

**Indonesian Secondary-Trained EFL Teachers Teaching English to
Primary-Age Children: A Study of Motivational Factors and EFL
Teaching Knowledge**

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DECLARATION

This thesis comprises only my original work towards the PhD except where indicated in the Preface. No other person's work has been used without due acknowledgement in the main text of the thesis. This thesis has not been submitted for the award of any degree or diploma in any other institution. All research procedures reported in the thesis received the approval of the relevant Ethic committee.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Syahrial Karea', with a long horizontal flourish extending to the right.

Syahrial Karea

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ABSTRACT

Indonesian Secondary-Trained EFL Teachers Teaching English to Primary-Age Children: A Study of Motivational Factors and EFL Teaching Knowledge

Key words: English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers; EFL teaching; EFL curriculum and pedagogy; teaching English to primary children; EFL teaching knowledge; teachers' careers; motivational factors to choose teaching.

Indonesia has employed secondary-trained EFL teachers to teach English to children since the EFL program was introduced in primary schools in 1994 (Suyanto, 2004). Many EFL teacher educators in Indonesia have debated the employment of these teachers in primary schools because they were prepared to teach English to secondary school students; it has been assumed that their educational background is not relevant to undertake the teaching task at the primary level. The research investigated motivational factors that have brought secondary-trained EFL teachers in Indonesia to choose the EFL teaching profession and to teach English to children in primary schools, and analysed the EFL teaching knowledge these teachers used to work with children in primary classrooms. The overarching questions of the study are: "What motivational factors have led secondary-trained EFL teachers to teach English in primary classrooms?" and "How do these teachers approach the work of EFL teaching in primary classrooms in Indonesia?"

The study used a qualitative research approach underpinned by interpretive phenomenology (Heidegger, 1962; van Manen, 1997) to understand the motivational factors and the EFL teaching knowledge of the participants. Interpretive phenomenology supported the researcher's interest in the experience of secondary-trained EFL teachers working in primary contexts in Indonesia. Thirteen participants from nine primary schools in Jambi City, Indonesia were chosen to participate in the study. The participants were interviewed and their practice was observed.

The research findings highlighted the following themes. Themes related to the participants' motivational factors showed participants as entering the teaching profession and teaching English for extrinsic and altruistic rather than intrinsic reasons. However, the study revealed that after entering the EFL teaching profession intrinsic motivational factors were more evident in participants' accounts of their experience. This change was considered in light of the religious beliefs of the participants, the majority of whom were Muslims.

The analyses of participants' EFL teaching knowledge suggested that the knowledge these teachers used to teach English to children in primary classrooms was relevant to current theories and practices of language teaching proposed by language experts such as McKay (2006), Cameron (2007), Harmer (2010), and Richards (2011). Their practice was influenced by their knowledge of children; knowledge of curriculum goals; and language pedagogical knowledge, which they used to create engaging EFL syllabuses and meaningful EFL learning activities for children to learn English in the classroom setting. The participants divided their practice into three stages: pre-learning, core learning and post-learning as proposed by language teaching experts. Although these participants were trained to teach EFL to secondary school students, whose characteristics are different from those of primary school pupils, the analysis of their experience showed that they were able to use their EFL teaching knowledge to teach the target language to primary school age children appropriately.

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ABBREVIATIONS

ALM	Audiolingual Method
AS	Action Songs
CBI	Comprehension-Based Instruction
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CR	Choral Repetitions
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESA	Engage, Study, Activate
ESL	English as a Second Language
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
GBA	Genre-Based Approach
GTM	Grammar Translation Method
KKG	Kelompok Kerja Guru (Teacher Group-Work)
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
LD	Listening to Dictation
LPMP	Lembaga Penjamin Mutu Pendidikan
LPTK	Lembaga Pendidik Tenaga Kependidikan
MAN	Madrasah Aliyah Negeri (Islamic Senior High School)
MKB	Mata Kuliah Keahlian Berkarya
MKK	Mata Kuliah Keilmuan dan Keterampilan (courses of educational philosophy)
MPB	Mata Kuliah Prilaku Berkarya (courses of educational research”
MPK	Mata Kuliah Pengembangan Kepribadian (courses of personality development)
MTsN	Madrasah Tsanawiyah Negeri (Islamic Junior High School)
PT	Individual/group Presentation
QA	Question and Answer
RP	Role-play
SD	Sekolah Dasar (Primary School)
SLTA	Sekolah Lanjutan Tingkat Atas (Senior High School)
SLTP	Sekolah Lanjutan Tingkat Pertama (Junior High School)
SMA	Sekolah Menengah Atas (Senior High School)
SMP	Sekolah Menengah Pertama (Junior High School)
SPG	School of Primary Teacher Education
T1-S1	Teacher 1 at School 1
T2-S2	Teacher 2 at School 2

TEFL	Teaching English as a Foreign Language
TEFLIN	Teaching English as a Foreign Language in Indonesia
TESOL	Teaching English to Speaker of Other Languages
TEYL	Teaching English to Young Learners
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
TPR	Total Physical Responses
T-SS	Teacher-Students
UNJA	Universitas Jambi
UNM	Universitas Negeri Malang
UPI	Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia
WR	Word Recognition
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development
3Ps	Presentation, Practice, Production

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION TO THESIS

1.1 Introduction

This thesis presents the findings of a study that investigated the experience of secondary-trained English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers undertaking teaching in primary schools in Indonesia. The investigation focused on two main areas: first, the motivational factors that led secondary-trained EFL teachers to enter a secondary EFL teacher education program and then to work in primary schools after completing their program; and second, the EFL teaching knowledge these teachers used to teach English to children in primary school classrooms. The study used interpretive phenomenology (Heidegger, 1962) to understand and illuminate these teachers' experience regarding the motivational factors that led them to select the EFL teaching profession and the EFL teaching knowledge they used to work with children in primary classrooms. Interpretive phenomenological research investigates a social phenomenon through the interpretation of texts provided by individuals who embody the phenomenon (Maggs-Rapport, 2000; van Manen, 1997). Within this introductory chapter, the key influences underpinning development of this research are identified. The framing of this research is presented, followed by the researcher's position in the study, research questions, significance of the study and an outline of how this thesis is organised.

1.2 Key Influences Underpinning the Research

There were three key influences underpinning the initiation of this research study. The first influence was related to Indonesian government policy that in 1994 extended EFL teaching from the secondary to primary school level (Mendikbud, 1993). The Indonesian government, influenced by several factors, lowered the starting age of EFL teaching to primary school children. Perceived important factors were lack of success of EFL teaching at the secondary level (Afifah, 2012; Kemdikbud, 2013); the important role of the English language in a globalised world (Depdikbud, 1994); the increasing desire of Indonesian parents to introduce English to younger students; and the practical benefits the English language brings for higher education and in professional life (Huda, 1994). Explanation of these factors will be expanded in a further discussion of the context of the study in Chapter 2.

The second influence was the interest of Indonesian EFL educators in the language teaching knowledge that secondary-trained EFL teachers use to teach English to students of primary schools. EFL teacher educators in Indonesia have expressed their

concern about motivational factors that led secondary-trained EFL teachers to work in primary schools (Musthafa, 2010). Moreover, they were also concerned about the EFL teaching knowledge these teachers used to teach English to children because of their qualification and educational background as secondary-trained EFL teachers (Faridi, 2010; Musthafa, 2010; Suyanto, 2004; Zein, 2012). Musthafa (2010) argued that as far he was concerned, EFL teacher education programs in Indonesia are not designed to prepare prospective EFL teachers to teach English to students at the primary school level. A study by Zein (2012) suggested that the secondary EFL teacher education programs in Indonesia, known as “Lembaga Pendidikan Tenaga Kependidikan” (LPTK) may not be appropriate for preparing prospective EFL teachers to teach English to children in primary schools because these institutions, Zein (2012) further argued, may not employ EFL teacher educators who have sufficient expertise about teaching English to young learners. As such, Zein’s study suggested that prospective EFL teachers in Indonesia may not have sufficient EFL teaching knowledge to work with children in primary schools.

The third influence underpinning this research was the paucity of research investigating what motivational factors actually influence individuals in Indonesia to select teaching in general and the EFL teaching profession in particular. In the context of Indonesia as a developing country, such research is important as finding out about the motivational factors may allow the government of Indonesia to better prepare teachers and to improve teaching efficacy, which has become a focus of Indonesian development over the last two decades (Widodo & Riandi, 2013). Several studies have suggested that motivational factors for selecting a profession are essential elements that influence an individual’s performance in their work (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Similarly, in the field of second language (L2) or foreign language (FL) teaching, research has also shown that teachers’ motivational factors for teaching influences students’ learning motivation (Richards, 2003; Sawyer, 2007). It has been argued that if teachers are passionate about their teaching, students will be more engaged in their learning (Dörnyei, 2001).

As with research on motivational factors, studies investigating the teaching knowledge EFL teachers use to teach English to children in primary classrooms in Indonesia are limited. From 1994, the year the EFL program was initially introduced to children in primary schools, to 2012, the year the data of this study were collected, only a few studies relevant to this area were found in Indonesian publications. These were a study by Astika in 1996, a study by Agustina, Rahayu, and Murti in 1997; a study by

Febriyanti in 2004; and a study by Suyanto in 2004. All of these studies will be discussed in Chapter 2. In other words, research investigating the motivational factors that influence EFL teachers to select teaching and research studying the EFL teaching knowledge that teachers use in their practice in primary schools is scarce.

1.3 Framing the Research

As noted earlier, in understanding the motivational factors that lead secondary-trained EFL teachers to select the teaching profession, and in analysing the EFL knowledge that these teachers use to teach English to students of primary schools, this study was framed by interpretive phenomenology. By interviewing thirteen secondary-trained EFL teachers at nine primary schools, and observing their practices, this research aimed to generate an understanding of the phenomenon of teaching EFL to children from these teachers' own experiences and perspectives. The analysis aimed to uncover the lived experiences of these teachers and to illuminate the meaning they gave to their experiences.

Beside interpretive phenomenology, this study was framed by the motivational theories that categorise motivational factors into three types, such as extrinsic, intrinsic and altruistic, which were developed by Richardson and Watt (2006) into the "factors influencing teaching choice" (p. 187), henceforth, FIT-Choice framework. Richardson and Watt (2006) divided motivational factors for teaching choice into eight categories that have been used and replicated in several countries to investigate the motivational factors which influence individuals to select the teaching profession such as in Australia (Richardson & Watt, 2006); Canada and Oman (Klassen, Al-Dhafri, Hannok, & Betts, 2011); Croatia (Jugović, Marušić, Ivanec, & Vizek, 2012); Germany (König & Rothland, 2012); and Turkey (Kılınc, Watt, & Richardson, 2012). This categorisation was used in the current study to analyse data related to motivational factors that led secondary-trained EFL teachers to select teaching and to work in primary schools.

Further, the current study was framed by the theoretical frameworks of L2 teaching knowledge proposed by several language experts, such as Richards (1998), Roberts (1998), and Tarone and Allwright (2005). For L2 teaching knowledge, Roberts (1998) proposed content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, curricular knowledge, contextual knowledge and process knowledge as the knowledge base of L2 teachers. Richards (1998) proposed learning theories, teaching skills, communication skills, subject matter knowledge, pedagogical reasoning, and contextual knowledge; and Tarone and Allwright (2005) added knowledge of L2 learners and knowledge of

research in second language teaching as essential components for teaching English as a foreign language (EFL). The current study focused on investigation of the secondary-trained EFL teachers' views of children as language learners; their views of content knowledge and curriculum goals; and the pedagogical approach they use to teach children English in primary classrooms. Finally, this study was informed by a general view of pedagogical knowledge required by any teacher as proposed by Darling-Hammond, Bransford, et al. (2005) who conceptualised a theoretical framework for effective teaching. These authors proposed "knowledge of learners and their development in social contexts; knowledge of subject matter and curriculum goals; and knowledge of teaching" (p. 11) as a set of knowledge bases for effective teaching.

1.4 Researcher's Position in the Study

The phenomenon of secondary-trained EFL teachers working in primary schools as discussed above became the genesis of the current study. At the outset it is important to explain the researcher's relationship to the study reported here. As a teacher educator in the secondary EFL teacher education program, at the LPTK of Jambi University, Jambi Province, Indonesia (from 1990 to 2005) I have been a part of the changing contexts of EFL teaching in the country. Throughout my career, I have been involved in teaching and researching English in various contexts; assisting secondary-trained EFL teachers in constructing English syllabuses; developing the curriculum of EFL teacher education program at the LPTK level; as well as teaching English to secondary school students. I also have been involved in several EFL teacher professional development programs in Jambi Province in the last decade. All of these experiences have given me significant interest in issues involved in EFL teaching in Indonesia.

Since 2005, as my post graduate degree (M.Ed.) gained from Deakin University, Australia, related to the development of primary school teacher education in Indonesia, I also have been assigned to work at the School of Primary Teacher Education in the same LPTK. When the issue of secondary-trained EFL teachers who came to be working in primary schools began to be a significant debate in Indonesia, I was one of the EFL teacher educators who devoted attention to this issue. I was particularly interested in the pedagogical knowledge EFL teachers actually need to teach English in primary school classrooms. I began to ask questions about the various kinds of knowledge taught to preservice EFL teachers particularly in terms of pedagogical knowledge.

With the object of seeking to encourage innovation into theoretical and practical EFL teaching strategies, I conducted classroom action research projects in collaboration with secondary-trained EFL teachers in several secondary schools in Jambi province from 1998 to 2000. I often encountered EFL teachers who expressed concern that they faced many challenges in implementing the pedagogical knowledge of EFL teaching that they had learned during their university courses, into their daily practices. With the supervision of EFL educators from university, some secondary EFL teachers seemed to be sufficiently capable of implementing innovative EFL teaching strategies in their practices. However, after the completion of these projects no research has investigated the knowledge of EFL teaching that EFL teachers used contemporarily in their ongoing classroom practice.

These concerns, in addition to the key influences above, have motivated me to undertake the current research, investigating the phenomenon of secondary-trained EFL teachers undertaking the teaching of English to children of primary school age in Indonesia. As these teachers were qualified to teach English to secondary students, I was interested in developing an in-depth understanding about how they undertook the work of teaching in primary classrooms, for example, how they used pedagogical knowledge they learned during the secondary EFL teacher education programs to teach English to children of primary school age. Based on such concerns, the current study carries the title, “Indonesian secondary-trained EFL teachers teaching English to primary-age children: A study of motivational factors and EFL teaching knowledge”.

1.5 Research Questions

With the above concerns in mind, the overarching questions of this study were: “How did secondary-trained EFL teachers in Indonesia come to teach English in primary classrooms?” and “How do secondary-trained EFL teachers approach EFL teaching in primary classrooms? From the overarching questions, specific sub-questions arose which were the basis of this study:

1. What motivational factors led secondary-trained EFL teachers to enter the secondary EFL teaching profession in Indonesia?
2. What motivational factors led secondary-trained EFL teachers to work in primary schools?
3. How do secondary-trained EFL teachers view primary school students as language learners?

4. How do secondary-trained EFL teachers view the content knowledge and curriculum goals of EFL teaching in primary schools?
5. How do secondary-trained EFL teachers teach students of primary schools English?

1.6 Aims of the Study

The overall aim of the current study was to enhance an understanding of EFL teaching at the primary level in Indonesia by illuminating and analysing the experiences of the research participants in their efforts to work as language professionals in this context. By doing so, however, the current study has not been designed to judge the performance of the participants in their teaching or to evaluate the implementation of primary school EFL teaching in Indonesia.

More specifically, the purposes of this research are contained in the above research questions. First, as stated in research questions 1 and 2, the current study sought to uncover the motivational factors that influence individuals in Indonesia to choose to become EFL teachers by undertaking secondary EFL teacher education programs offered in relevant LPTKs. Furthermore, the research questions aimed to understand the motivational factors that led these teachers to teach English in primary schools. Second, this research aimed to reveal participants' EFL teaching knowledge, which included their views of children as language learners, their views of content knowledge and understanding of the curriculum goals of EFL teaching in primary schools, and the language pedagogical knowledge they used to work with children in classrooms. Knowledge of these areas can be the basis for developing meaningful and engaging EFL teaching syllabuses, lesson plans, learning materials and language activities that will benefit not only EFL teachers at the primary school level but also EFL teacher educators at LPTKs, assisting them to better understand the EFL teacher education program and prospective EFL teachers in Indonesia.

1.7 Significance of the Study

In general, this research will be useful for policy makers, researchers, EFL teachers and other related stakeholders in Indonesia. Indonesia has been trying to improve the quality of teachers by upgrading their qualifications and improving their pedagogical knowledge and competencies to carry out professional teaching (Presiden, 2003, 2005, 2008).

Specifically, this study will contribute important insights for the development of EFL teacher education programs in Indonesia. Some of these are as follows. First, the results related to the motivational factors that stimulated Indonesian EFL teachers to study a secondary EFL teacher education program will enable teacher educators at LPTKs in Indonesia to understand their prospective teachers better. In addition, because the research on EFL teachers' motivational factors in Indonesia is rare, the results of this study could also be the basis for subsequent research focusing on other Indonesian regions, genders, cultures or ethnicities.

Second, motivational factors that led the secondary-trained EFL teachers to work in primary schools are also important. This information will be useful for the LPTK educators to understand the motivations of prospective EFL teachers so that the LPTKs will be able to improve their capacity to prepare professional EFL teachers with essential teaching knowledge necessary to teach English to young children as well as to older students.

Third, the results of the study, which are related to the participants' experience and understanding of children in learning EFL, will be useful for policy makers to decide whether LPTKs in Indonesia need to develop a different EFL teacher education program, or to establish a new EFL teacher education program to specifically facilitate education for primary school EFL teachers. Like the results of the study related to teacher motivation discussed above, the results of the current research concerning knowledge of teaching will also serve as the basis for future studies involving larger populations representing the Indonesian regions. It will also have implications for primary EFL teachers' practice and policy makers at the primary level in Indonesia. Specifically, this study aims to deepen my knowledge and expertise in teaching, research and to learn with colleagues through our professional growth and self-reflection.

