration.

Alterations to the current practice of evaluation and supervision require the empowerment of the Planning and Evaluation Unit of the Directorate General for Quality Enhancement of Educators and Education Professionals to directly oversee the management of in-service training programs for primary school English teachers. This is relevant to the Article 11.3 of The Decree of Ministry of National Education No. 8/2005 on The Organization and Structure of the Directorate General for Quality Enhancement of Educators and Education Professionals. Such empowerment is congruent with the framework of LTE Policy (Section 1.4.5) and is parallel to the creation of a monitoring system that is transparent and reliable to maintain control and supervision to the conduct of teacher education programs.

For example, the role of the Planning and Evaluation Unit is indispensable in ensuring a more accountable system of the monitoring of teaching supervision. Clearly organized guidelines are imperative for the implementation of both classroom observation and teaching supervision. This is relevant to the identification of the roles of student teachers, teacher educators, and the teachers whose school is being visited or observed (Section 8.2). Their presence may also put an end to the perpetual inequality presently occurring due to discrimination against teachers on the basis of their close relationship with power wielders, their employment status, the status of their school, and the location of their region (Section 7.1.5).

The Planning and Evaluation Unit would also be vital to ensure a more robust and accountable mechanism by curbing the involvement of local government bureaucrats to administrative functions. This ought to prevent these bureaucrats from taking part in the creation of poor quality coursebooks (Section 5.2.7) and their political intervention to the design of in-service training programs (Section 7.1.3). It has been suggested that over-reliance on the use of BOS (*Bantuan Operasional Sekolah* or School Operational Funding)

is imprudent because it is not sufficient to be solely used for professional development of teachers. An implementation of the 20% of national budget on education as stipulated by the Act No. 20/2003 on The National Education System (Pemerintah, 2003) requires greater allocation for professional development activities for teachers, including teachers of English at primary level. The funding may also be used to provide sufficient financial remuneration for senior teachers who take up the role to assist the professional growth of student teachers (Section 8.2). The Planning and Evaluation Unit thus ought to play influential roles in pushing the bureaucrats at the local level to support funding for professional development programs for teachers of English at primary level (Section 9.3.1).

Learning-teaching options in language teacher education

Chapter 5 demonstrated the lack of practical skills of teachers in a number of areas such as classroom management, giving feedback and error correction, maintaining students' interests, amongst others. The discussion in Chapter 8 suggested the creation of opportunities for student teachers to exercise their pedagogical practices and acclimatize to teaching environment through the employment of various learning teaching options including video analysis (Section 8.5), classroom observation of experienced teachers as well as of peers (Section 8.3), teaching supervision (Section 8.2), and microteaching (Section 8.6). It has been suggested that learning-teaching options aimed to develop student teachers' practical experiences need to be developed early during pre-service teacher education (Section 8.1). This is relevant to the contention made in both chapters 6 and 7 that pointed out the lack of practical orientation enmeshing both pre-service and in-service teacher education.

The discussion throughout Chapter 8 envisaged the employment of innovative teacher education that flexibly combines learning teaching options at both pre-service and in-service levels to tailor to the needs of student teachers. The display of video of experienced teachers during lectures is useful to bring innovative and creative perspectives to teaching especially in generating critical discussion on areas such as giving

instruction and classroom management (Section 8.5). Providing student teachers with opportunities to highlight more in-depth analysis on the reflection of their teaching practices is also viable through the use of a journal that is written in Indonesian rather than English (Section 8.9).

Chapter 8 also reiterated the importance of having critical discussion when employing learning teaching options. It was suggested that a critical discussion between the observant(s) and the observee after classroom observation (Section 8.3), between peers after microteaching session (Section 8.6), and when discussing a video of a language lesson (Section 8.5) needs to be conducted. Critical discussion was also found useful when teachers could reflect and discuss what they have written in their journal in an atmosphere that is conducive to their professional growth (Section 8.9). The place for critical discussion in language teacher education for primary school English teachers is relevant to the contention made in Chapters 6 and 7 that emphasized the importance of establishing the link between schools, teaching colleges, and teacher groups (Section 7.2.5). Discussion activities may be developed between student teachers at pre-service level when discussing mind-stimulating topics in workshops (Section 8.7) and when conducting collaborative action research (Section 8.4). At in-service level, critical discussion may appear when teachers meet with other teachers when attending teacher education programs held by teacher groups in association with teaching colleges, government-based training institutions, and foreign institutions (Section 7.2.5).