1.8 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is divided into ten chapters including the Introduction. Chapter 2 discusses the Indonesian context of the study. In this chapter, the centralised education system of Indonesia, where English is taught as a compulsory foreign language from secondary school education to the university level, is reviewed. The discussion includes how the schooling system operated in Indonesia from primary to university level during the year of the research study. The historical development of EFL teaching in the National Curriculum of Indonesia; the development of approaches to EFL teaching in

Indonesia; and the curriculum of the EFL teacher education program in Indonesia are described. Chapter 3 explores relevant literature concerning the theories that have given shape to this study, particularly those concerned with the understanding of motivational factors for selecting teaching and the EFL teaching profession. Chapter 4 addresses the knowledge base required for teaching language effectively to students of primary school age. Chapter 5 outlines the research paradigm, the methodology and the design of the study including the overarching and sub-research questions, participants, setting, data collections and analyses. Chapter 6 addresses findings related to research sub-questions 1 and 2. Using an interpretive phenomenological approach, this chapter describes the experience of thirteen secondary-trained EFL teachers' (the participants) views of motivational factors that led these teachers to select secondary EFL teaching as a career and to come to work in primary classrooms. Chapter 7 addresses findings related to research sub-question 3 "How do secondary-trained EFL teachers' view primary school children as language learners?" The chapter describes eight themes related to the views of the participants about primary school children. Chapter 8 addresses findings related to research sub-question 4 "How do secondary-trained EFL teachers view content knowledge and the curriculum goals of EFL teaching in primary schools?" Two general themes related to participants' views about content knowledge and the curriculum goals of teaching English to primary school children are discussed in this chapter. Chapter 9 addresses findings related to research sub-question 5 of the study "How do secondary-trained EFL teachers teach English to students of primary school?" The data from thirteen interviews and eleven transcriptions of classroom observations together with samples of teaching documents of the participants (syllabuses, lesson plans, and text books) were analysed thematically, and are reported on in this chapter. Thirteen themes related to views the participants gave about the EFL teaching knowledge they used in their classrooms to work with primary children are discussed in this chapter. Finally, Chapter 10 provides conclusions of the findings, implications and recommendations of the research and identifies areas for future research.

CHAPTER 2 THE CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

2.1 Introduction

In Chapter 1 I have described briefly the key influences underpinning this study, which investigated the phenomenon of why secondary-trained EFL teachers decided to teach English in primary schools, and how they approached the teaching of English as a foreign language to primary school children. More specifically, this study attempted to understand the motivational factors that led these teachers to teach English in primary schools, and to illuminate the EFL teaching knowledge they used to teach English to primary-age children.

In order to understand this phenomenon, the context within which it takes place needs to be elaborated. In relation to this, this chapter explores the context of the current study; in general it reviews the centralised system of education in Indonesia in which EFL is taught as a compulsory subject from the secondary school level to university level. This chapter consists of five sections. In Section 2.2, I provide a general description of the Indonesian schooling system. The discussion focuses on how the schooling system operates in Indonesia from primary to university level. Section 2.3 describes the historical development of EFL teaching in the Indonesian National Curriculum; Section 2.4 discusses the development of approaches to EFL teaching in Indonesia; Section 2.5 outlines the curriculum of EFL teacher education programs in Indonesia; Section 2.6 deals with an overview of Islamic pedagogy embedded in the cultural education system of Indonesia; and a summary is provided in Section 2.7.

2.2 The Schooling System in Indonesia

This section provides a brief review of the schooling system of Indonesia in which EFL teaching takes place. Indonesia has three levels of schooling: primary, secondary and tertiary. Primary school which is called “Sekolah Dasar” (SD) consists of six grade levels (years 1-6). Secondary school consists of junior high school (years 7 to 9) known as “Sekolah Menengah Pertama” (SMP) and senior high school (years 10 to 12) called “Sekolah Menengah Atas” (SMA). Primary school education or (SD) plus the first three years of secondary education (SMP) is called compulsory basic education. At the SMA level, students beginning from year 11 are grouped into three specialisations: language, social science and science programs. At the tertiary education level, different study programs are offered by different universities. Some universities offer Diploma

programs ranging from one to four years of study, and Bachelor's degree programs known as "Strata 1" (S1) which consist of four-year university courses. Some universities offer postgraduate programs such as Master and Doctoral degrees. EFL is taught at all of these levels.

The schooling system in Indonesia is controlled by the government. Private as well as public schools are controlled by the government (Presiden, 2003). State schools outnumber private schools. Current statistics show that in 2015 Indonesia has 132,513 public SDs and 12,054 private SDs; 15,024 public SMPs and 11,253 private SMPs; and 4,493 public SMAs and 5,746 private SMAs (Kemenkokesra, 2014). Most private schools belong to religious foundations such as Islamic organisations or Christian groups. Islamic schools outnumber other religious schools as Islam is the religion of the majority of people of Indonesia. Based on data from the Central Bureau of Statistics Indonesia in 2010, the total population of Indonesia reached 238 million. The number of adherents of Islam was 87 percent, or about 207 million people. Indonesia has some 21,529 Islamic SDs called "Madrasah Ibtidaiyah"; 13,292 Islamic junior high schools called "Madrasah Tsanawiyah Negeri" (MTsN) and 5,648 Islamic Senior High School called "Madrasah Aliyah Negeri" (MAN); and some 570 Islamic universities (Pohl, 2006; Kemenag, 2013). As such, Islamic education contributed 18.27% (40,469) of the total number of schools (221,552) in Indonesia.

All state and private schools have to implement the national curriculum as the main guideline for educational practice (Presiden, 2003). Besides general academic subjects Indonesian education provides students with subjects specific to the Indonesian socio-cultural life such as relevant "Religious Education" and "Pancasila Education". Pancasila education provides Indonesian students with the philosophy of the Indonesian nation, the basic laws for the government and for all of the people of Indonesia (Salam, 1998). Pancasila teaching covers the five principles of the philosophy including: "Ketuhanan Yang Maha Esa" (Belief in the one God); "Kemanusiaan Yang Adil dan Beradab" (Justice and civilised humanity); "Persatuan Indonesia" (The unity of Indonesia); "Kerakyatan Yang Dipimpin oleh Hikmat Kebijaksanaan dalam Permusyawaratan dan Perwakilan" (Democracy led by the wisdom of deliberations amongst representatives); and "Keadilan Sosial Bagi Seluruh Rakyat Indonesia" (Social justice for all of the people of Indonesia) (MPR, 2002, p. 1). Religious education covers the teaching of national religions including Islam, Catholic, Protestant, and Buddhism for relevant students (Presiden, 2003).

The section that follows provides a review of the teaching of English as a foreign language in the Indonesian curricula.

2.3 EFL in the National Curriculum of Indonesia

This section includes a short history of how EFL became the only compulsory foreign language in Indonesian education. As noted above, English as a foreign language is taught at every level of education in Indonesia. The history of teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) in Indonesia can be traced back to 1950s.

Since the 1950s, the government of Indonesia has been aware of the potential of English and its role as a lingua-franca that is useful for the development of every sector in Indonesia (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). At that time, the government of Indonesia was aware that English had been adopted as a second language (ESL) by neighbouring countries e.g., Malaysia, Singapore and the Philippines. Moreover, English is the first language (L1) of its close neighbour, Australia. Due to its utility as lingua franca in its immediate geographical regions, in 1950 the Indonesian government eventually chose English as the first foreign language rather than Dutch (which was the colonial language). Since then the term EFL rather than ESL has been used, acknowledging that all Indonesians are bilingual with some 746 local languages as mother tongues and Indonesian as the national and second language (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). In 1967, EFL as a compulsory subject for SMP and SMA students was mandated by the Regulation of the Indonesian Minister of Education and Culture Number 096/1967 (Hamied, 2012; Suyanto, 1988).

At the primary level, EFL programs have been treated as “muatan lokal” (local content subject) in the national curriculum since 1994 (Suyanto, 2004). One of the aims of the EFL program in primary schools is to promote EFL awareness and raise children’s interest in EFL and to show that EFL learning can be enjoyable, but also the program has the aim of achieving set EFL learning goals by the end of primary education. The program has a small number of contact hours ranging from two periods (2 x 35 minutes) to four periods (4 x 35 minutes) per week. EFL classes are mostly taught by Indonesian EFL teachers. In some schools, classroom teachers work with EFL teachers to introduce English to children through academic subjects such as social studies or science (Emilia, 2005).

At the secondary level, the EFL program is a compulsory subject for all students. In all SMPs, EFL is taught for four periods (4 x 45 minutes) per week, whereas in SMAs it is given five periods per week for students in the science and social studies strands, and 11 periods for students in the language specialisation (Zein, 2012). At the university level, EFL is taught as “English for Specific Purposes” (ESP) provided during year one for two credits (100 minutes of contact hour) per week in each semester. At the secondary level (SMP and SMA), English is nationally assessed at the end of years 9 and year 12, in order to ascertain the final achievement of students during the previous three years of study (Zein, 2012). The examination system is paper-based, aiming to assess the students’ English proficiency in reading comprehension, linguistic knowledge (grammar and vocabulary) and writing skills.

The section that follows describes the development of methods or approaches to EFL teaching in Indonesia. The discussion of the development of approaches to EFL teaching in this section is essential, as it is closely related to secondary-trained EFL teachers’ teaching knowledge, the second focus of this study.

2.4 The Development of Approaches to EFL Teaching in Indonesia

This section addresses the development of methods and approaches to EFL teaching in Indonesia. The discussion includes the EFL curriculum and compulsory text books used for curriculum implementation. The discussion outlines the acquisition of EFL teaching knowledge of secondary-trained EFL teachers both during their secondary education as EFL students and during their EFL teacher education programs as prospective teachers. This section also provides a further discussion of the key influences underpinning this study, introduced in Chapter 1.

Since introduced as the first foreign language in the 1950s, theoretical approaches to EFL teaching in Indonesia have changed as the result of several reforms, following the perceived needs of country and the development of the discipline of EFL teaching internationally. According to Sundayana (2014) the history of theoretical approaches to EFL teaching in Indonesia underpins the curriculum and text book development. The historical reform can be discussed by referring to three eras: *Grammar-Translation Method* (GTM), *Audiolingual Method* (ALM) (1950-1983), *Communicative Language Teaching* (CTL) (1984-2003), and CLT plus *Genre-Based Approach* (GBS) (2004 - to present). The reform of EFL teaching approaches in

Indonesia has always been marked by the reform of the EFL curriculum and EFL text books for the implementation of the curriculum. This section discusses such reforms following the time line shown in Figure 2.1 below.

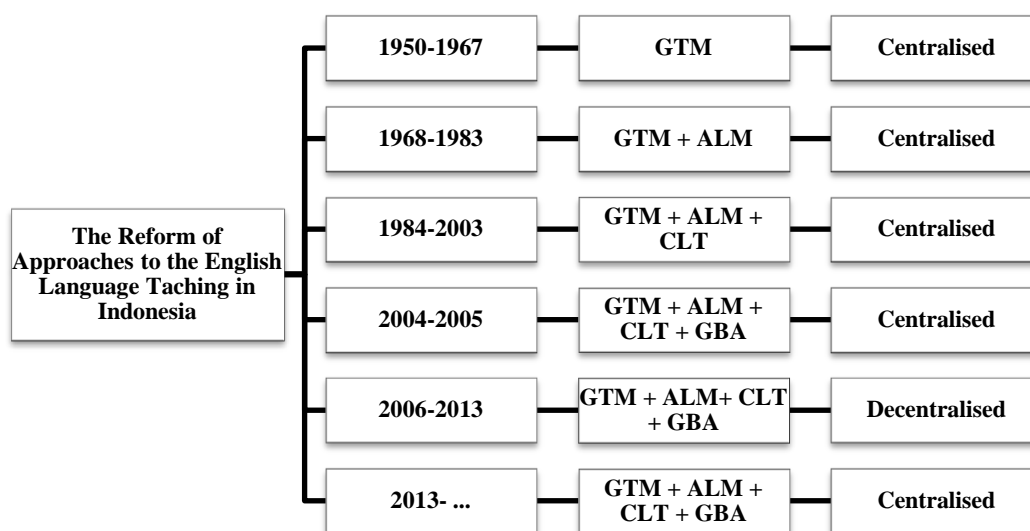


Figure 2.1 Chronological Reforms of EFL Teaching Approaches in Indonesia

Note. Figure 2.1 shows chronological reforms of EFL teaching approaches underpinning the EFL curriculum and course book developments in Indonesia. Indonesia implemented a centralised system of education between 1950 and 2005, and after 2013. GTM (Grammar Translation Method); ALM (Audiolingual Method); CLT (Communicative Language Teaching); GBA (Genre Based-Approach)

2.4.1 Period 1950-1983

During the period of 1950-1983, EFL teaching in Indonesia was influenced by the Grammar-Translation Method and Audiolingual Approach (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). The overall goals of English teaching in Indonesia during this period were to equip Indonesian students with reading skills to read academic text books written in English, to become knowledgeable in international affairs, and to increase the students' potential to understand and use technology (Depdikbud, 1976b). Due to these aims, EFL teaching practice in secondary schools and at universities emphasised the teaching of reading skills and linguistic knowledge, such as grammar and vocabulary (Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Depdikbud, 1976c).

Based on structural linguistic theory, the first three EFL curricula of Indonesia were influenced largely by linguistic knowledge and used a teacher-centred approach (Basalama, 2010). The 1975 Curriculum for example, was implemented using the compulsory course-books titled "English for the SLTP" and "English for the SLTA"

(Depdikbud, 1976a) produced by the Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture (Basalama, 2010). These text books contained reading comprehension practice and passages, and English sentence structure analysis. EFL lessons in this book were organised into three sections: reading comprehension practice, grammar analysis, and appendices. The focus on the reading was on answering comprehension questions plus grammar analysis and vocabulary study. The English tenses were always presented in dialogues, followed by rule analysis, verb form study, and mechanical drills (oral practice and oral composition) (Depdikbud, 1976a, 1976b).

During this period, the teaching was teacher-centred, emphasising drills and practices following the methodology of the course books compulsory both for teachers and students. The organisation of teaching activities in the course-books reflected the pedagogy used by EFL teachers in their practice (Lie, 2007). For example, in the reading section, the teacher would usually read the passage aloud to students. Students, while paying attention to the teacher's pronunciation, would follow the teacher reading aloud and the teacher would correct students' inaccurate pronunciations. The teacher would discuss unfamiliar words of the text with students. Word for word translation was very common in the reading section activities. The final section of the reading activity was always a question and answer section. Students would work in groups or individually and searched for the answers to the questions in the text (Lie, 2007). The teaching of a dialogue usually consisted of three stages: introduction (describing the situation or context of the dialogue), presentation (modelling the dialogue), and drills (practising the language input presented in the dialogue) (Depdikbud, 1976a, 1976b). The teaching of grammar points was usually presented through dialogues integrated in listening-speaking practices in every section of the book (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011).

When the teacher was modelling the dialogue, the students watched the teacher and listened carefully to the language of the dialogue. The students would not be allowed to see the written version of the dialogue as according to the Audio-lingual Method upon which the course books were developed, speech is more basic to language than written form (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). After modelling the dialogue, the teacher drilled the students to use the language input in the dialogue, which the Audio-lingual Method saw as a process of a habit formation (Skinner, 1993). The belief was that repetition reinforced learning (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). The drill was to prevent students from making errors, since errors could lead to bad habits

(Larsen-Freeman, 2014). The drill aimed for students to overlearn the language pattern, which was presumed to lead to automaticity (Larsen-Freeman, 2014).

At the last stage of the lesson in the course books teachers usually prompted students to look at the written version of the dialogue; teachers would read aloud the dialogue sentence by sentence and prompted the students to repeat after them, often first as a group and then individually (Depdikbud, 1976a, 1976b). The teacher corrected mistakes. Finally, teachers usually asked students to memorise the dialogue, which they had to act out without looking at the written text during the next meeting (Depdikbud, 1976a, 1976b). Limited research evidence related to the effectiveness of the implementation of the EFL program at the classroom level during this period is available.

2.4.2 Period 1984-1993

A new trend in theoretical linguistics always influenced applied linguistics in Indonesia including during the period 1984-1993 (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). With language viewed as a social phenomenon, applied linguists in Indonesia began to view language teaching from a language-in-use perspective rather than as language structure (Widdowson, 1978). Applied linguistics researchers in Indonesia during this period were influenced by the work of language experts such as Celce-Murcia and McIntosh (1979), Canale and Swain (1980), and Canale (1983) (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). This was indicated for example, by the discussion of the Communicative Approach in the EFL teacher education courses. The Audiolingual Approach which had been dominating the Indonesian scene since the 1950s began to be questioned and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) gradually came into prominence with policy makers (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). The 1975 curriculum associated with the Audiolingual Approach was revised and the 1984 curriculum based on CLT became the replacement (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). In line with world practice in EFL teaching, the EFL curriculum in Indonesia changed slowly from a teacher-centred drill and practice approach to a more student-centred approach (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). Since 1984, the EFL curriculum in Indonesia has claimed to be based on the use of CLT.

Research investigating classroom practice during this period was also rare; if there was any it was small unpublished studies at the university level and not readily available to the broader educational community and public. However, in the period

there was an important survey study conducted by Huda (1988, 1989) which became the basis for the Indonesian government policy to introduce English language teaching in primary schools. This study will be discussed in the section related to 1994-2003.

Although there was limited research, educators pointed to some deficiencies in practice in the period of 1984-1993. Dardjowidjojo (2002) wrote that the implementation of CLT underpinning the 1984 Curriculum failed at the classroom level in secondary schools. He argued that CLT principles attached to the 1984 Curriculum failed to centre the EFL teaching on developing communicative competence in secondary students. This was because the course books “Bahasa Inggris untuk SMP” and “Bahasa Inggris untuk SMA” (Chair & Bramono, 1988; Depdikbud, 1987) which were compulsory for the curriculum implementation were not significantly different from the previous course books “English for the SLTP” and “English for the SLTA” (Depdikbud, 1976a, 1976b). These course books continued to prioritise the teaching of receptive skills instead of all aspects of communicative competence. In a similar way to what occurred in the previous period, because the course books were compulsory both for teachers and students, EFL teachers would follow the methodology outlined in the course books (Huda, 1993). EFL teachers at the secondary level continued to provide students with grammatical knowledge through mechanical practices to instil the knowledge and skills they needed for success on the national exam. Deficiencies of EFL practice leading to unsatisfactory student’ EFL achievement during this period led the policy makers to reform the approach and the curriculum in 1993 (Dardjowidjojo, 2000).

2.4.3 Period 1994-2003

At the beginning of the period 1994-2003, the government of Indonesia issued an EFL policy that presented an opportunity for primary schools to introduce English into their curriculum. Since then, English has been taken up by many schools in major cities, and was treated as a “local content” subject that could be taught to students from grade four onwards. As noted earlier, this policy was introduced based on the research findings conducted by Huda during 1988 and 1989 (Zein, 2012). Huda (1988, 1989) conducted a nationwide survey that involved parents, teachers and students as his samples. The survey revealed that:

the importance of English was notable for successful completion of a study; higher English proficiency was associated with wider employment opportunities; English proficiency of most students at the secondary level after studying English for six years was unsatisfactory; and the inefficacy of English instruction at the secondary level was due to the absence of a robust foundation of English that could have been provided at the primary level (Zein, 2012, pp. 86, 87).

Thus, based on such findings: the increasing awareness of the importance of English in globalised world and the demand of parents and various stake holders for English proficiency, in 1992, the Ministry of Education and Culture (Suyanto, 2010) decided that English could be introduced at the primary level as a local content subject beginning from year four. The implementation stipulated the following conditions: “the community in which the school was located required it; the school met certain qualifications such as the availability of the teachers and facilities to accommodate appropriate learning activities” (Zein, 2012, p. 87). However, because of its status as local content, an EFL syllabus for primary school level was not included in the 1994 EFL Curriculum.

The 1994 Curriculum replaced the 1984 Curriculum, as 1984 curriculum was deemed to have failed to realise communicative language teaching at the secondary level as has been noted in the discussion above (Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Lestari, 1997; Saukah, 1995). CLT, also termed “Pendekatan Kebermaknaan” (Meaningful Approach) during this period (Dardjowidjojo, 2000) was again taken as the foundation for developing the curriculum (Lestari, 1997). In the new approach, the language input which had been language structure-based in the 1984 curriculum, changed to theme or meaning-based (Lestari, 1997). The 1994 EFL Curriculum outlined the language functions and grammar points, and provided guidelines for how language inputs could be meaningfully taught in a variety of contexts (Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Huda, 1999; Lestari, 1997; Suyanto, 1988). The text books prepared for the implementation of this curriculum such as “English for Junior Secondary School” and “English for Senior Secondary School” (Depdikbud, 1994; Dikdasmen, 1994; Djunaedi, 1996) were also claimed to be based on communicative language teaching. EFL lessons in such course-books were organised into three sections: *presentation* (dealing with input containing language functions or expressions presented through picture dialogues); *language focus*

(dealing with grammatical explanations governing the dialogues); and *exercises* (dealing with grammar practices) (Djunaedi, 1996).

Research investigating classroom practice during this period was also rare. At the primary level, a small number of studies were found in the Indonesian literature. Agustina, Rahayu, and Murti (1997) reported that English was not used by EFL teachers of primary schools either during the class hours or outside the classroom due to teachers' lack of English competency; instead the Indonesian language was used most of the time; and language skills were presented separately as in traditional teaching. A similar study by Astika (1996) revealed that EFL teaching in primary schools was teacher-centred; more than half of the learning hour was taken by teachers to explain the lesson, to ask questions, to give instructions and to drill. Another study by Febriyanthi (2004) reported a similar finding, arguing that EFL teachers in primary schools were not creative; their teaching procedure followed the list of activities as presented in the course books with no attempt to improvise on the activities in the course books; and teachers were seen to be lacking confidence. Similarly, Suyanto (2004) reported that EFL practice in primary schools was too similar to that at the secondary level. Suyanto's findings highlighted several issues such as: EFL teaching in primary schools was carried out through the teaching of course books available in the market; teachers followed the methodology of the course books, and many teaching materials in these books did not match the local contexts; more than 80% of EFL teachers did not possess sufficient English proficiency and professional skills to model appropriate language; EFL teachers did not show sufficient skills to facilitate learning with media related to children's interests such as stories and songs; some did not know how to use flash cards for teaching. Teachers complained that they were not able to develop their teaching for several reasons, such as large class sizes, insufficiency of time, and expensive materials for creating relevant teaching media (see Suyanto, 2004, pp. 12-19). After Suyanto's study, from 2004 to the present time there has been no research publication investigating issues of English language teaching in primary schools in Indonesia; more specifically from 2004 to 2012 (the year the data of this study were collected) there was no study investigating the knowledge of teaching EFL teachers at the primary level in Indonesia.

At the secondary level, a study by Lie (2007) reported that the implementation of CLT in secondary schools in Indonesia during this period remained unsatisfactory (Lie, 2007). Lie (2007) examined several compulsory course books developed for the

implementation of the 1994 communicative competence curriculum. Her analysis concluded that the text books were not inclusive in terms of a gender, class, ethnic background, and geographical representation. She claimed that the text books could not provide students with relevant and meaningful materials as proposed in the principles of CLT (Lie, 2007). As the compulsory course books influenced EFL teachers' practice, as has been noted earlier, the study suggested that there were limitations to the way CLT was implemented at the secondary level.

2.4.4 Period 2004-2006

As shown in Figure 2.1 above, Indonesia has employed several approaches to EFL teaching, curriculum making and text book development in its history. During the period of 2004-2006, in addition to CLT, the Genre-Based Approach (GBA) was also introduced. The presence of the two approaches was evident in the way the language inputs were organised in the 2004 Curriculum. The documents of the 2004 Curriculum were organised according to competency standards, and their derivatives including basic competencies, indicators of achievement, and primary learning materials (Sidi & Boediono, 2004; Mendiknas, 2006b; Belen, 2010). The 2004 Curriculum integrated communicative competence in the areas of listening, speaking, reading and writing, as in the previous curriculum (Sidi & Boediono, 2004), and such a procedure was also adopted for the methodology of learning materials presentation in the course-books recommended for the curriculum. For example, the course books "Let's Talk" (Mustriana, Bima, & Kurniawati, 2005) organised EFL lessons according to the skills, essential to competent listening, speaking, reading and writing; each skill was presented in variety of text types. The major difference in these course-books "English for Junior Secondary School" and "English for Senior Secondary School from the previous ones," was the presentation of grammar points, which were presented inductively through various text types (Djunaedi, 1996; Sidi & Boediono, 2004). However, it has been argued that there was still a contradiction between the commitment to teach communicative competence (emphasised in the curricula) and teachers' practice in the classroom because of the insistence of the national examination that focused on the receptive skills at the secondary school level (Lie, 2007).

In a similar pattern to that in previous periods, research investigating EFL teachers' motivational factors and EFL teaching knowledge during this period was also

scarce. No research publication relating to the primary or the secondary school level could be accessed from the Indonesian literature.

2.4.5 Period 2006 to 2013

From 2006 to 2013, the Indonesian educational system implemented “Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan” known as KTSP (Mendiknas, 2007a). This curriculum shared some characteristics of a school-based curriculum. During this period EFL teachers were given increased control to develop themselves as EFL professionals. Based on the national curriculum guidelines provided by the central government, EFL teachers were given the authority to develop their own EFL syllabuses that would suit the characteristics of their individual schools. They were also given the authority to select resources such as course books to be used for curriculum implementation (Mendiknas, 2007a).

However, it has been argued that to develop an EFL syllabus and lesson plans based on the national curriculum guidelines was not a simple task for most of EFL teachers (Mendiknas, 2006c). To complete this task, teachers were required to analyse the social contexts of their individual schools (e.g., students’ needs and interests, the availability of learning materials and facilities, and funding) before they developed a syllabus (Mendiknas, 2006c). Therefore, this autonomy was said to have created additional demands for most subject teachers in Indonesia (Nuh, 2013). Because the task was administratively compulsory, many teachers spent more time on its completion rather than using the time to improve their teaching efficacy (Nuh, 2013); and most teachers instead of developing their own curriculum, just copied the syllabus model provided by the government or used syllabi from other schools in order to avoid issues during the official inspection (Nuh, 2013a). Another effect of this school-based approach was that textbook provision became an educational business for many teachers, school principals and publishers, which was often detrimental to both students and parents (Nuh, 2013).

The research for this thesis was conducted in 2012, at the end of the implementation of the KTSP and before the Government of Indonesia reformed the 2006 Curriculum and returned to the centralised national curriculum system in 2014. With this new policy, the curriculum, syllabus and course book development returned to the authority of the Curriculum Development Centre in Jakarta as in the previous

periods. The role of EFL teachers according to this system is to implement the mandated curriculum and the syllabus. Lesson plans following the guidelines of the curriculum are also provided by the Department of Education and Culture of Indonesia (Nuh, 2013a). Teachers and students are provided with compulsory EFL course books published by the governmental publishers for the curriculum implementation. The only change for EFL teaching at the primary level during this period was that the government published general guidelines for competency standards (Table 2.1) that could be used by EFL teachers in primary schools to design their syllabuses.

As in the previous periods, research investigating EFL teaching knowledge and motivational factors during this period is not evident in published form. There has not been a single study relating to EFL in primary school found in the Indonesian literature.

Table 2.1 Competency Standards for EFL Learning in Primary Schools

Listening:	To be able to understand instructions, information, and very simple stories delivered orally in the context of the classroom, school, and neighbourhood;
Speaking:	To be able to orally express the meaning in very simple interpersonal and transactional discourses in instructions and information in the context of the classroom, school, and neighbourhood;
Reading:	To be able to read aloud and understand the meaning of instructions, information, short functional text, and very simple descriptive picture texts presented in writing in the context of the classroom, school, and neighbourhood;
Writing:	To be able to write words, phrases, and very simple short functional text with spelling.

Adapted from Mendiknas (2006d, p. 19).

At the secondary level, there was a report from EFL teachers and EFL teacher educators compiled as a result of a meeting held by the association for Teaching English as a Foreign Language in Indonesia (TEFLIN) in October 2011 (Hamied, 2011). Although this report was not based on specific research, it presented the collective experiences of secondary EFL teachers from several regions, and could be used as a description of EFL practice at the secondary level in Indonesia. This report found that EFL pedagogy at the secondary level (SMP and SMA) in Indonesia during this period continued the teaching of the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) separated rather than integrating them into linguistic knowledge (grammar and vocabulary) as recommended

in the national curriculum with its communicative language teaching and genre-based approaches.

Linguistic terms used by the teachers were said to have created confusion for students (Hamied, 2011). It was also argued that the 2006 Curriculum had been interpreted by many EFL teachers in various ways with an over-emphasis on explaining the characteristics of each genre (e.g., recounts, descriptive, narratives, and so on) rather than for helping students understand the message delivered in the texts (Hamied, 2011).

In addition, the report suggested that the most fundamental issue of EFL teaching in Indonesia during this period was not the curriculum reform issue, but rather with the ability of the EFL teachers to translate the EFL teaching knowledge into practice. It was argued that EFL teachers' capacity was highly variable and insufficient to carry out teaching tasks in accordance with the procedure outlined in the approaches that underpinned the curriculum (Hamied, 2011). Therefore, at the secondary school level, the implementation of the recommended approaches to teaching at classroom level was not more effective than those in the previous periods. The EFL communicative syllabus was implemented as a grammar-based syllabus, because the examinations at the end of year 9 and year 12 were grammar-based, and head teachers demanded that students be prepared for examination. From year 7 students were tested every term and every year and the marks were reported to schools and parents. The test results did not impact on teaching as the next stage of the syllabus or course book would be tested in the next examinations. This report was consistent with Lie's (2007) view that as long as the national English examination centred on the receptive skills, it would never be easy for EFL teachers to depart from traditional instructions and teacher-centred teaching to a more communicative student-centred approach.

The study, which is the basis of this thesis, will serve to fill in gaps in the Indonesian research in terms of what is happening in primary classrooms. The section that follows will describe a pathway to the EFL profession in Indonesia.

2.5 EFL Teacher Education Programs in Indonesia

As described in Chapter 1, one of the key influences underpinning this study, is the issue of the apparent inappropriateness of the qualifications of secondary-trained EFL teachers for teaching English to children in primary schools. It became an issue of public concern (Musthafa, 2010). To assist with an understanding of the nature of the

issue, this section describes the content of the curriculum of the secondary EFL teacher education program in Indonesia.

In Indonesia, there are two pathways into the secondary EFL teaching profession – consecutive and concurrent systems. The consecutive system is offered in several LPTKs such as State University of Jakarta, State University of Malang, and Education University of Bandung. Within this system, EFL student teachers may determine to become EFL teachers in the latter part of their course by attending the “English Study Program”. Two specialisations are offered in this consecutive system: English Language and English Literature. The graduates of this program are awarded a degree similar to Bachelor of Arts in English (Zein, 2012). The program is an undergraduate course comprising 146 credits. Individuals graduating from the program acquire a foundation on aspects of English linguistics such as “phonology, syntax, morphology, and semantics and English literature (prose, poem, and drama)” (p. 86). A unit on teaching English to young learners (TEYL) is not included in such a program, but EFL teaching is studied within courses such as “Teaching English as a Foreign Language” (TEFL) and “Language Learning Assessment” (UNM, 2013, p. 3).

The second program, the concurrent system, prepares prospective EFL teachers to teach English to students of secondary school right from the initial semester of the study program. This can mean that prospective students entering the program have already decided to pursue a career in applied linguistics to become EFL teachers by the time they enrol in the program. The students of such programs undertake several 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 (UNM, 2013, p. 3), and are awarded a Bachelor of Education in English Language Teaching upon their graduation. Teachers graduating from such a program are presumed to acquire strong English language proficiency and knowledge of EFL teaching such as EFL curriculum and syllabus making, language testing and assessment, EFL teaching methods, teaching skills, and materials development (Zein, 2012).

The curriculum of the secondary EFL teacher education program (the concurrent system) follows the national guidelines provided by the Directorate General of Higher Education of Indonesia, the Decision of the Minister of National Education of Republic of Indonesia Number 045/U/2002, which consists of five broad domains including:

- 1) “Mata Kuliah Pengembangan Kepribadian” (MPK) consisting of courses of personal development;
- 2) “Mata Kuliah Keilmuan dan Keterampilan” (MKK), comprising courses of educational philosophy;
- 3) “Mata Kuliah Keahlian Berkarya” (MKB), courses of content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge;
- 4) “Mata Kuliah Prilaku Berkarya” (MPB), courses of educational research;
- 5) and “Mata Kuliah Berkehidupan Bermasyarakat” (MBB), a supervised teaching practice (Depdiknas, 2000, p. 3).

This guideline can be translated into a curriculum framework as shown in Table 2.2 below.

Table 2.2 Curriculum Framework of EFL Teacher Education

GROUPS/COURSES	NUMBER OF CREDITS
I. MPK COURSES	8
II. MKK COURSES	12
III. MKB COURSES	114
A. REQUIRED COURSES	100
1. English Language Skills	62
2. English Linguistics	8
3. English Literature	10
4. Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)	14
5. Research Components	6
B. ELECTIVE COURSES	14
IV. MPB COURSES	8
V. MBB COURSES	4
TOTAL	146

Source: (UNJA, 2014; UNM, 2013; UPI, 2013)

The framework in Table 2.2 is a representation of the curricula of three secondary EFL teacher education programs from three LPTKs in Indonesia including the State University of Malang (East Java), the Indonesia University of Education (West Java), and Jambi University (Middle Sumatra). These curricula have similar structures and content in their courses. The framework as shown in Table 2.2 is typical of the curricula in secondary EFL teacher education programs in Indonesia.

There are, however, differences in terms of where the teaching practice is placed and the provision of optional subjects offered by each institution, particularly in regard to the content knowledge. For example, the State University of Malang provided more optional units than the other two programs. An important note here is that while each curriculum does include a course about teaching English to young learners (TEYL), it is not a compulsory unit for prospective EFL teachers, and the number of credits available for this course is small (maximum 4 credits). The following provides a description of five groups of units included in these three programs.

MPK is a collection of general units that are characterised as dealing with Indonesian culture especially with regard to the moral and religious education. These courses are required in the curriculum of teacher education because teachers are seen not only as experts on their subject matter, but also as moral educators responsible to both their students and the wider community which they serve in Indonesia. Teachers are role models in the society in all aspects of life.

MKK is a collection of units dealing with general pedagogical philosophy, such as educational philosophy in the Indonesian socio-culture context, general pedagogy, the Indonesian education system, and learners' development in social contexts. All components of knowledge under the MKK form the basic theory of education in Indonesia.

MKB is a group of units that contains an integration of content knowledge and EFL pedagogical knowledge. Content knowledge includes knowledge of general English linguistics, the four aspects of language (listening-speaking and reading-writing), and English literature; while pedagogical knowledge includes teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL), EFL assessment, EFL curriculum study, EFL course book evaluation, and research in language teaching.

MPB is a group of units that provides EFL student teachers with research practice in language teaching. It contains proposal writing, information on conducting a research project and writing a research report compiled into a minor thesis as a final requirement for a degree in EFL teaching (equivalent to a BA in TESOL).

Finally, MBB is devoted to the unit called "Supervised Teaching Practice", in which prospective EFL teachers are placed in selected secondary schools to practise teaching English to secondary students supervised by selected lecturers and the EFL

teachers of host schools. The duration of the supervised teaching practice varies slightly depending on the individual LPTK policy; currently it takes six months of teaching experience at a minimum of three working days every week (UNJA, 2014).

The section that follows reviews elements of the EFL teaching knowledge in the curriculum of secondary EFL teacher education program in Indonesia which is the second focus of the current study. The include knowledge of learners, knowledge of subject matter and curriculum goals; and EFL teaching methods (UNM, 2013; UPI, 2013; UNJA 2014). These three areas assist prospective EFL teachers to develop a set of teaching strategies necessary for effective teaching in the classroom setting (Roberts, 1998; Tarone & Allwright, 2005). The importance of these areas has also been addressed by researchers in teaching general subjects. For example, Darling-Hammond, Bransford, and LePage (2005) argued that professional teachers need to learn “knowledge of learners and their development in social contexts; knowledge of subject matter and curriculum goals; and knowledge of teaching” (p. 11) in order to be able to develop a strong set of teaching strategies and material development to carry out effective practice in the classroom.

2.5.1 Knowledge of learners in the curriculum of the secondary EFL teacher education programs in Indonesia

The first area of teacher knowledge that is examined in this study is related to secondary-trained EFL teachers’ knowledge of children as language learners. This knowledge deals with the development of children in social contexts as the basis of effective teaching. In second language (L2) and foreign language (FL) teaching the importance of such knowledge has been highlighted by Tarone and Allwright (2005). Tarone and Allwright argued that to carry out effective L2/FL teaching in a classroom setting, teachers need an intimate understanding of L2 learners and their interests, needs and learning styles. Current theories of this area are discussed in Chapter 3.

In the curriculum of EFL teacher education programs in Indonesia, such knowledge is taught in two units: “Perkembangan Peserta Didik” (Learner Development) and “Belajar dan Pembelajaran” (Learning and Teaching). The first unit discusses general characteristics of child development, developmental tasks, and problems that may arise in the fulfilment of developmental tasks at different stages of

development ranging from childhood through adolescence, and their implications for teaching (UNM, 2013). The unit is compulsory for all student teachers studying at LPTKs; thus, it is not specifically designed for prospective EFL teachers.

The second unit “Learning and Teaching” deals with learning theories and their implications for teaching. Specifically, the unit provides prospective teachers with discussions of general theories of learning and teaching; learning styles; approaches and models of teaching; learning resources and instructional practice; and internal characteristics of learners (UNM, 2013). Like the first unit, this unit is compulsory for all prospective teachers studying at LPTKs; it is not specifically designed for preservice EFL teachers (UNM, 2013).