The findings conclusively show the needs for the incorporation of technologies in an effort to improve the language proficiency of student teachers in language teacher education for primary school English teachers (Sections 6.2.4, 7.2.2, & 8.10). To utilize recent developments in technologies for improving the language proficiency of the student teachers means rendering more autonomy and greater independence to them. This is also relevant to the spirit of relegating more autonomy to teachers who are asked to read the material prior to workshops and become active participants (Section 8.7). When student teachers are no longer seen as mere recipients but rather as active participants in their

own professional growth, it marks a significant shift from "teacher educator-directed learning to student-directed learning" (Lunenberg & Korthagen, 2003, p. 41). This is parallel to a shift towards the constructivist paradigm in language teacher education that has a placed greater role on student teachers to be responsible for their own professional development (Section 1.5.1) and a greater emphasis on communicative, interactive, and student-centered learning (Sections 6.2.3 & 6.2.3).

10.1.3 Specific policy recommendations for pre-service education

The following sub-sections discuss policy recommendations that are specifically aimed for pre-service education, namely: 1) Establishing Concentration on EYL in English language education program; 2) Establishing Certification in EYL in English departments; and 3) Ensuring the availability of units relevant to English teaching in PGSD.

Establishing Concentration on EYL in English language education program

Section 6.2.1 recommended the establishment of Concentration on EYL (English for Young Learners) to be developed within English Language Education Program in Semesters 6, 7, and 8, with eight credit point minimum. The Concentration would be aimed at student teachers in English Language Education Program who have not completed their study to prepare them with specific knowledge and skills related to primary schooling English teaching. The establishment of the Concentration ought to provide an answer to the absence of policy directive that specifies the minimum qualification of English teachers at primary level, especially because the delivery of English Language Program, as stipulated by Act No. 16/2007 on Standards of Teachers' Academic Qualification and Competence, has not been specific to well attend to the needs of primary school English teachers. Those graduating from the Concentration may be conferred Bachelor of Education in English specializing in English for Young Learners and automatically be professionally certified. This initiative would conform to Chapter 34 of Act No. 20/2003 on The National Education System that requires teachers to possess a minimum qualification that is linier to their level and area of expertise.

Both Chapters 5 and 6 provided signposts for comprehensive contents that place emphasis on English teaching methodologies and the development of language proficiency in Concentration on Teaching English to Young Learners.

Emphasis on English teaching methodologies for young learner means the inclusion of knowledge of learners, contextual knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge (e.g. learning styles, methodological concepts, psychology of learner development, linguistic culture, intercultural language teaching), language testing and assessment, technology of teaching, classroom management (e.g. how to set up pair work in large classes), integrating language skills, providing feedback and correcting error, maintaining students' interest, developing learning materials for young learners, and dealing with a wide range of learners. The provision of these practical components of language teaching ought to take place early during pre-service education and keep abreast with the current development in young learner pedagogy (Section 6.2.3).

Furthermore, emphasis on language proficiency aims to develop the English language proficiency of student teachers to be able to become a language model for their students (Sections 5.2.9 & 5.3.3). This means that while student teachers are trained to develop their language proficiency on both the macro-skills (reading, listening, speaking, and writing) and micro-skills (vocabulary and grammar), a particular emphasis ought to be made on oral skills (e.g. pronunciation and fluency) and knowledge on phonetics and phonology. This would also need to be parallel to the development of classroom language as a component that trains student teachers on how to effectively communicate their ideas to the students (Section 8.10).

Establishing Certification in EYL in English departments

The establishment of Certification in EYL within English Departments is highly recommended to tackle the issue of specificity and inadequacy of English departments in preparing English teachers at primary level. This policy initiative would be aimed to

provide adequate preparation for the alumni of English departments who are teaching English at primary level but have not been certified in the PPG (Pendidikan Profesi Guru or Teacher Professional Certificate) (Section 6.2.2).

Since this group of teachers must have been prepared with language skills and various aspects of pedagogy such as classroom management, language testing and assessment, and language teaching approaches and methodologies (Saukah, 2009), it is necessary that they are given sufficient portion on knowledge and skills related to young learner pedagogy. This stipulates the inclusion of knowledge of knowledge-base in Teaching English to Young Learners (e.g. knowledge of learners, psychology of learner development, linguistic culture, intercultural language teaching), and skills such as developing learning materials for young learners that are transferrable from other programs, as suggested in Chapters 5 and 6.

The formulation of Certification in English for Young Learners is in lieu of Teacher Professional Certificate as stipulated by Chapter 1 of the Decree of Minister of National Education Republic of Indonesia No. 40/2007. The participants of the Certification do not have to attend a competency test and submit a portfolio but may be able to undertake relevant subjects in PGSD or other majors in order to tailor their needs. A policy directive is needed to regulate the establishment of the Certification in English for Young Learners. This is necessary in order to conform to Chapter 29 of The Government Law of Republic Indonesia No. 19/2005 On National Standard on Education.