2.5.2 Content knowledge and curriculum goals in the curriculum of secondary EFL teacher education programs in Indonesia

The second area, which is examined in this study, is the knowledge of subject matter and curriculum goals of secondary-trained EFL teachers working in primary schools. This knowledge is central to effective teaching as argued by Grossman, Schoenfeld, and Lee (2005) who stated that “to argue that teachers need to know the subject matter knowledge they teach seems almost tautological” for how they can teach what they do not understand (p. 250).

In the field of EFL teaching, subject matter knowledge or content knowledge comprises two areas: knowledge about language (grammar and vocabulary) and language proficiency or communication skills in using the four aspects of language: listening, speaking, reading and writing (Richards, 2011). (This issue is addressed in detail in Chapter 4).

In Indonesia, there is no fixed standardisation of the level of content knowledge or fluency in the target language that EFL teachers should acquire to be an effective EFL teacher. However, Table 2.2 above shows that in the curriculum of secondary EFL teacher education programs, content knowledge covers three broad areas including: English linguistics, English language proficiency, and English literature. Content knowledge takes 80 credits (55 % of the total load 146 credits) of the EFL teacher curriculum content in Indonesia. With this number of credits, a student will study content knowledge of about 10 credits per week per semester. In Indonesia, one credit is equal to three hours of study: one hour for classroom study, one hour for individual

study, and one hour for individual/group work task per week per semester. Thus, in a four year intensive study in the EFL teacher education program (one semester consists of 16 academic weeks) the students of EFL teachers will have spent 3,840 hours (10 credits x 3 hours x 16 weeks x 8 semesters) studying English as the content knowledge required for teaching EFL to secondary students. In many LPTKs, prospective EFL teachers are also required to achieve an “advanced level” of English language proficiency as shown by 550 on the “Test of English as a Foreign Language” or TOEFL score (UNJA, 2014; UNM, 2013; M. T. UPI, 2013). This level is equivalent to 6.5 on the “International English Language Testing System” or ELTS (VEC, 2015).

Research in L1 acquisition suggests that it may take 12 years for a child to master the mother tongue to a level of fluency that can be used for academic purposes (Collier, 1989; McLaughlin, 1984). From birth through age 5, a child acquires a significant amount of first language phonology, vocabulary, grammar, semantics, and pragmatics, but language acquisition continues to evolve through the year of schooling. From ages six to twelve, children continue critical development in the first language. The complex skills of literacy understanding, including all the elements of grammar, continue to develop as students move through their stages of schooling (McLaughlin, 1984).

However, a current study on L2 learning by Eaton (2011), conducted in the United States of America (USA) suggested that 630-720 hours were needed to reach an intermediate level by an L2 learner within four years of continuous study. Based on this evidence, the number of hours (3,840) spent by Indonesian prospective EFL teachers for learning content knowledge of English plus the number of hours they spent in learning English during the secondary education (800 hours) (Dardjowidjojo, 2000) (which comes to a total of 4,640 hours) should be sufficient to reach the required level of English proficiency to teach the target language to primary or secondary school students effectively (see also Eaton, 2011, p. 10).

The next area related to subject matter knowledge is the understanding of curriculum goals. Teachers’ understanding of curriculum goals is important, because it provides guidance for them in designing their teaching plans and choosing appropriate teaching materials and strategies, learning activities and assessment tools. In the general teaching subjects, according to Darling-Hammond, Bransford, and LePage (2005), knowledge of curriculum includes understanding of: a) “the formal curriculum, topics

or concepts to be taught”; b) “the enacted curriculum, activities, materials, and assignments that teachers create as well as the interactions with students”; and c) “the hidden curriculum, the underlying goals and perceptions schools and teachers hold for students” (p. 170).

In the curriculum of the secondary EFL teacher education program in Indonesia, knowledge of curriculum is taught under the components of English language teaching theories. The unit is called “English Curriculum” generally providing prospective EFL teachers with curriculum theories and practice of EFL syllabus making and instructional materials development for secondary school students. Specifically, this unit provides preservice EFL teachers with theoretical and practical knowledge of syllabus design as a part of curriculum development for secondary schools. It also introduces preservice EFL teachers to practical activities of analysing and developing the syllabus content that are related to instructional materials and classroom teaching (UNJA, 2014; UNM, 2013; UPI, 2013).

2.5.3 Teaching knowledge in the curriculum of EFL teacher education programs in Indonesia

The third area, which is examined in the current study, is the participants’ language pedagogical knowledge. L2/FL teaching knowledge is complicated because, as noted above, content knowledge in language teaching comprises two broad elements: linguistics knowledge (grammar and vocabulary) and language proficiency, the ability to use the target language to communicate (communicative competence) in the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing). Many approaches to language teaching have attempted to explain how language teachers can assist language learners to acquire content knowledge effectively (see Table 2.3 below). Tarone and Allwright (2005) noted that knowledge for teaching L2/FL is different from knowledge for teaching general academic subjects. Such issues will be explored in Chapter 3 under the discussion of knowledge of teaching required by L2/FL teachers.

In the context of Indonesia, prospective EFL teachers are expected to acquire four competences or areas of knowledge including: professional, personal, social and pedagogical (Mendikbud, 2010a), and pedagogical knowledge of EFL teaching can be associated with pedagogical competence (Musthafa, 2013). Pedagogical competence is stipulated by government regulation through the Decree of Ministry of National Education number 16/2007 as comprising the following elements: “understanding

physical, moral, socio-cultural, emotional, and intellectual characteristics of learners; acquiring learning theories and proper instructional principles; developing subject-matter curriculum; developing instructional activities; using information and communication technology to develop instructional activities; facilitating the development of learners’ potential; communicating with learners effectively, empathetically, and politely; assessing and evaluating instructional processes and learning outcomes; making use of assessment and evaluation results for instructional purposes and reflecting on instructional outcomes to improve the teaching efficacy; along with other competences EFL teachers should develop these competences in accordance with the specific traits of the subject-matter content” (Sudibyo, 2007, p. 5).

Table 2.3 Syllabus of TEFL Course

Topics of Discussions	
• Grammar Translation Method	• Communicative Approach
• Direct Method	• Situational Language Teaching
• Audio-lingual method	• Whole Language
• Silent Way	• Multiple Intelligence
• Suggestopedia	• Lexical Approach
• Total Physical Response	• Planning EFL lessons
• Community Language Learning	• Other relevant topics

Source: Suherdi (2013, p. 2)

In the curriculum of secondary EFL teacher education programs, pedagogical knowledge of language teaching is integrated in units such as: “Teaching English as a Foreign Language” (TEFL), “Language Learning Assessment”, “Language Assessment Development”; “English Curriculum”, and “Course-Book Evaluation”. Among these units, TEFL seems to be the key source of pedagogical knowledge of language teaching. This unit includes discussions of the history of language teaching approaches; traditional and modern approaches in language teaching; theories of learning and theories of language underpinning those approaches; curriculum, syllabus and material development according to these different approaches; methods of teaching grammar, vocabulary, and the four skills; assessment; and teacher/students roles (Richards, 2011; Ur, 1996). Further discussion of pedagogical knowledge of EFL teaching is provided in Chapter 3. A TEFL course provides the opportunity for EFL student teachers to interpret language teaching theories and approaches into practice according to the context, conditions and objectives to be achieved at every level of education.

Another unit that supports pedagogical knowledge of EFL teachers in the curriculum of EFL teacher education programs is language assessment. In general, this unit covers theoretical concepts and practice of assessing students' EFL progress. It also discusses how to construct a variety of assessment devices based on principles of different approaches to language teaching for students of junior and senior high schools (UNJA, 2014; UNM, 2013; B. UPI, 2013). Specifically, the unit covers the concept of assessment in EFL teaching; methods, functions, types of language assessment tools, and statistics related to language assessment; and construction and analysis of language tests covering the criteria of a good and bad tests, scoring, and interpreting the results of a test (UNJA, 2014; UNM, 2013; M. T. UPI, 2013).

The last unit that supports pedagogical knowledge of EFL teachers in the curriculum of EFL teacher education programs in Indonesia is the course-book evaluation; it provides prospective EFL teachers with practical knowledge for selecting, adapting and developing TEFL materials for junior and senior high school students. It also provides prospective EFL teachers with analyses of the TEFL textbooks that are used for the curriculum in junior and senior high schools (UNJA, 2014; UNM, 2013; M. T. UPI, 2013).

The section that follows provides a short discussion of Islamic pedagogy in Indonesia. This is important, as noted, because in Indonesia, teachers are seen as moral as well as subject matter teachers and Islam is the predominant religion and source of values.

2.6 Islamic Pedagogy in Indonesia

As noted in section 2.2 above, Indonesia has 40,469 Islamic schools or 18.27% of the total schools in Indonesia. Such number excludes 570 Islamic universities. For this reason, it is important to discuss the content of Islamic education, which may influence motivational factors of EFL teachers in selecting a teaching career and the pedagogical knowledge they use in their practices. Indonesia is a democratic country and encourages a variety of religious practices and values but Islam constitutes the main religion. As noted earlier, the total population of Indonesia in 2010 reached 238 million and the number of adherents of Islam was 87 %, or about 207 million people.

The general concept of teaching and learning in Islam is derived from the word "tarbiyah" in the Quran meaning "education" (Kemenag, 2013). Tarbiyah comes from

the Arabic root “rabba” which means to educate, discipline, cultivate, and raise caringly (Al-Attas, 1977; Sabrin, 2010). Similar to western educational theory, Islamic pedagogy is also based on human cognitive development (Al-Khalediy, 2011; Sabrin, 2010; Winter, 1997). Ghazali (1993) described five stages of human development including: “al-Janin” (the womb period); “al-Thifl”(equal to primary education period); “al-Tamyis (equal to junior high school period); “al-Aqil” (equal to senior high school period); and “al-Awliya” (adulthood period) (p. 69). These stages shape teaching methods that are used for classroom practice (Al-Khalediy, 2011). Based on these development stages, Al-Khalediy (2011) proposed four teaching methods in Islamic education including repetition, narrating, debating, and symbolising. Repetition and narrating are used more to teach children at the primary level, while debating and symbolising are used to a great extent for older students (see Al-Khalediy, 2011 for details). The Islamic approach to teaching traditionally, is more teacher-centred than learner-centred.

In Islamic education, teachers have a noble duty. They are responsible not only for transmitting knowledge to their students, but also for developing their students’ noble characters. Teachers nurture students and develop their spiritual and moral awareness, their personal lives, beliefs, and character; moral integrity is as important as their academic expertise (Ghazali, 1993). In Islamic teaching, teachers are encouraged to develop a mutual relationship with their students based on mutual love and respect. Ghazali (1993) argued that a person has three parents: “one who begot him, another who fostered him, and a third who educated him, and the last is the best of all” (p. 69), and according to Ghazali (1993) teachers have to treat their students as their own children, and students should consider their teachers as their own parents.

2.7 Summary

This chapter has addressed the context of the current study and expanded the discussion of the key influences introduced in Chapter 1 that influenced the development of this research. The chapter has provided a brief review of the national education system of Indonesia; a chronological view of the curriculum and approaches to EFL teaching in Indonesia; a description of pedagogical knowledge of secondary-trained EFL teachers acquired during the study of EFL teacher education programs; and Islamic pedagogy. All of these aspects may have an impact on motivational factors of EFL teachers to select the teaching profession, and may influence the pedagogy of these

teachers. The next chapter provides a review of the literature related to the research foci: motivational factors that influence individuals to select an EFL teaching career and the knowledge base of teaching of L2/FL required by language teachers to teach L2/FL learners.

**CHAPTER 3 LITERATURE REVIEWS:
Motivational Factors to Select Teaching**

3.1 Introduction

As has been explained, the current research investigated the phenomenon of Indonesian secondary-trained EFL teachers who come to teach English in primary schools. To understand this phenomenon, I have reviewed related literature which I discuss over two chapters. Chapter 3 deals with “Motivational Factors to Select a Teaching Career” and Chapter 4 reviews “EFL Teaching and Learning”. This chapter, therefore, deals with the literature review relevant to the motivational factors that led secondary-trained EFL teachers to enter secondary EFL teacher education programs and to work in primary schools after completing their EFL education studies, while the following chapter discusses the EFL teaching knowledge EFL teachers need for teaching English to young learners. The areas of knowledge reviewed in the literature chapters are summarised in Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1 Contents of Literature Review Chapters

Literature Review Chapters	Contents
Chapter 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Motivational factors in choosing teaching, • Motivational factors in choosing the EFL teaching profession
Chapter 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowledge of learners of primary EFL teachers • Content knowledge of primary EFL teachers • Curriculum knowledge of primary EFL teachers • Strategies for teaching EFL to primary children • Classroom management of primary EFL teachers • Assessing children’s progress in EFL learning

As has been argued, the investigation of motivational factors that led secondary-trained EFL teachers to come to work in primary schools is important, because such factors may affect their EFL teaching efficacy and EFL students’ learning motivation and achievement (Dörnyei, 2001). It has been noted that research has continuously shown that motivations for teaching have a positive correlation to students’ achievement (e.g., McKinney, 2000; Adeyinka, Asabi, & Adedotun, 2013). Darling-Hammond, Bransford, et al. (2005) argued that intrinsic motivational factors are more powerful than extrinsic motivations in enabling teachers to be life-long professionals. Intrinsic motivation encourages teachers to monitor evaluate and improve their teaching efficacy.

The topic of motivation for teaching is relevant to the Indonesian context, as the government of Indonesia is currently attempting to improve the quality of EFL teaching at all levels of schooling (Widodo & Riandi, 2013). As has been argued in an earlier chapter, EFL achievement of Indonesian students as shown by the annual national examination is always below expectations of parents and educators. Therefore, the study of EFL teachers' motivational factors to choose the EFL teaching profession is relevant to understanding and addressing this issue. In addition, such studies are rare in Indonesia; hence, this research will fill this gap and contribute to a more in-depth understanding of EFL teachers in Indonesia.

To this end, the literature focusing on motivational factors that influence people in selecting a teaching career has been reviewed. As Indonesia is a developing country, I compare relevant studies conducted both in developed and developing countries to ascertain the different factors involved in shaping individuals' motivational factors in selecting teaching. The chapter is divided into two sections: motivational factors in choosing teaching, and the motivational factors influencing the choice of EFL teaching.

3.2 Motivational Factors to Choose Teaching

Motivation is a broad term. Traditionally, motivation has been defined as what initiates, withstands and focuses behaviour (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). "To be motivated means to be moved to do something" (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 54). Individuals who have no desire to do something are characterised as unmotivated, while those who are eager to act toward an end are considered motivated (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Motivation has its roots in physiological, behavioural, cognitive, and social areas. It also originates from specific physical needs such as eating, sleeping or resting, and so on (Ryan & Deci, 2000a).

In the professional field, motivation has generally been defined as "a set of energetic forces that originate both within as well as beyond an individual's being, to initiate work-related behaviour and to determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration" (Latham & Pinder, 2005, p. 486). In the teaching profession, literature traditionally distinguishes motivational factors into three types: intrinsic motives, extrinsic motives and altruistic motives (Yong, 1995; Kyriacou & Benmansour, 1999; Reeve, Bolt, & Cai, 1999; Ryan & Deci, 2000a). Intrinsic motivational factors refer to the factors that drive a person to select teaching because they see teaching as inherently

interesting or enjoyable (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). Such factors include “aspects of the teaching activity itself and an interest in using the subject matter knowledge and the expertise” (Kyriacou & Benmansour, 1999, p. 69). Extrinsic motivational factors refer to those that lead to separable outcomes of teaching such as long holidays, salary, and social status (Kyriacou & Benmansour, 1999; Ryan & Deci, 2000a). Finally, altruistic factors “deal with seeing teaching as a socially worthwhile and important job such as having a desire to help children succeed, and a desire to help society improve” and so forth (Kyriacou & Benmansour, 1999, p. 69). Based on these traditional classifications, Watt and Richardson (2012) conceptualised a framework of “factors influencing teaching choice” (henceforth, FIT-Choice) to understand motivational factors that inspire individuals to select a teaching career. The “FIT-Choice” comprises “socialisation influences”, “task demand and task return”, “self-perceptions”, “intrinsic, personal utility, and social utility values”, and “fallback career” (p. 187). Watt and Richardson (2012) described the “FIT-Choice” (p. 187) as in Figure 3.1 below.

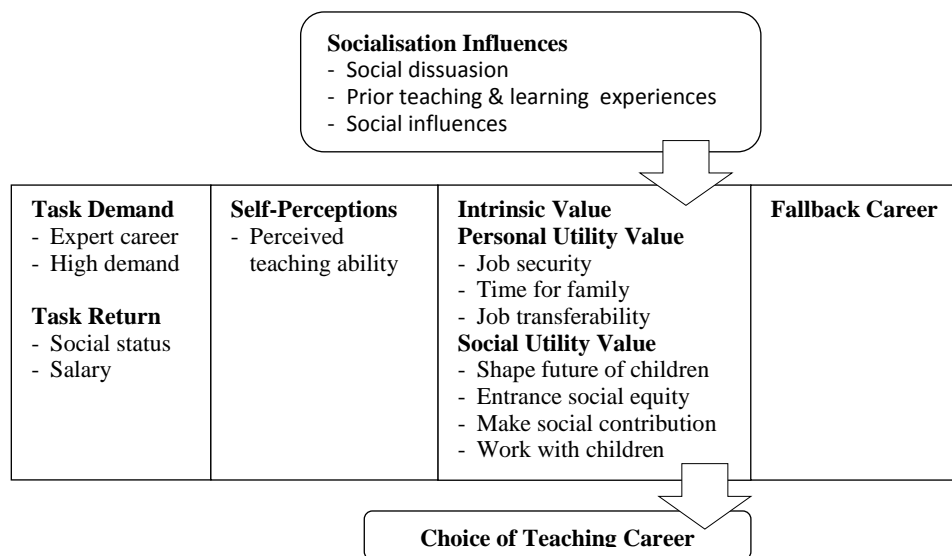


Figure 3.1 The FIT-Choice

Adapted from Watt and Richardson (2012, p. 187)

Richardson and Watt (2006) used this framework to study motivational factors of 1,653 preservice teachers from teacher education programs in three Australian universities. They found that the most rated motivational factors in selecting teaching among Australian prospective teachers were their own “perceived teaching abilities”, “the intrinsic value of teaching”, and “their desire to make a social contribution”, “shape the future”, and “work with children/adolescents” (Richardson and Watt, 2006, p. 45).

Based on these findings Richardson and Watt (2006) argued that a claim that was often made by the media and the public that teaching is a fallback career for Australians was not supported by the research evidence. Similar findings (not using the FIT-choice framework) were found in a study by Manuel and Hughes (2006) in Australia. Manuel and Hughes (2006) found that intrinsic and altruistic motivational factors such as “personal fulfilment”, “enjoyment of subject”, “working with young people”, “lifestyle”, “working conditions” and “professional status” are the most influential motivational factors that affect Australian prospective teachers in selecting teaching (p. 10). Manuel and Hughes (2006) also found that the majority of the respondents aimed to work for at least ten years in teaching.