Ensuring the availability of units relevant to English teaching in PGSD

Chapter 5 demonstrated that teachers who graduate from PGSD (*Pendidikan Guru Sekolah Dasar* or Primary School Teacher Education) generally have extensive experience and strong pedagogy preparation to deal with young learners but are not confident with their English language proficiency. In response to this, Section 6.2.5 argued the necessity to include provision of English language proficiency and knowledge related to English in PGSD curriculum in order to address the issue of specificity in PGSD.

Teachers who graduate from PGSD are in need of provision of English language proficiency with a particular emphasis on oral skills including pronunciation and fluency (Section 5.4). This implies language improvement classes to develop the English language proficiency of student teachers in PGSD need to cover areas of English macro-skills (reading, listening, speaking, and writing) and micro-skills (grammar and vocabulary), and classroom language as synthesized from the discussion in Chapters 5, 6, and 8. A particular reference to the development of oral skills (pronunciation and fluency) as well as knowledge on phonetics, phonology, English grammar, linguistic culture, and intercultural language teaching must also be in accordance with the inclusion of classroom language to train teachers to deliver effective instruction. These are necessary foundations to adequately prepare student teachers in PGSD to teach English at primary level.

10.1.4 Specific policy recommendations for in-service education

The policy initiatives discussed in the previous sections cater for the needs of student teachers who currently pursue an undergraduate degree in English departments, the alumni of English departments who have not been certified, and the student teachers who study in PGSD. No findings were however generated in terms of specific preparation programs to help teachers who graduate from other majors not related to English such as Physics and French.

This suggests that it is desirable that future English teachers are: 1) graduates of English departments who have enrolled in the Concentration on English for Young Learners; 2) alumni who have been certified in the Certification on English for Young Learners; 3) those who are graduates of PGSD who have been prepared with relevant skills and knowledge in English language. This would conform to the Act No. 16/2007 on Standards of Teachers' Academic Qualification and Competence that requires linearity of the qualification of teachers with the subjects they teach.

Future graduates of other majors not related to English, on the other hand, are not expected to teach English at primary level as it contradicts the implementation of Act No. 16/2007 on Standards of Teachers' Academic Qualification and Competence. Nonetheless, the presence of the currently employed teachers who graduated from other majors not related to English such as PSET2 and PSET3 cannot be ignored; it is imprudent to terminate the employment of this group of teachers. This group of teachers is best prepared with in-service teacher education programs that are specific to the preparation of Teaching English to Young Learners.

Both Chapters 5 and 7 provided signposts to the practical components that need to be included in teacher education for primary school English teachers at in-service level. Teachers need to be equipped with practical components that develop their teaching performance in areas such as classroom management when teaching large classes (e.g. organization in groups and pair work, lesson planning, creating tasks/activities that are appropriate to students' level), maintaining students' interest, giving feedback and correcting error, selecting and adapting materials from coursebooks, dealing with a wide range of students' learning styles and strategies, language testing and assessment, technology of teaching, and integrating language skills. Provision of knowledge-base in Teaching English to Young Learners was also recommended on the areas such as knowledge of learners (e.g. learning styles, psychology of learner development), contextual knowledge, and pedagogical content knowledge (e.g. knowledge of learners, psychology of learner development, linguistic culture, intercultural language teaching, etc.) as well as specific focus on the development of oral skills (pronunciation and fluency) and classroom language.

Since the recommendations above were generated from the findings of this study, it is worth noting that they serve a guideline function that needs to be taken into account when developing teacher education programs for primary school English teachers at both pre-service and in-service levels. As demonstrated in section 10.2, specific contents of a teacher education program must be developed on the basis of the particular profile and

needs of the teachers. Treating the recommendations above as a blue print for contents of teacher education for primary school English teachers at both pre-service and in-service level is therefore not recommended.

In-service training may use the Teacher Professional Enhancement Group (PKG) that was carried out during the 1980s-1990s (Chodidjah, 2010) as a model through the involvement of teachers groups at local level (KKG) for primary school English teachers' professional development. This is vital to establish a meaningful relationship between schools, teachers' groups, and student teachers (Korthagen, et.al. 2006). Critical discussion groups involving teachers groups at the local level has been proven useful for teachers in Vietnam (Vo & Nguyen, 2010) and may offer an even more invaluable contribution to a country with highly diverse geographical situations like Indonesia. Furthermore, the training programs at in-service level are expected to be conducted on an on-going basis (Section 7.1.5) and be accessible to all groups of teachers, irrespective of their status of employment, location, and school of origin (Section 7.2.4). In-service training programs for primary school English teachers that have been systematically developed with clear procedures and definite expected outcomes in countries such as South Korea (Shiga, 2008) and Taiwan (Tsao, 2008) may be a useful reference in this regard.

10.2 Scope and Significance of the Study

This thesis is relevant to the current and broader situations of English teaching in the world and in particular in Asia, in which strong demands for primary school English teaching necessitate the presence of qualified and competent English teachers, as discussed in Chapter 1. The findings generated in this study have made a case for policymaking on language teacher education and may therefore be useful for considerations in policymaking in preparing English language teachers at primary level. This means various policy measures recommended in this study may be relevant to other countries that teach English at primary level with similar contexts to that of Indonesia such as China (Li, 2007), Vietnam (Hamano, 2007), and Taiwan (Wuchang-Chang, 2007).

Policy directive innovations at both pre-service and in-service levels generated in this study may provide signposts to countries that are concerned with the professional preparation of teachers of English at primary level. These innovative policy measures have provided contribution to what is missing in the current practices of policymaking on language teacher education based on a comparatively small sample of Indonesian teachers in seven provinces in Indonesia.

It is however worth noting that this study is a qualitative study which involved small groups of participants including teachers, teacher educators, primary school principals, members of educational boards, and educational consultants. This implies that the scope of the study was particularly limited to the identification of trends in the certain group of participants interviewed and observed. The applicability of these findings needs to be tested in other English teaching contexts at primary level in other provinces within Indonesia, especially when local context comes at play. When it comes to countries that are interested in applying policymaking on teacher education for English at primary level, the extent to which the policy innovations are applicable is best left to subject to a rigorous and nationwide research within the countries. Precautions must also be made in that educational systems as well as specific educational constraints are unique within each country.

Another significance of the study is the insights it offers into the perspectives of various group of stakeholders on the development of policy recommendations on language teacher education for primary school English teachers. This is particularly useful in an attempt to empower teachers and other stakeholders to contribute to the process of policymaking on language teacher education. Concerns to increase efforts to empower teachers in language policymaking have been made in literature (see Cooper, 1989; Ramanathan, 2005).

The involvement of various stakeholders such as teachers, teacher educators, primary school principals, educational consultants, and members of educational boards is

exemplary of how the study addresses the issue of bottom-up approach in policymaking. It has been suggested throughout the thesis that efforts to strengthen teacher education at both pre-service and in-service levels must go hand in hand with a more practical orientation of the contents as well as the direct involvement of educational agents at the local level. While this provides further evidence for the significance of a bottom-up approach in language policymaking, such contention also makes explicit reference for an innovative way of working in language policy. The reason is because it places a particular emphasis on language policymaking related to teacher education; this is something that has unfortunately has been missing in the wider language policy scholarship as discussed in Chapter 1.

At the theoretical level, the findings generated in Chapters 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9 have provided evidence for the theoretical framework of LTE Policy set forth in Chapter 1. The discussion throughout the thesis has developed an account of teacher education as a feature of language policy research in order to contribute to what is missing in the literature, as pointed out by Christ (1997). Language teacher education is a subsumed field within the broader research of language planning and policy scholarship. The contents of language teacher education, learning-teaching options, as well as policy design are all theoretical issues inherent within the broader framework of language teacher education policymaking.

10.3 Conclusion

The recommendations discussed in this chapter strongly support the establishment of a policy on language teacher education for primary school English teachers. Various policy reforms that are intended to sustain the professional development of teachers and to prepare them for the demands of their vocation mentioned in this chapter are groundless without specific policy directives that support their implementation. The overhaul of both pre-service and in-service teacher education has the potential to revolutionize the practice of teacher education for primary school English teachers. However, without the

establishment of a policy directive made by the government this is unlikely to occur (Section 9.1).

The policy on teacher education for primary school English teachers would have to be integral to the national educational reforms, as mandated by Act No. 20/2003 on The National Education System (Pemerintah, 2003) and The Government Law of Republic Indonesia No. 19/2005 On National Standard on Education (Pemerintah, 2005a). The all-encompassing nature of the policy would be essential to capture the diverse situations of Indonesia in terms of ethnicity, religion, linguistic, and cultural backgrounds. It would also provide a great degree of autonomy to the policy agents at the local level in exercising the policy in the spirit of decentralization of education that the government is currently embracing.

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