In addition to the Australian context, the above framework has been widely used by other researchers to study motivational factors that influenced an individual’s decision to choose the teaching profession in countries such as in Turkey (Kılınc et al., 2012), in the United State of America and China (Lin, Shi, Wang, Zhang, & Hui, 2012), in Netherlands (Fokkens-Bruinsma & Carrinus, 2012), in Croatia (Jugović et al., 2012) and in Germany and Switzerland (König & Rothland, 2012; Richardson & Watt, 2012). A review of these studies indicated that different motivational factors are at play in developed and developing countries. Some of these studies will be considered in the following discussion.

3.2.1 Motivational Factors to Choose Teaching in Developed Countries

In developed countries, it has been revealed that there has been a tendency for teachers to choose the teaching profession for altruistic or intrinsic rather than extrinsic motives; whereas in developing countries in Asia or Africa extrinsic or altruistic motives seem to be more important than intrinsic factors.

In developed countries such as in U.S.A, altruistic motivational factors such as to have a positive impact on students’ lives, to work with children, to shape the future, and to contribute to the society are the highly rated factors for preservice teachers in choosing teaching as a profession (Hayes, 1990; Young, 1995). For example, Young (1995) argued that talented students selected teaching as a profession generally for altruistic reasons, had realistic expectations of working conditions, and many planned to persist in teaching if they derived satisfaction from working with students. This finding is consistent with the latest research reported in a study by Lin et al. (2012) in the

American context. Lin et al. (2012) reported that in the United States, altruistic motives such as “shaping the future of children/ adolescents” and “making social contributions” (social utility values) (p. 237) are the most strongly reported kinds of motivation for choosing teaching as a career. They argue that these findings resonate with many research studies that report similar motivational factors for selecting the teaching profession in some other countries (e.g., Yarger, Howey, & Joyce, 1977; Zimpher, 1989; Su, 1993; Moran et al., 2001; Kyriacou et al., 2003; Gourneau, 2005; Richardson & Watt, 2006; Kyriacou & Kunc, 2007; Liu, 2010).

Papanastasiou and Papanastasiou (1997) compared the motivational factors that influenced prospective primary school teachers at the Pennsylvania State University and the University of Cyprus in selecting the teaching profession. They found that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors were influential for their respondents in selecting teaching as a career. The Pennsylvania State University students were influenced by intrinsic motives, such as the love of teaching and children, in selecting a primary teacher education program. Data analyses showed that they strongly disagreed with extrinsic motivational factors such as high salaries, a secure job, or long vacations. On the other hand, the respondents from the University of Cyprus were greatly influenced by extrinsic motivational factors such as guaranteed teaching positions upon graduation, pension service, or sick leave offered to teachers in Cyprus.

Similar findings were revealed in other studies. The motivational factors of 200 preservice teachers from Canada and Oman were compared in a study by Klassen et al. (2011). The results showed that “Canadian participants made more self-references, and expressed higher levels of individual-focused motivation and social utility value as career motivators than did Omani participants” (Klassen, et al., 2011, p. 579). Omani student teachers showed “greater endorsement of teaching as a fallback career and higher levels of sociocultural influences than Canadian participants” (Klassen, et al., 2011, p. 579). The above studies suggest that extrinsic motivations are less evident in developed countries such as the United States and Canada than in less developed countries such as Oman and Cyprus.

A similar tendency to that in the United States and Canada was also found in the European context such as in England, Germany, The Netherlands, Croatia, and Norway. In Germany and all German-speaking countries, altruistic factors such as a wish to work with children/adolescents were dominant motives influencing individuals in choosing a

teaching career (König & Rothland, 2012). In The Netherlands, Fokkens-Bruinsma and Canrinus (2012) also reported that the main motives for individuals in selecting teaching were altruistic factors. Altruistic motivational factors such as “teaching ability, working with children, prior teaching and learning experiences, and time for family, as well as satisfaction with the choice of teaching and perceived task demand” (Richardson & Watt, 2012, p. 194) were important factors that were given by the research respondents in the Netherlands. In Northern Ireland, research findings have shown that (similar to research findings in the United States), prospective teachers were interested in selecting teaching as a career mainly for intrinsic reasons, although to a certain extent, extrinsic motivational factors also emerged from the research data (Moran, Kilpatrick, Abbott, Dallat, & McClune, 2010). A similar tendency to that found in England, the United States, and Northern Ireland was also found in Croatia. Jugović et al. (2012) argued that personality traits related to intrinsic motivational factors outranked extrinsic factors for teachers choosing the teaching profession in Croatia. Finally, a study in Turkey also revealed that altruistic factors related to social utility values were paramount to the choice of a teaching career, closely followed by extrinsic statements such as teaching was a secure job. As noted, in the Turkish context, job security was a compelling motivator emphasised by many participants, especially those from lower socioeconomic backgrounds. It was argued that parents who were not able to provide a high standard of living for their families would encourage their children to choose careers such as teaching that provided a high level of job security (Kılınc et al., 2012). In short, studies in European countries showed that prospective teachers in many countries, in particular those from affluent backgrounds tended to select teaching based on altruistic or intrinsic motivations.

3.2.2 Motivational Factors to Choose Teaching in Developing Countries

Research investigating a teacher’s motivation to choose the teaching profession in developing countries such as in Asia and Africa are rare. However, the few studies that emerged from literature in China (Zhao, 2008; Lin et al., 2012), in Malaysia (Harun, 2006), in Brunei (Yong, 1995), in Malawi (Mtika & Gates, 2011), in Zimbabwe, and Cameroon (Yong, 1995) showed that teachers chose the teaching profession based on extrinsic or altruistic rather than intrinsic motivations. This finding contrasted significantly with the findings in the developed countries as discussed above.

Lin et.al (2012) reported two major findings about motivational factors for choosing the teaching profession in China. First, altruistic factors such as “shaping the future of children/adolescents” and “making a social contribution” (p. 237) or social utility values) were the strongest motivations of prospective teachers to choose the teaching profession in China. Second, extrinsic factors such as a secure job and time for family were considered as important motivations. Similarly, in Malaysia research indicated that, altruistic motives were paramount. The influence of family was ranked as the number one factor (48%) that influenced prospective Malaysian teachers to take teaching as a career, followed by factors such as liking teaching (36%), liking children (24%), having more time for family (24%), and job satisfaction (20%) (Harun, 2006). In Brunei, it was reported that the students’ motives in choosing a teaching career were dominated by extrinsic factors. Among the reasons “no other choice” ranked the first and “influence of others” ranked the second. Intrinsic motives such as “ambition to become a teacher” ranked the third and “the opportunity for academic development” was the fourth. Altruistic motives such as “like working with children” ranked fifth. This finding suggested that the major motivational factors for selecting the teaching profession in Brunei were extrinsic motives (Yong, 1995).

Similarly, in other developing countries such as Jamaica, Zimbabwe, Cameroon and Malawi extrinsic motives were more dominant than intrinsic and altruistic ones in influencing individuals to enter the teaching profession. Evans (1993) found that 55% of a sample of Jamaican teachers chose to be a teacher for extrinsic reasons rather than intrinsic or altruistic reasons. Yong (1995) concluded that in Zimbabwe and Cameroon benefits, such as job security and salaries, were the main factors that influenced people to choose teaching. Yong (1995) also found that the extrinsic motivational factors of preservice teachers for selecting teaching in such countries encouraged their long-term commitment to teaching. In Malawi, a study by Mtika and Gates (2011) found similar reasons for prospective teachers in choosing teaching as well as: failure to pursue a desired career, step to another profession, and having an occupation. In addition, the study revealed a range of perspectives held by trainee teachers concerning teaching such as: the ability to enhance knowledge, low salaries, and low status profession. In Egypt, extrinsic motives were also identified as important factors for individuals in choosing teaching. A study by Ghenghesh (2013) highlighted that extrinsic factors such as pay or salary were the main motivations for over 50% teachers in selecting teaching as a career in Egypt.

In Indonesia, research investigating motivational factors that influenced teachers to enter the teaching profession was not found in the review of literature. The present study is important in filling this gap. In Indonesia, teaching is often viewed by the public as a fallback career (Wiharyanto, 2004; Rumongso, 2013). Students who enter LPTKs are those who failed to enter their desired study programs such as economics, law and science at leading universities (Wiharyanto, 2004; Rumongso, 2013). Students enrolling in education faculties are often viewed as not as smart as those studying in several leading study programs, such as technological sciences, management, accounting, computer science, and mathematics (Rumongso, 2013).

In addition, the teaching profession is identified as offering low salaries compared to those offered in private business, banks or state-owned enterprises (Rumongso, 2013). This leads to the teaching profession not being considered by children from wealthy backgrounds. However, a significant advantage of the teaching profession perceived by students is the status of a teacher as a civil servant, which means a secure job and one that allows more time for family and vacations compared to other professions. Therefore, the teaching profession is more likely to be considered by children from families with a low income such as farmers, fishers or small traders (Wiharyanto, 2004). In summary, to become a teacher means becoming a state employee who will be guaranteed a permanent job, regular salary, pensions, health care service, and a better social status in the community (Rumongso, 2013). On the other hand, people from a high income backgrounds e.g., high-ranking officials, businessmen, artists, bank employees, and politicians are not interested in encouraging their children to study in LPTKs, as they want to keep or improve their children's social status in the eyes of the public (Rumongso, 2013).

Allegedly, there are several issues that may make teaching a fallback career in Indonesia. First, it is believed that the government's rewarding of the teaching profession is relatively low; teachers have not been paid according to the value and amount of work they do (Rumongso, 2013). However, since the monetary reward for the teaching profession has been gradually improved (e.g., by providing an allowance through the teacher certification program provided since 2007) it seems that the teaching profession has an increased status. A survey of secondary school graduates in Padang City conducted by *Kompas* on 19 and 20 November 2008 showed the largest number of the respondents (29.5%) rated the teaching profession as a first choice profession. Many believe that this may have been influenced by the increase in teaching

remuneration (Rumongso, 2013). This number was larger than the aspiration to become a doctor or midwife which formed the second largest number of respondents. However, the relationship between the teacher certification program and the increasing interest of individuals in becoming teachers and the social economic backgrounds of parents of the respondents has not been investigated (Wiharyanto, 2004; Budiarti, 2013).

The second factor, which makes teaching a fallback-career, is the issue of placement. Indonesian regions are divided into three categories: developed, developing and remote. Remote areas, such as villages, islands, or mountains are not favoured places to work. People are reluctant to become teachers, because they do not want to be assigned by the Ministry of National Education to work in such remote places that are usually short of public facilities, transportation, infrastructure and learning facilities. Such conditions often force teachers to leave the teaching profession (Wiharyanto, 2004; Budiarti, 2013). Many have proposed that to encourage people to choose the teaching profession in Indonesia, the government needs to improve the welfare of the teacher work force and develop schools and learning facilities in remote areas (Wiharyanto, 2004; Budiarti, 2013).

3.2.3 Summary

In summary, for general subject teachers, the current literature on teachers' motivation to select teaching as a profession shows a range of interrelated factors. In developed countries (e.g., the United States, Australia, United Kingdom, Germany and other European countries) it seems that individuals tend to choose a teaching career because of altruistic or intrinsic motives, whereas in developing countries (e.g., Zimbabwe, Cameroon, Malawi, Brunei, and Egypt) motives tend to be extrinsic or altruistic rather than intrinsic. In Indonesia, the available evidence, which is limited, suggests that the interest in becoming a teacher is still low; teaching is seen as a fallback career. Factors such as salary, placement and assignments in remote areas are often associated with motivational factors for not choosing teaching as a profession. The section that follows will review teachers' motivations to choose the EFL profession related to questions 1 and 2 as posed in this study.

3.3 Motivations to Choose EFL Teaching

In their everyday practice, L2 and FL teachers are located in classrooms “where communication is co-authored with students and the professional motivation of the

teachers assumes a vital importance” (Igawa, 2009, p. 203) influencing the nature of classroom interactions. One of the important roles of a teacher is as a model (Roberts, 1998); therefore, a lack of motivation of teachers can cause a negative impact on student motivation. The teacher is the key to what happens in the classroom. Bruner (1996) argued, “You cannot teacher-proof a curriculum any more than you can parent-proof a family” (p. 64). However, there has been limited research on L2 teachers’ motivational factors, specifically. Hayes (2008) reported that research studies investigating what motivates non-native speakers to choose an EFL teaching career are still rare.

In the few studies emerging from the literature, it is seen that in language teaching, individuals’ motivational factors to learn an L2 are often explained using two sets of conceptions: instrumental and integrative motivation (Gardner, 1985), and intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Ryan and Deci, 2000a). These concepts were redefined by Richards (2003) as an instrumental motivation (learning an L2 for the realistic advantages it offers); an integrative motivation (learning an L2 to communicate with its native speakers as well as to learn their cultural values); an intrinsic motivation (learning an L2 to enjoy language learning itself); and extrinsic motivation (learning an L2 because of external motivational factors such “as parental pressure”, “societal expectations”, “academic requirements or other sources of rewards or punishment”) (Richards, 2003, p. 14).

With such concepts, many L2 professionals advocate a learner-centred approach to encourage classroom practices to provoke learners’ intrinsic motivational factors. For example, Brown (2001) stated:

Intrinsically motivated activities are ones for which there is no apparent reward except the activity itself. People seem to engage in the activities for their own sake and not because they lead to an extrinsic reward... Intrinsically motivated behaviours are aimed at bringing about certain internally rewarding consequences, namely, feelings of competence and self-determination (p. 41).

According to McDonough (2007) the motivation in L2 or EFL teaching is “what moves individuals to act to learn and/or to teach the target language” (p. 369). Moreover, McDonough discussed four (4) aspects of motivational factor including: “the motives of why individuals desire to learn; the strength of their desire to learn; the types

of person they are; and the task and their estimation of what it requires of them” (p. 369).

A study by Nott (1992) investigated factors motivating students in choosing to teach modern foreign languages in the UK. The study listed (in order of the importance) five reasons for the participants such as “enjoyment of teaching”, “contact with young people”, “job satisfaction”, “colleagues”, and “love of the subject” (Nott, 1992, p. 28). The finding of this study is consistent with findings on the same issue in general studies of motivation for teaching in the European context discussed earlier, with an emphasis on factors such as the enjoyment of teaching and contact with young people which are intrinsic and altruistic motives.

A study by Kyriacou and Benmansour (1999) investigated motivational factors that influenced preservice teachers in selecting teaching a foreign language in Morocco and the UK. The participants of the study included 83 Moroccan preservice EFL teachers and 69 preservice French teachers in the UK.

The researchers required the sample to complete a questionnaire to rank the 22 reasons that influenced their choice. The participants gave the four highest rated motives for their decision including “I enjoy the subject I will teach”, “I want to help children succeed”, “language is important to me”, and “I like the activity of classroom teaching” (Kyriacou & Benmansour, 1999, p. 71). The finding of the study revealed that the majority of the sample was influenced by intrinsic or altruistic motivational factors in their decision to choose foreign language teaching as a career. In addition, the study also revealed a number of interesting similarities between the two groups, which the researchers believed reflected issues of the cultural values and circumstances that are relevant to foreign language teaching in the United Kingdom and Morocco. For example, more than 45 percent of the participants of both groups rated the statements: “it helps pupils become more internationally minded” and “it enables me to be involved in the culture of another county” as very important reasons in their decision to become L2 teachers. The researchers argued that this could describe a picture of preservice foreign language teachers as having an authentic interest in the culture of other people and viewing the teaching of an L2 as contributing a significant impact to international education (Kyriacou & Benmansour, 1999).

Similarly, in China, research suggested that intrinsic motives seem dominant compared to extrinsic ones for individuals to choose the EFL teaching profession. A small-scale study by Zhao (2008) suggested that prospective EFL teachers chose the EFL teaching profession because of four main reasons including “by default”, “enjoying the subject they teach”, “teaching provides job security”, and “having influence on people”.

The category “by default” includes motives of the participants who chose the EFL teaching profession because they did not make a conscious decision to do so. For example, teaching was not a purely personal decision of the participants (e.g., influence or decision of parents or failure to study the desired course because of some external circumstances). However, the study revealed, once participants became EFL teachers, their motivations changed; most of them showed intrinsic motivational factors after entering the teaching profession.

The factor “enjoying the subject” refers to the motive of participants who possess aspects of intrinsic motivation for choosing EFL teaching career. Zhao (2008) reported that the majority of the seventeen participants conveyed their high interest in English and the culture of native speakers of English (although with limited exposure to either). These participants viewed the language as a means to learn about the globalised world. They also believed that English proficiency would facilitate them to gain a variety of jobs such as an interpreter (Zhao, 2008). In addition, the study also revealed that many Chinese EFL teachers wanted to help children and contribute to the advancement of education in the country. Their intrinsic motive to educate children was part of their occupational goal and job satisfaction. This finding was similar to what was found in developed countries such as in the US and Australia as discussed in an earlier section. Beside intrinsic motivational factors, the study also revealed the presence of an extrinsic motive in some people who wanted to become EFL teachers because teaching was viewed as a secure job in China. Zhao (2008) argued that, in China, people preferred to look for a profession, which they considered secure, even though they had the opportunity to enter other professions that could satisfy their interest and motivations.

Similarly, in Thailand, intrinsic motives tended to be mixed with extrinsic ones in choosing an EFL teaching career. A study by Hayes (2008) investigated motives of Thai EFL teachers working in government schools. Hayes (2008) categorised

participants' motivational factors into three classifications following Huberman (1993) including active (equivalent to intrinsic), material (equivalent to extrinsic) and passive (equivalent to altruistic). Hayes' (2008) study suggested that three participants (Arunee, Ladda and Naraporn) had "active motivations". Other participants (Orapan and Suthee) had both active and "material motivations" (mix of intrinsic and extrinsic) (p. 472). The last two participants (Sasikarn and Sudarat) had passive motivations (altruistic). Sasikarn chose teaching, because she was influenced by her teacher models, and Sudarat entered the teaching profession because her mother forced her to choose teaching, although it was against her will. However, as an obedient child in a traditional society, she obeyed her parents although without any real interest. Overall, this small scale study suggested that in Thailand, intrinsic motives may have a greater influence on individuals in choosing the EFL teaching profession than that of extrinsic or altruistic ones.

Igawa (2009) compared prospective teachers' motivation to choose the EFL teaching profession from three different countries, Japan, Cambodia, and the USA. The findings of the study indicated that the reason these students chose EFL teaching seemed to be more intrinsic and altruistic than extrinsic. The study revealed that the most highly rated reasons for the Japanese participants were: "I liked English" (51.9%); "easy for women to be and continue to be English teachers" (18.5%); and "to support students" (14.8%) (Igawa, 2009, p. 201). For Cambodian participants the most highly rated motives were: "I like teaching" (40.8%); "to contribute to society" (38.8%); "university major" (34.7%); "I like English" (36.7%); whereas for the American samples the motives were: "to contribute to society" (50%); "I like teaching" (47%); "I like English" (41%) (Igawa, 2009, p. 201). This finding is consistent with the findings of relevant research about the EFL teachers carried out in the developed countries discussed earlier. The relevant studies discussed above suggested that in developing countries (such as in Morocco, China, Thailand and Cambodia) intrinsic and altruistic motivational factors seemed dominant compared to extrinsic ones in influencing individuals to choose the EFL teaching profession. This finding differs from the motivational factors that influenced people in developing countries to choose to become teachers of general subjects as described in the previous section.

In Indonesia, research investigating teachers' motivation in choosing the EFL teaching profession is rarely found in the literature. However, a study by Yuwono and Harbon (2010), which investigated EFL teachers' professionalism also discussed some

issues related to EFL teachers' motivation. This study revealed that intrinsic and altruistic motives predominantly influenced EFL teachers in choosing the teaching profession, similar to findings emerging from studies in China and Thailand as discussed above. This study suggested that the majority of participants chose the EFL teaching profession because they loved the profession. Although some participants regarded teaching as a fallback career before they entered the profession, they became intrinsically motivated after they entered the EFL teaching profession. A motivational factor related to the religion of the participants also emerged from the data. Some EFL teachers who worked in religious schools (Islamic and Protestant) stated that teaching was one of their religious duties; they stated that their reason for entering the profession in the first place was that it was one that fits with their duty to serve people.

Yuwono and Harbon (2010) reported that the Muslim EFL teachers viewed teaching as a noble profession, which was recommended to every Muslim. Sayings of the Prophet that encourage Muslim people to choose teaching as a career are found in Islamic instructional texts. For example, "Be a teacher or a student, and if you are unable to do so, then love them (teachers and students) and do not bear hatred and malice against them" (Haythami, 1934), or "Those who teach people to do good deeds (with his/her knowledge) will be rewarded as much as that gained by people who follow him, without the slightest (Muslim, 2013). Based on these sayings, in Islamic belief, teaching is a recommended vocation for Muslims and teachers are promised unlimited rewards from God in the hereafter. Thus, for Muslim EFL teachers, teaching is not only a profession but also a religious mission through which they can please Allah. Through teaching, not only can they fulfil financial necessities but they can also achieve spiritual satisfaction (Yuwono & Harbon, 2010).

Similarly, Christian EFL teachers revealed that teaching fulfils their ministry duties as Christians for serving and loving others, particularly the marginalised. It was the main reason for them to choose the teaching profession as a career. Thus, once they decided to choose the teaching profession, they had to work hard and show a total commitment and professionalism in order to please God (Yuwono & Harbon, 2010). Although this study was conducted in secondary schools, the results are relevant to the current study investigating the motivational factors of secondary-trained EFL teachers in Indonesia in choosing to work in primary schools after completing secondary EFL teacher education programs.

3.4 Summary

This section has discussed motivational factors that influenced individuals to enter the teaching profession. Research showed that in developed countries, the tendency was for intrinsic and altruistic reasons to be dominant factors for individuals to choose a teaching career, while in developing countries, extrinsic followed by altruistic factors dominated. Research investigating motivational factors that lead non-native speakers to choose the EFL teaching profession is rare. The number of studies in this area is less than those for other subject areas. However, the few studies that emerged from literature showed that in developing countries individuals choose the EFL teaching profession because of intrinsic rather than extrinsic or altruistic motives. This seemed in contrast with what the research revealed about the motivational factors that influenced individuals in selecting teaching in the developing countries, which were more extrinsic or altruistic rather than intrinsic.

This study, conducted in Indonesia, one of the developing countries in Southeast Asia, will enrich knowledge in the field of motivational factors that encourage people to become EFL teachers at the primary school level. As discussed at the beginning of this section, motivational factors are significant to the success of EFL teachers in teaching English to children in the classroom setting. Therefore, this study will contribute useful information to achieve such success. The chapter that follows provides a brief review of elements of EFL teaching knowledge required by EFL teachers as proposed by EFL experts and researchers.

CHAPTER 4 LITERATURE REVIEWS:

EFL Teaching and Learning

4.1 Introduction

This literature review chapter includes a discussion of the EFL teaching knowledge required by EFL teachers who work with students of primary schools in helping them learn English as a foreign language. The three main issues that are central foci of this section are:

- Teachers' knowledge of children;
- content knowledge and knowledge of curriculum goals of EFL teaching in primary schools; and
- knowledge of EFL methods appropriate for teaching young language learners EFL.

These three areas of knowledge are basic components of the knowledge base of EFL teaching needed by EFL teachers in order to teach English in primary schools. Similar categories of knowledge have also been identified as important for teaching of general subjects and have been the object of educational research designed to create an effective methodology for classroom practice (Darling-Hammond, Bransford, et al., 2005).

It is useful to relate the EFL teaching knowledge of the secondary-trained EFL teachers discussed in Chapter 2, with what is described here as needed to teach English to primary school students. This section addresses the similarities and differences of the EFL teaching knowledge required by EFL teachers who teach English at the secondary level with that needed and at the primary school level; as such it provides insights as to what may be necessary for secondary trained EFL teachers to learn in order to teach English effectively to primary –age children in classrooms.

4.2 EFL Teaching Knowledge

The knowledge base required to effectively teach any subject matter has been widely debated. Teacher educators have endeavoured to formulate the knowledge required by teachers based on research evidence. For general subject matter teachers, Shulman's (1986, 1987) proposal has become the most quoted source for educational researchers and teacher educators. Shulman's conceptual framework of the knowledge base for teaching has also impacted on the development of the EFL teaching knowledge.

In this section important components of the knowledge base required by teachers, which becomes the basis for the formulation of EFL teaching knowledge, are discussed.

Shulman (1987) proposed a set of knowledge for teaching comprising six types of knowledge including “content knowledge”, “general pedagogical knowledge”, “pedagogical content knowledge”, “curriculum knowledge”, “knowledge of the learner”, and “knowledge of educational goals and their philosophical bases” (Shulman, 1997, p. 8).

Based on Shulman’s proposal and current research evidence in education, Darling-Hammond, Bransford, and LePage (2005) proposed a framework consisting of three broad components of knowledge for teaching including “knowledge of learners and their development in social contexts; knowledge of subject matter and curriculum goals; and knowledge of teaching (teaching subject matter, teaching diverse learners, classroom management, assessment)” (p. 11).

Table 4.1 Components of Knowledge for Teaching L2/FL

Proposals	Components of the Frameworks
1	Language proficiency, civilisation and culture, and language analysis (Lafayette, 1993)
2	Content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), and support knowledge (Day, 1993)
3	Content knowledge, PCK, curricular knowledge, contextual knowledge, and process knowledge (Roberts, 1998)
4	“Learning theories, teaching skills, communication skills, subject matter knowledge, pedagogical reasoning, and contextual knowledge” (Richards, 2011, p. 11)
5	“The teacher as learner of language teaching; schools and schooling as historical and sociocultural contexts for teacher learning; and the teacher’s pedagogical thinking about teaching, the subject matter and its content and the language learning process” (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 406)
6	Knowledge of L2 learner, knowledge of second language acquisition, learning theories, content knowledge (Tarone & Allwright, 2005)

In EFL teaching, the domains constituting the knowledge base required by EFL teachers are still in development. Scholars have slightly different proposals of how EFL teachers construct knowledge of teaching from the interplay of content, pedagogy,

context and curriculum. A chronological overview of the past two decades of proposals dealing with the EFL teaching knowledge is summarised in Table 4.1 above.

Lafayette (1993) argued that EFL teacher education programs should provide pre-service teachers with “language proficiency, knowledge about language, literature and culture” (p. 125). To him, EFL teachers “should have an advanced command of the language in order to be effective users and models” (p. 125). In terms of culture, Lafayette (1993) contended that EFL teachers should be aware of issues of literature and customs associated with the target language so that they can help learners develop cultural knowledge like that of native speakers. In addition, EFL teachers should also be familiar with applied linguistics and second language acquisition (Lafayette, 1993).

Day (1993) proposed a framework of the knowledge base of EFL teaching that includes four areas including: “content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, and support knowledge” (p. 3). In this framework, content knowledge refers to subject matter knowledge such as “syntax, phonology, semantics, pragmatics, and literary and cultural aspects” (p. 3). Pedagogical knowledge includes “classroom management and lesson planning” (p. 3). Pedagogical content knowledge deals with strategies of “how to teach grammar and language skills (p. 3); and finally support knowledge refers to “linguistics, sociolinguistics, and psycholinguistics” (p. 3).

Following Shulman’s model, Richards (1998) and Roberts (1998) proposed similar conceptualisations of the knowledge base for EFL teaching. Roberts (1998) suggested six areas related to the teacher knowledge: “content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, generic pedagogical knowledge, curricular knowledge, contextual knowledge, and process knowledge” (p. 25). Similarly, Richards (1998) also proposed six dimensions of knowledge: “learning theories” (theoretical foundation for approaching teaching and instructional practices); “teaching skills” (similar to generic pedagogical strategies such as selecting learning activities, asking questions, checking students’ understanding, providing opportunities for practice of new items, giving feedback on students’ learning, reviewing, and reteaching); “communication skills and language proficiency” (competence in language use and information exchange); “subject matter knowledge” (phonetics and phonology, syntax, sociolinguistics, discourse analysis, curriculum/syllabus design); “pedagogical reasoning and decision making” (the ability to transform subject matter knowledge into pedagogically powerful forms comprehensible to learners of varied ability and background, similar to

pedagogical content knowledge in Shulman's model); and "contextual knowledge" (information about educational and linguistic policies as well as familiarity with students, institutions, and programs)" (p. 1). The development of these domains in EFL teacher education programs, contended Richards (1998), helps EFL teachers organise their classrooms to improve teaching practices.

Freeman and Johnson (1998) proposed a reconceptualisation of the knowledge base of EFL teachers based on the belief that language teaching can be enriched when teachers' work is examined scientifically. This model emphasises that "teacher learners and their learning processes cannot be adequately described or understood without taking into full account the socio-cultural contexts in which their learning takes place" (p. 406). According to these authors, "the core of the knowledge base must focus on the activity of teaching itself, the teacher who does it, the contexts in which it is done and the pedagogy by which it is undertaken" (p. 397). Freeman and Johnson (1998) suggested that a reconceptualised knowledge base for EFL teaching should involve three interconnected knowledge gained through "the processes of socialisation, community creation and activity participation" including: "the teacher as learner of language teaching; schools and schooling as historical and socio-cultural contexts for teacher learning; and the teacher's pedagogical thinking about teaching, the subject matter and its contents and the language learning process" (p. 397). The analysis of "language teaching, the contexts of schools and teachers' pedagogical reasoning can lead to an informed exploration of teachers' actions and practices, which can lead to the development of their knowledge" (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 398).

In agreement with the proposals as seen in Table 4.1 above (except with Freeman and Johnson's), Tarone and Allwright (2005) added a key element, *the foreign language learner*, into their proposal. Tarone and Allwright (2005) argued that the knowledge base of EFL teaching should involve "a clear understanding of EFL learners, who they are, why they learn, what they need to learn or what motivates them to learn among other aspects" (p. 18). Tarone and Allwright (2005) emphasised that "the word 'teach' is not an intransitive verb, thus the job of teaching cannot exclude the involvement of learners who have different interests, motivations, needs, and aptitudes" (p.18). Further, Tarone and Allwright (2005) argued that EFL teacher education programs should have as their rationale, evidence-based research that is pertinent to EFL learners. Most of studies on L2 learning are relevant to EFL teachers in making decisions for classroom processes and curriculum planning (Tarone & Allwright, 2005).

The different frameworks that have been discussed, illustrate the progressive thinking and efforts of EFL educators in addressing the critical factor of linking the construction and development of knowledge with appropriate pedagogy. The components that build up the knowledge base of EFL teaching proposed by the language experts above change as experts are affected by the results of research in general education and language teaching. All of the above components are relevant to the knowledge base of EFL teaching which can be summarised into four major areas including knowledge of language learners; knowledge of subject matter and curriculum goals; knowledge of language teaching; and knowledge of pedagogical reasoning.

Knowledge of learners covers theories of how languages are learned (Lightbown & Spada, 2013) and general as well as specific characteristics of learners (Tarone & Allwright, 2005). Knowledge of subject matter includes knowledge about language, language proficiency and understanding of curriculum goals as proposed by Richards (2011). Knowledge of language teaching includes specific theories of language teaching (Tarone & Allwright, 2005), classroom management, and assessment (Richards, 1998). Pedagogical reasoning is concerned with the ability to transform knowledge of subject matter into pedagogically powerful forms to make it comprehensible to learners with various abilities and backgrounds, and contextual knowledge (Richards, 2011).

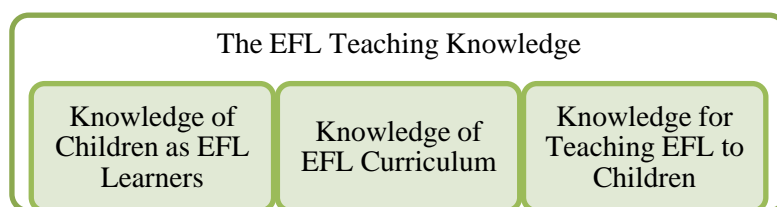


Figure 4.1 Frameworks of the EFL Teaching Knowledge

In the case of the study that is the basis of this thesis, I have focused on three of the above aspects including knowledge of children as language learners; content knowledge and curriculum goals; and specific methods for teaching EFL to children in primary classrooms as summarised in Figure 4.1 above.

Based on the review of literature discussed by Tarone and Allwright (2005); Richards (2011); Lightbown and Spada (2013), I deemed these domains as essential for Indonesian secondary-trained EFL teachers who want to teach English to children in primary schools. My decision was also informed by the current professional framework of effective teaching proposed by Darling-Hammond, Bransford, and LePage (2005)

who emphasised the importance of “learners and their development in social contexts, knowledge of subject matter and curriculum goals; and knowledge of teaching” (p. 11). The section that follows outlines knowledge about children as EFL learners as the first foundation of the EFL teaching knowledge of primary teachers.

4.3 Knowledge of Children as Language Learners

As noted above, Tarone and Allwright (2005) have argued that the knowledge of EFL teaching should include knowledge of learners. These authors believed that research on L1 and L2 acquisition is the basis of language teaching in the classroom setting. This suggests that any EFL teacher who comes to work in primary schools needs an in-depth understanding about how children learn language, and characteristics of primary school children. These two components are central to knowledge of children as language learners that will determine effective EFL teaching in primary schools. For the purpose of this study, I will review what language researchers have said about how children learn language, and characteristics of primary school children, which form the basis for my analysis of the EFL teaching knowledge the secondary-trained EFL teachers used to teach children English in the primary classroom setting in Indonesia.

4.3.1 How children learn language

There are at least three broad learning theories that seek to explain how children learn language including “behaviourism”, “innativism”, and “interactionism” that become the basis of language teaching knowledge (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). Rooted in general learning theories, these theories have been the foundation of the development of language teaching methods (Richards & Rogers, 2001). These theories have also influenced the field of language teaching in Indonesia. Prospective language teachers in Indonesia are taught these theories through methods of teaching in the curriculum of secondary EFL teacher education programs as noted in Chapter 2. This section briefly discusses these theories with regard to teaching EFL to children in primary schools.

Basing his ideas in the stimulus-response pattern of conditioned behaviour, Skinner (1968) developed the behaviourism theory of learning including L2/FL. Skinner (1968) generalised findings from his laboratory research, which was based on animal learning to human teaching in classroom setting. In his essay “Why Teachers Fail” (Skinner, 1968) he argued for the use of punishment to control learners’ unexpected behaviour. He proposed “positive reinforcement” (p. 103) in teaching as he believed

that it was the most powerful change agent. In his book, “Verbal Behaviour” (Skinner, 1957), he introduced the notion of “operant conditioning” to language teaching for:

... serial structure in language must be the consequence of learned associations between elementary linguistic forms (presumably phonemes or words). A sentence is thus viewed as a behaviour chain, each element of which provides a conditioned stimulus for the production of the succeeding element (Fodor, Bever, & Garrett, 1974, p. 25).

Behaviouristic theory, based on the observed behaviour alone, was criticised by innativists. For example, Chomsky (1972) considered behaviouristic theory as a useless paradigm for attempting to explain the relationship between language and the mind. Chomsky (1972) who developed the innativism theory (also known as cognitivism), argued against behaviouristic perspective of language learning; he wrote:

The fact that all normal children acquire essentially comparable grammars of great complexity with remarkable rapidity suggests that human beings are somehow specially designed to do this, with data-handling or “hypothesis-formulating” ability of unknown character and complexity (p. 171).

With the “universal grammar” (UG) theory, Chomsky (1972) theorised that people are capable of generating new grammatical utterances and comprehending what other speakers utter to them, even utterances they have never heard before. Chomsky theorised that children are born with UG which will be activated when they are exposed to language use in the environment. With UG children will develop hypotheses of language structures for the language to which they are exposed. Children test and retest these hypotheses based on the feedback they receive from language users in the environment. This process of testing and retesting hypotheses continues until children acquire the whole language system of their environment. Therefore, to Chomsky, children’s minds are not blank slates to be filled by imitating language they hear in the environment as advocated by behaviourists.

Krashen’s (1982) five hypotheses on language learning are believed to be rooted in Chomsky’s language acquisition theory. Krashen’s first hypothesis distinguishes between language acquisition and language learning (acquisition/learning hypothesis); he suggests that people acquire language as they are exposed to samples of language in a similar way that children pick up L1, without any conscious attention to language

form. Learning, on the other hand, occurs consciously; students put their attention to form and rules to learn. Krashen believes that languages are acquired rather than learned. Cook (2000) contrasted between features of language acquisition and language learning based on Krashen's theory. He wrote that language acquisition is implicit, informal, using grammatical feel, dependent on attitude and stable in terms of order of acquisition; while learning is explicit, conscious, taking place in formal situations, using grammatical rules, dependent on aptitude and arranged from simple to complex in terms of order.

Krashen's second hypothesis explains that L2 users draw on what they have already acquired when they engage in spontaneous communication activities (monitor hypothesis). They may use rules and patterns that they have learned to monitor and to make minor changes and polish what the acquired system has produced. This process takes place only when the speaker/writer has sufficient time, and deals with applying accurate use, and has acquired related forms.

The third hypothesis is based on the research evidence that as in L1 acquisition L2 acquisition evolves in predictable sequences (the natural hypothesis). The language forms that are thought the simplest are not necessarily the first to be picked up.

The fourth hypothesis explains that acquisition takes place when the learner is immersed in language use that is understandable to him/her and consists of $i + 1$ input (known as the comprehensible input hypothesis). The " i " represents the language competence the learner already possessed, the "+1" is the symbolic language input which is just one level above the learner's current stage.

Finally, the affective filter hypothesis accounts for the fact that many learners who have been immersed into a large quantity of understandable inputs may not necessarily absorb the language effectively. The affective filter is a symbolic fence that averts someone from absorbing the language even when apposite input exists. Affective filter deals with feelings of anxiety or negative attitudes of learners. When language learners are tense, anxious, or bored, they may not learn the input although it is available in a comprehensible discourse. Krashen's theory has influenced EFL teaching methodology to a great extent, however, this theory has also received criticism from other language professionals (Krashen, 1982).

Another theory that seeks to explain language acquisition and learning is social interactional theory. This theory was derived from cognitive development theory (Piaget, 1970) and sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978a). According to Piaget (1970) children are lively thinkers and learners; they develop their understanding of the world from interacting actively with the physical environment in developmental stages. They learn through their own individual actions and exploration. Language learning is explained as a profound, complicated psychological phenomenon, which involves several aspects including motivations, prior knowledge, and the processes of learning itself (Piaget, 1974; Bruner, 1996). Language teaching occurs in phases with gradual increasing complexity.

Vygotsky (1978a) argued that language learning is influenced by social, cultural, and historical factors. Language learning takes place within social interactions; it occurs through meaningful interactions between experts and novices. Vygotsky (1978) theorised that children acquire language through interactions with adults. Adults work actively with children in their “zone of proximal development” (ZPD) (p. 86). ZPD is a situation in which children may perform a higher level of language use with the assistance of adults. According to Vygotsky (1978) language acquisition and thought are interconnected. Language use mediates thinking; language learners gain control over their mental processes as a result of internalising what others say to them and what they say to others. This interconnection takes place when language learners interact with interlocutors within their ZPD.

Comprehensible input hypothesis (Krashen, 1985a) is similar to ZPD theory (Vygotsky, 1978). The emphasis in ZPD is on development and how language learners co-construct knowledge of language based on their interaction with their interlocutor or in private speech (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). According to Lavadenz (2010) the tenets of social interaction theory include:

- learning precedes development;
- language is the main vehicle (tool) of thought;
- mediation is a central concept of language learning;
- social interaction is the basis of language learning and development, internalisation is a process that transforms learning from the social to the cognitive plane; and

- ZPD is the primary activity space in which language learning takes place (p. 20).

Vygotsky's concept of language learning was used by Bruner (1983) to develop the scaffolding theory. Like Vygotsky, Bruner (1983) also viewed language as the most important tool for child cognitive development (Cameron, 2007). Bruner (1983) argued that without the help provided by adult people, young children fail to utilise their capability to absorb language. Bruner (1983) argues that adults scaffold their language to simplify the world for children and assist them to resolve difficulties (Cameron, 2007). Bruner's insight with its emphasis on the need to facilitate a child in resolving learning challenges, accomplishing learning tasks or attaining achievements that are outside his solo efforts has influenced teaching knowledge (Wood, 1998). The teaching process using the scaffolding concept hastens and boosts a child's learning by splitting learning into hierarchical steps which permit attainment of one step at a time (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976). The teaching process using scaffolding theory also considers "learners' interests, degrees of freedom, learning direction, critical features of tasks, controlling frustration, and demonstrating solutions" (Wood et al., 1976, p. 98). Following Bruner's concept of scaffolded teaching, Littlewood (1992) advised language teachers to "divide the total skill into manageable components 'part-skills' and organise them in such a way that the learners will be able to master them in sequence" (p. 47). Littlewood (1992) proposed that language teachers "create contexts which will provide learners with opportunities to integrate the various part-skills that they have learnt so far and perform the whole task" (p. 47).

The above theories, which have sought to explain how children learn language, are central to EFL teaching to children in the primary classroom. Behaviourism theory, although criticised by some linguists, is still beneficial for teaching language to children (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). Oral language practices such as repetitions of words, phrases, and even short sentences through songs or chants are associated with a principle of this theory (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). Children enjoy such repetitious practices in classroom learning. Innatism theory that gave birth to the five hypotheses theory also has explicit implications for language learning in primary schools (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). Preparation of syllabus and teaching materials for children can be done by referring to the theory of comprehensible input derived from innatism (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). Furthermore, social interactional theory provides a clear contribution to a child-centred learning, taking into account the ZPD and scaffolding

conception (Lightbown and Spada, 2013). Language learning activities in the classroom can be created by drawing on social activities of children in everyday life. By scaffolding topics, language input and content of materials in accordance with the interests and needs of children, language learning in the classroom context can be made more child-centred and natural (Gibbons, 2002, 2009).

Cameron (2007) summarised the implications of such theories to help classroom teachers organise language learning for children in a variety of ways as shown in Table 4.2 below.

Table 4.2 Strategies to scaffold children’s language

<i>Teachers can help children to</i>	<i>By</i>
Attend to what is relevant	suggesting, praising the significant, providing focusing activities,
Adopt useful strategies	encouraging rehearsal, being explicit about organisation,
Remember the whole task and goals	reminding, modelling, providing part–whole activities.

Source: Cameron (2007, p. 9)

In addition to the language learning theories discussed above, EFL teachers need to have a deep understanding of specific characteristics of primary school children, particularly those that are related to a child’s development in social contexts in order to be able to effectively teach EFL in primary classrooms (Darling-Hammond, Bransford, et al., 2005; McKay, 2006). Such characteristics play an important role in selecting appropriate teaching strategies, designing syllabus and language activities and choosing assessment methods that work for children of primary school age. The section that follows reviews characteristics of primary school children as another foundation of the EFL teaching knowledge for introducing English to young language learners.

4.3.2 Characteristics of primary school students

As has been argued above, secondary-trained EFL teachers who come to teach English in primary schools need to understand characteristics of children in order to teach the language effectively. Researchers have suggested that EFL teachers in primary schools need to understand that children are different from older learners in terms of needs, abilities, and interests (Halliwell, 1992). McKay (2006) argued that primary

school children bring to classrooms “their own personalities, likes, dislike, interests, their own individual cognitive styles and capabilities, and their own strengths and weaknesses” (p. 5). In an agreement with Gardner (1993), McKay (2006) argued that children vary broadly “across eight types of intelligence such as linguistic, musical, logical-mathematical, spatial, bodily kinaesthetic, interpersonal, intrapersonal and naturalistic” (p. 5).

Table 4.3 Characteristics of Primary School Students

	Children of Lower Grades (1, 2, 3)	Children of Upper Grades (4, 5, 6)
Cognitive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Are curious to make sense of the world Generalise from own experience More interested in the process than in the product Learning to sort and categorise Think concretely Can handle only one operation at a time Learn from direct experience Learn more by doing than by listening Enjoy organised games but are poor losers Like action stories and enjoy humours 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Have an increased attention span Concrete thinkers View things in absolutes Eager to try new things Beginning to think symbolically Able to remember and concentrate well Develop reasoning skills Creative Read well; may start reading novels Interested in facts and true stories Have different interests
Socio-emotional	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Still focus on self Able to have empathy Are increasingly aware of peer opinions Interested in other families and how they function Egocentric Are motivated to perform well Sensitive to a failure and criticism Recognise rules and rituals as important May act in order to avoid punishments Seek for a sense of security Can become discouraged easily 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Prefer same sex groups Focus on rules and fairness Loyal to a group or club Still need guidance to stay on tasks Beginning to use reasoning skills Prefer to work cooperatively, not independently Admire and copy older youth behaviours Do not like being compared to others; it hurts their self-confidence Beginning to express emotions by using words Look for similarities between self and peers Still look to adults for approvals
Physical	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Have better coordination skills Are growing in skills and abilities Enjoy testing muscle strength, skills, and coordination Like physical movements Feel tired quickly, but recovered quickly 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Have boundless energy Increase in strength, balance and coordination Improve in small motor coordination Girls are maturing at a faster rate than boy.

Note. These characteristics will be discussed in more detail below. The characteristics are only generalisations of child behaviour. There will be great variation amongst a group of children.

Primary school children may also have different experiences and knowledge of the world as they may come from families with a variety of socioeconomic, cultural and home backgrounds. Their individuality links to special characteristics that are important to be considered in planning for classroom EFL teaching. The characteristics of primary school children can be discussed using four general categories: cognitive, social-

emotional, physical, and literacy development (McKay, 2006). Understanding of such categories and their differences is central to effective EFL teaching in the primary classroom. Table 4.3 above presents children's characteristics summarised from Donaldson (1989), Brumfit (1991), DeHart, Sroufe and Cooper (2004), McKay (2006), Rixon (2007), Curtain and Dahlberg (2010b), and Harmer (2010).

a. Cognitive characteristics of primary school children

Primary school children are constantly experiencing cognitive growth. Their characteristics of growth, as shown in Table 4.3 above, are what distinguish children of primary school age from older learners. Children in lower grades (grades 1, 2, and 3) are at the level of preoperational stage (Piaget, 1983). Their attention span at this stage is very short, ranging from 10 to 15 minutes (McKay, 2006). At this stage, they are easily distracted by other children or activities. They may easily drop a task, if they find it too difficult or unattractive; or they may do the task in order to avoid punishment or simply to please the teacher (McKay, 2006). Primary school children in lower grades learn from direct experience to develop an understanding of cause and effect; they develop generalisations from such an understanding. They think concretely and are unable to engage in operational thinking (McKay, 2006). Children at this stage are more interested in process than the product (Brumfit, et.al, 2003). They learn more by doing than by listening, and they are able to sort and categorise.

At lower grades, primary children are still acquiring their first language to clarify thinking and learning. Their knowledge of words grows rapidly but they are still not able to use language to talk about language (Puckett & Black, 2000). Children's understanding of grammar and discourse (known as metalinguistic knowledge) does not come until they reach upper grades (Puckett & Black, 2000). Children at lower grades like action stories, fantasies and humorous texts.

As primary school children progress to upper grades (grades 4, 5 and 6) they enter the concrete operational stage (Piaget, 1983). At this stage, their experiences of the world expand and their ability to think also grows; their ability to reason systematically and logically increases, but they still need help from others (who are more capable) to learn to become more proficient in problem solving, reading; they are able to remember and concentrate more (DeHart, Sroufe & Cooper, 2004). They continue to improve reasoning skills and are eager to try new things to make sense of the world. They become more creative, and begin to think symbolically and more

objectively. They may interpret things differently as they still derive understanding from direct experience with objects and visual aids (Slavin, 2012). At these grades, primary school children begin to creatively reorganise thoughts and ideas. Their understanding of cause and effect and metaphor improves and they begin to understand the double meaning of jokes. Their understanding of the concept of time is also growing; they can talk about past events, plans for the future and career options (Puckett & Black, 2000).

At upper grades, children can read well; they may begin to read novels and are interested in true stories. Their language has grown to level that allows them to predict, hypothesise and classify. Some children of upper grades have progressed into "formal operational stage" (Piaget, 1983), which enables them to hypothesise, construct abstract categories and handle more than two variables at a time. Their understanding of abstract social concepts becomes more sophisticated, and vice versa their literal interpretation reduces. However, most children will progress to this stage when they are in secondary schools (Slavin, 2012).

As noted in Table 4.3 above, primary school children are curious to explore new things in their request to makes sense of their world. Research suggests that curiosity is a significant factor influencing a child's cognitive, social, emotional, and physical development. Piaget (1983) deemed curiosity as fundamental to learning. Curiosity is intrinsic factor stimulating children to learn their environment (Baxter & Switzky, 2008). Research suggests that curiosity drives children's impulse to learn (Engel, 2011). Children are often described as born scientists due to their curiosity to learn new things. Curiosity leads children to hypothesise, test conclusions and uncover the world's wonders (Jirout & Klahr, 2012). Many studies have explained the role of child's curiosity in science learning (Engel, 2011). However, in EFL teaching such research is rare.

Children's cognitive development informs implications for effective EFL teaching in primary schools (McKay, 2006). The characteristics of children's cognitive development determine the kinds and level of difficulty of the EFL materials and learning activities that should be provided for primary school children. For example, lower grade children will not be able to see the coherence in a complex task that includes several sections; thus, EFL teachers will need to prepare the learning materials and tasks within small topics appropriate for their attention span. On the other hand,

upper grade children are able to detect such coherence in the parts of the task if the parts are presented in a thematic or narrative way. Thus, for these children, the EFL teacher may prepare a larger topic with more or longer tasks. In short, primary school children generally should not be given tasks that are beyond their experience. For example, although there will be exceptional children, they should not be required to explain rules of language use as such a task is abstract and out their cognitive capacity (McKay, 2006).

b. Socio-emotional characteristics of primary school children

In general, children in the lower grades still have high self-centredness. They are sensitive to criticism, and can be quickly discouraged by a negative learning experience. Therefore, they are in need of care and a sense of security to learn effectively. They may perform tasks just to please the teacher or because they fear punishment. A study by Aron (2002) suggested that 15% of lower grade children are highly sensitive. Some of them may burst into tears at any time when they experience a strong emotion, whether it is embarrassment or frustration (Healy, 1994; Aron 2002). They have a heightened sensitivity to praise, criticism and approval and their self-esteem is strongly influenced by experiences at school (McKay, 2006). Thus, it is important that children experience overall success and a sense of progression (McKay, 2006). On the positive side, lower grade children have been shown to be able to empathise; they are beginning to learn and share opinions of their peers, and are willing to know and accept rules and consider the rules important. They have strong motivation to perform well and show their work to the teacher.

At the upper grades, socio-emotional features of primary school children change significantly. Their concern about peers and groups increases (DeHart et al., 2004). They learn to socialise with peers or groups as a member or leader of the group and solve problems together. Therefore, their ability to control social-emotional features improves and their understanding of social rules and role increases significantly. As they spend more time with peers and groups, their social interactions with peers, increases, they become more interested in peers than adults. The increasing interactions with peers lead children to be more independent, and their dependence on adults decreases gradually. The increasing time spent with peers allows children to learn to be socially tolerant, leads many children to prefer to work cooperatively, rather than individually. Many primary school children may become fanatical about their groups,

and may feel uncomfortable if not assigned to their desired group. Upper grade children tend to prefer to work in the same sex group (DeHart et al., 2004).

Socio-emotional characteristics of primary school children form explicit implications for effective EFL teaching. For example, EFL teachers should provide a learning environment that is psychologically safe and relaxed, free from anxiety but enable risk taking. Language learning activities should incorporate familiar topics. The content of learning materials need to incorporate comprehensible themes embedded in children's experience of local culture (McKay, 2006). Dörnyei (2001) proposed three practical implications of socio-emotional characteristics of children for language teaching in primary school children as follows:

- EFL teachers need to vary language activities and presentation styles;
- EFL teachers need to create interesting and challenging language tasks by including fantasy materials; and
- EFL teachers need to incorporate physical involvements in the activities.

In addition, Read, (2006) suggested that language activities for children need to improve their socio-emotional development, ownership and make learning more memorable. Pinter (2006) suggested that language activities should “allow children's imagination and fantasy to flourish” (p. 21).

c. Physical characteristics of primary school students

Other characteristics of primary school children that EFL teachers need to know involve their physical growth. Children of primary school age are improving their motor skills, balancing and hand-eye coordination naturally. Therefore, they need moving activities such as running, climbing, jumping, cutting, and drawing. To meet their physical needs, activities involving movement are far more beneficial for primary school children than sitting and listening activities. They quickly run out of energy undertaking such activities, but they can recover quickly. In fact, research has shown that children quickly feel tired and exhausted if they have to sit for a long time listening to teachers' explanations as in traditional teaching (McKay, 2006).

The need for movement has obvious implications for the implementation of EFL teaching in classrooms. EFL learning activities need be adapted to address this need. EFL teachers should create EFL learning activities that encourage children to move; the activities should involve movement of all body parts that enable them to learn EFL

physically and cognitively. Many language experts such as Brumfit (1991) argued that young language learners need physical movement activities to stimulate their thinking and acquire the target language.

Donoghue and Kunkle (1979) argued that the advantages of physical activities for children exceed passive practices of oral language skills. Primary school children require practices of using the target language through physical activities that will enable them “to fix the linguistic input and situations in the long-term memory and strengthen recall” (Kirsch, 2008, p. 56). Research has shown that the involvement of physical movement in language activities improves attention span of children. As also discussed above, children generally have no more than 15 minutes that they can devote to working on a language task (Moyer & Gilmer, 1954), because for primary school children, immobilising their bodies and regarding an object fixedly with their eyes for a period of time is a difficult task, tedious and tiring; children are built for activity rather than sitting still (Hildreth, 1950). Based on this point of view Brown (2001) suggested that EFL teachers of young learners need to include in their lessons activities such as role-plays, games, and *total physical response* (TPR).

d. Literacy knowledge of primary school students

Another vital dimension of young learners is that they are learning literacy skills and understandings at the same time as they are learning the target language. They may be doing this in their first language and continuing to develop literacy, in parallel, within their foreign language (Bialystok, 2001, Cameron, 2003, 2007). Lower grade children first have to develop understandings about how reading and writing work and develop the necessary skills. These understandings establish the foundation for literacy. For instance, as skills of decoding and word recognition and knowledge of discourse structure begin to develop, children’s reading is slow and deliberate at first; then they develop abilities to read aloud and silently and an ability to read for information and for pleasure (McKay, 2006). Upper grade children become more proficient at self-correcting and they are beginning to convey meaning through writing (McKay, 2006). Their writing skills continue to develop, until by the end of their primary schooling they are able to write in ways that expand their thinking and to write in the required form or genre for the particular purpose for which they are writing (McKay, 2006). For foreign language learners, literacy knowledge from their L1 is available to assist them to handle reading and writing in the language including higher levels of reading comprehension. (Bialystok, 2001).

Knowledge of children's literacy development in L1 informs primary school EFL teachers building of EFL syllabuses, selecting materials and choosing teaching strategies, particularly for lower graders. EFL teachers in primary schools need to acknowledge the pathways of literacy development in L1 and its conflicting as well as constructive influence on literacy development in EFL. They need to know about the pathways of EFL literacy and its interface with oral language learning in EFL.

e. Primary school students' interests

Another important characteristic of children involves the various interests they possess. Although the important role of interest applies to all students at all levels, for young children, it has a specific emphasis as has been noted above. Children's interests affect their attention span, their engagement in learning, and achievement (Halliwell, 1992). Halliwell (1992) argued that children come to school with a built-in set of interests; it is essential to recognise and consider this aspect in the process of curriculum design, material development and selection of teaching strategies. Children's interest in learning can be categorised into two types: personal interest and situational interest (Krapp, 1999; Renninger, 2000). Personal interests refer to the individual child's likes, preferences, and favourites related to positive feelings about experiences, objects and activities (Dunst, Herter, & Shields, 2000). On the other hand, situational interests emerge from a contextual situation, in which children's attention or curiosity is attracted by unexpected elements within that situation (Krapp, 1999; Dunst, Hamby, Trivette, Raab, & Bruder, 2002). Brumfit, Pincas, and Broughton (2003) argued that the interests of primary school children centre on actions rather than on things, and proposed that EFL learning activities for primary school children should centre on action tasks; such activities will gradually develop their vocabulary of the immediate surroundings.

EFL Teachers need deep knowledge of children's development, including their cognitive, social/emotional, physical growth; and literacy (metalinguistic) development, in order to be able to construct an L2/FL program for primary school children. This knowledge is the basis for constructing L2/FL curriculum and syllabus and for developing appropriate language learning materials and activities as well as to give appropriate feedback to children. For example, language activities may need careful introduction (recall of previous knowledge; reminder of vocabulary needed), before children can proceed with new activities. Children's interests and concentration spans determine the kinds of language tasks too (e.g., the use of colourful pictures; a short, interesting story) that motivate them to undertake the task. The section that follows

discusses specific characteristics of primary school children in relation to L2/FL classroom research.

4.3.3 Characteristics of children related to EFL learning

Slatterly and Willis (2003) argued that lower grade children learn L2 through listening, and practising in similar ways to their acquisition of L1. They learn language through playing which allows them to unconsciously absorb new vocabulary of the language. They like playing with words and phrases. They absorb language forms gradually in contexts; they have not developed sufficient capacity to use knowledge from their first language for strategic thinking (Bronson, 2000) that may help them to figure out how L1 and L2 relate. Browne (2007) also suggested that children learn language actively through visualising, listening and interacting; they learn language through risk taking. Most children learn language effectively through collaborating with peers. Children learn topics around them first and then expand to broader contexts (Browne, 2007).

More contemporary research has revealed that primary school students are less able to use structural knowledge of L1 for learning L2 due to the lack of full prefrontal cortex development which affect the cognitive capacity needed by children to use L1 information to aid them in learning L2 (Smith, 2009). Smith (2009) argued that “children and adults approach L2 learning in different ways” (p. 31) but they progress through similar stages. Harmer (2010) also argued that primary school children look for meaning or messages rather than in understanding individual words. They learn meaning from the broader context of language use rather than from focusing on the particular words. Their understanding is derived from what they listen to, from what they see, and from what they can touch (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). It was found that young L2 learners are curious and motivated to use the new language even with their limited proficiency; they are less anxious compared to older learners (Lightbown & Spada, 2013).

4.3.4 Conditions for EFL learning in the classroom

Research has revealed that children need certain conditions to acquire L1 in informal situations (Krashen, 1992). Scholars have argued that if similar conditions can be provided in formal second or foreign language teaching, students should be able to learn the target language effectively (Curtain & Dahlberg, 2010a; Harmer, 2010).

The first condition is that children need to be free from anxiety in learning language (Krashen, 1982; Krashen & Terrell, 1983). Research has shown that during language acquisition in informal settings, children absorb language without any real conscious effort, without worrying about grammar or vocabulary (Krashen, 1982). When children start speaking their mother tongue, their parents do not expect them to study it, rather parents expect their children just to interact with it and let the language emerge, “first at the level of one-to-one utterances, until the phrases and sentences they use to become more complex as they grow older” (Harmer, 2010, p. 46).

The second condition is that children need meaning-based instruction rather than form-focused teaching as in informal situations; “parents tend to respond to their children’s language in terms of its meaning rather than in terms of its grammatical accuracy” (Lightbown & Spada, 2013, p. 32).

The third condition is that children need to learn language through constant exposure to the target language in use (Cameron, 2007; Harmer, 2001; Lightbown & Spada, 2013); and such exposure should be comprehensible to them (Krashen, 1985b).

The fourth condition is that children need simplified use of the target language to allow them to be able to understand meanings and messages being communicated (Harmer, 2010). In informal situations, parents or adults scaffold their language when talking to children, both consciously and unconsciously (Wood et al., 1976); “they rarely use complex sentences, or technical vocabulary; they use language which fits the situation, rough-tuning what they say to match the child’s age and situation” (Harmer, 2010, p. 46). In addition, research has shown that adults use language in different ways when interacting with children in order to make meaning comprehensible to them. For example, parents or caretakers often raise their intonation to emphasise meanings; their voices often sound higher and more enthusiastic compared to when they talk to other people (Harmer, 2010); parents or adults also use slower rate of speech, shorter and less complex sentences, and more rephrasing or repetitions; use gestures and visual reinforcement; and greater use of concrete referents (Curtain & Dahlberg, 2010a).

Finally, children need to learn the target language through its use in natural, social, and emotional interactions so that as they hear the language, they also see the ways in which that language is used (Harmer, 2010). These conditions are central to

language teaching, hence, EFL teachers in primary schools have to take these into account if they want to teach effectively.

4.3.5 Summary

This section has discussed knowledge of children as language learners, which includes how children learn language, characteristics of primary school children, characteristics of children related to language learning in classrooms, and conditions for L2 or FL learning in the classroom. Three language learning theories (behaviourism, innatism, and interactionism), which inform the basis of appropriate approaches to teaching an L2 or FL to children in primary schools, have been presented in this section. In addition, the section has also discussed the importance of the teacher's knowledge of children's characteristics and the conditions for language learning in the classroom. Such aspects are foundational for EFL teachers in selecting teaching strategies, and developing EFL syllabuses, teaching materials and learning activities that incorporate interests and needs of children, so that they can learn EFL effectively in the classroom. Knowledge of these aspects will encourage EFL teachers to be more child-centred rather than teacher-centred practitioners. Hence, all aspects that have been discussed in this section are fundamental for the teaching approach for EFL to primary school students.

The section that follows discusses the role of content knowledge in teaching EFL to primary school children.

4.4 Content Knowledge of EFL Teachers in Primary Schools

To argue that EFL teachers need to know the content knowledge they teach, seems unnecessary as how they can teach English unless they speak it themselves (Grossman et al., 2005). Having sufficient content knowledge of English plays a key role teaching the target language effectively. However, this study is not aimed at judging the mastery of the content knowledge of the secondary-trained EFL teachers who come to teach English in primary schools, rather it examined how these teachers describe their content knowledge and curriculum goals in teaching English to children. This section will discuss the importance of such a domain in order to plan effective EFL teaching to children in primary schools.

Roberts (1998) pointed out that having content knowledge in the context of EFL teaching means that EFL teachers demonstrate their expertise in the target language. EFL teachers should have a certain level of declarative and procedural knowledge of the target language (Bailey, Curtis, & Nunan, 2001). In the case of EFL teaching to children in primary schools such as in Indonesia, content knowledge will refer to knowledge about English grammar, vocabulary and phonology as teachers are the language models for children (Barnes, 2002).

How much content knowledge is needed for EFL teachers is debated. Lafayette (1993) contended that content knowledge for EFL teachers should include “language analysis”, “language proficiency”, and “an understanding of civilisation and culture” (p. 151). Johnston and Goettsch (2000) proposed two broad areas of content knowledge for EFL teachers including knowledge about language, and language proficiency. Richards (2011) includes “subject matter knowledge”, “communication skills” and “language proficiency” (p. 5) to serve the content knowledge in EFL teaching. Further, Richards (2011) elaborated such areas into understanding of “the nature of L2 and L2 use”, “the nature of L2 learning”, “approaches to L2 teaching”, “curriculum development”, “testing and evaluation”, and “materials development” (p. 15). Johnston and Goettsch and Lafayette did not include such areas into L2 teachers’ content knowledge.

Language proficiency, the second part of the content knowledge of EFL teaching also covers broad domains: sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence, discourse competence, and linguistic competence (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2001); and the level to which EFL teachers should possess proficiency in the target language is also debated. Canagarajah (1999) argued that it is not necessary for a non-native EFL teacher to have English proficiency similar to the proficiency of native speakers to teach the target language well. About this comment, Richards (2011) argued that some of the best EFL classes he observed were taught by non-native teachers, and in contrast, some of the worst EFL lessons were taught by native speakers (see also Bailey, 2006, p. 300). Richards (2011) proposed a list of a minimum language skills that can facilitate EFL teachers in carrying out EFL teaching fluently, which include the ability to: “comprehend texts accurately”, “provide good language models”, “maintain use of the target language in the classroom maintain fluent use of the target”, “give explanations and instructions in the target language”, “provide examples of words and grammatical structures and give accurate explanations”, “use appropriate classroom language”, “select target-language resources”, “monitor his or her own speech and writing for

accuracy”, “give correct feedback on learner language”, and “provide input at an appropriate level of difficulty” (Richards, 2011, p. 3).

Other language experts such as Krashen (1985a) proposed that L2 teachers should be able to provide children with comprehensible input as an essential ingredient in L2 acquisition. In relation to the importance of comprehensible input, Bondi (2001) emphasised the possession of oral skills for EFL teachers in order to effectively teach English to children in primary schools. Bondi (2001) believed that oral language skills of EFL teachers are central in providing children with understandable and natural exposure to the new language input. If EFL teachers do not have sufficient oral fluency, they are likely to use English less frequently in teaching or they will depend on the text book. Bondi (2001) also emphasised that oral language skills needed by primary EFL teachers should be relevant to EFL materials used in classrooms. The emphasis on sufficient oral language proficiency is also argued by Cameron (2007) who emphasised the teaching of oral language rather than other skills in primary school foreign language programs. Based on this proposal, it can be argued that content knowledge of primary school EFL teachers, has its own standards, and should not be considered to be inferior to the standard of content knowledge necessary to teach English to secondary school students.

The section that follows reviews the importance of curriculum knowledge for EFL teachers in teaching children English in primary schools. Curriculum knowledge is another aspect of EFL teaching knowledge necessary for English language teachers.

4.5 Curriculum Knowledge of EFL Teachers of Primary Schools

EFL teaching can be approached in several ways, each of which has different implications for curriculum, or syllabus design (Richards, 2013). In some countries such as Indonesia currently, EFL teachers are not involved in curriculum design because the curriculum, syllabus and text books have been provided by the government (Nuh, 2013). However, many researchers such as Darling-Hammond, Bransford, and LePage (2005) argued that teachers need deep understanding of the curriculum in order to prepare engaging learning and meaningful activities for children. Richards, (2013) argued that curricular knowledge enables EFL teachers to organise the content knowledge and skills they will teach in light of the desired goals. Such understanding helps them decide what to teach and why. This concept implies that EFL teachers in

primary schools should be able to construct a syllabus for students that can address general goals and competency standards, special needs, relevant experiences of children, resources, and demands of the society. Furthermore, EFL teachers should be able to define curricular implementation ranging from selecting appropriate EFL teaching strategies, language materials, designing and sequencing of EFL tasks, assignments, and activities, to choosing assessment methods for children taking into account their specific characteristics and needs as discussed above.

In this section, I propose the knowledge EFL teachers in primary schools need to know in order to understand the overall goals that guide their efforts: to be clear and purposeful about what and how they teach, and to understand the formal EFL curriculum taking into account the purpose of EFL teaching in primary schools in Indonesia, as well as the needs of the children and the content they teach. I use the definition of the EFL curriculum as “the learning experiences and goals teachers develop for particular classes, both in planning and while teaching” (Darling-Hammond, Banks, et al., 2005, p. 170) and in light of the characteristics of children as discussed in Section 4.3 above. Such a conception of the EFL curriculum will include the formal EFL syllabus, which outlines topics “to be taught; the enacted curriculum as it occurs in the activities, materials and assignments teachers select and develop and in the interactions that occur between and among teachers and children; and the hidden curriculum that implements the underlying goals and perceptions schools and teachers hold for children individually and as a group” (Darling-Hammond, Banks, et al., 2005, p. 170).

In the case of EFL teaching in primary schools in Indonesia, the formal EFL curriculum for primary schools was provided by the government as described in Table 2.1, Chapter 2. The table contains graduate competency standards that need to be transformed into EFL syllabuses as the foundation for developing language materials, learning activities and assessment tools. The overall goals of EFL teaching program in primary schools as described in the formal curriculum in Table 2.1 is to teach basic communication competence to children for simple communication purposes within their authentic experience. Such goals are described as follows:

- to be able to understand instructions, information, and simple stories delivered orally in the context of the classroom, school, and neighbourhood;

- to be able to verbally express the meaning in simple interpersonal and transactional discourses in instructions and information in the context of the classroom, school, and neighbourhood;
- to be able to read aloud and understand the meaning of instructions, information, short functional texts, and simple descriptive picture texts presented in writing in the context of the classroom, school, and neighbourhood; and
- to be able to write words, phrases, and simple short functional text with spelling and punctuation (Mendiknas, 2006c).

Theorists have suggested that an effective way to teach an FL or L2 to young language learners is using a thematic approach through a thematic syllabus. Such an approach is appropriate as young learners learn language themes emerging from their surroundings. In the section that follows, I discuss a thematic EFL syllabus for teaching English to primary school children.

4.5.1 A thematic EFL syllabus for primary school

An appropriate EFL syllabus for primary schools, in which communicative competence as described in the formal curriculum above, can be achieved in classroom teaching should be informed by the areas of knowledge discussed in Section 4.3 (how primary school children learn language, characteristics and needs of primary school children). Such a syllabus should be much more than a list of language inputs or items to be taught (Nunan, 1989). The syllabus should describe a set of strategies of teaching considering contexts and constraints, and learning theories relevant to the way children learn effectively (Nunan, 1988; McKay, 2006). It should describe an approach to teaching that can make the EFL program effective, similar as possible to informal language acquisition that takes place in natural settings (Harmer, 2010). A kind of syllabus that can incorporate such conditions is a thematic syllabus.

A thematic syllabus in language teaching can be defined as a unit or a collection of units that centres on themes to introduce language input to learners (Ur, 1996). A thematic language syllabus is anchored in Vygotsky's (1978) social interactional theory as it considers language learning is effective if children learn it through social interactions in social contexts, and Piaget's (1977) theory of child development that primary school children are in the stage of concrete thinking. It is relevant to Bruner's (1978) scaffolding theory and Krashen's (1982) input hypothesis, all of which have

been discussed in Section 4.3.1 above. The concept of thematic syllabus is also relevant to the notion that schematic knowledge facilitates children as language learners to understand linguistic knowledge as discussed by Widdowson (1990). Widdowson (1990) argued that schematic knowledge or common knowledge related to culture or context experienced by language learners is an important factor of language materials or activities that facilitates language input accessible to learners. Language learners who possess enough schemata about the content of the materials tend to absorb linguistic knowledge more easily than those who do not. Widdowson (1990) argued that “the more the schematic content or mode of communication, the less reliance needs to be placed on systemic knowledge, and vice versa” (p. 105). Basing ideas on a view of children, Hudelson (1991) summarised four basic reasons for using thematic syllabus for teaching children EFL relevant to knowledge of learners as addressed in Section 4.3. These are:

- Primary school children are in the stage of “concrete operations” (Piaget, 1983). At this stage children learn from direct experiences, meaning that they need to be involved in actional language tasks. At this stage, children learn best through learning by doing;
- At the concrete operation stage, children learn best from peers cooperatively, not individually; therefore, EFL teachers need to allow children to interact with other children in completing language tasks;
- As children learn from direct experience, EFL is best undertaken through discovery processes. Children should be allowed to work out the way language operates. Thus, EFL teachers should prepare children to experiment with the new language in an anxiety-free classroom atmosphere.
- Children learn language from meaning negotiation in social interactions; therefore EFL teachers should prepare materials and activities that allow children to negotiate meaning.

There is much support for using a thematic EFL syllabus for primary school children. Haas (2000) argued that “thematic units allow EFL teachers to incorporate a variety of language concepts into a topic area that is interesting and worthy of study and that gives children a reason to use the language”. Brown (2001) pointed out that thematic teaching “promotes automaticity, meaningful learning, intrinsic motivation, and communicative competence, which put principles of effective learning into action” (p. 236). Thematic teaching makes it possible to integrate language aspects

communicatively in a variety of ways that exposes children to contextual language use (Brown, 2001). Brinton (2003) pointed out that a thematic syllabus offers maximal natural support for language learning as the language of the materials is reused repetitively in the unit and, therefore, children will gain a greater opportunity to use the target language when they are working on tasks about the topics. Curtain and Dahlberg (2010) argued that thematic units offer a meaningful context that makes new language understandable and engages primary school children in more composite communicative circumstances that imitate authentic settings.

Furthermore, in EFL situations such as in Indonesia, it can be a challenge for primary school children to find an authentic context in which is English is used to support EFL learning after school hours. Thus, the classroom, the only context in which the target language is used, should be created as the place where English is taught as well as practised communicatively in thematic topics relevant to children's interests and stages of learning. According to Brinton (2003) the "thematic content which can be stretched over several weeks of instruction, providing rich recycling input for lessons that are either language-based (with a focus on vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar) or skills-based (with a focus on listening, speaking, writing or reading); in this environment children can successfully acquire language" (p. 203).

4.5.2 Designing a thematic EFL syllabus for primary schools

An EFL thematic syllabus can be developed following five steps as proposed by Shin (2007). These are:

- 1) "examining curriculum standards and required units for the class",
- 2) "choosing a theme that is meaningful and relevant to children",
- 3) "brainstorming ideas that can incorporate real-life situations and tasks",
- 4) "choosing, organising and order the activities", and
- 5) "incorporating projects that can encourage children's choice and autonomy" (Shin, 2007, p. 4).

In step 1, EFL teachers need to analyse and understand the language that pupils need to learn as described in the guidelines of the National EFL Curriculum. Based on this analysis EFL teachers develop thematic units that offer primary school children a wider context in which they can connect their experiences and schematic knowledge to the target language. For the Indonesian context, in this step, EFL teachers will need to

fully analyse the target language in order to understand the overall goals of EFL program in primary schools as described in Table 2.1.

In step 2, EFL teachers should consider several factors such as characteristics of children which have been discussed above (Curtain & Dahlberg, 2010b). For example, the theme should be engaging and interesting to children. It needs to link to authentic situations. It also needs to suit a variety of learning styles and intelligences (Gardner, 1993). The theme should also facilitate children to develop their knowledge of language functions (Nunan, 2004). In addition, the theme should connect to the target cultures (Nunan, 2009). The basic principle to be considered in this step is that the theme should be interesting and meaningful to children (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2001).

In step 3, EFL teachers decide the kinds of language tasks or activities related to real life situations connected to the topic or theme that has been chosen. EFL teachers can use a variety of resources to develop language activities related to the selected theme. Choices of appropriate language activities should always be underlined by what most interests children (Shin, 2007).

In step 4, EFL teachers may need to note language activities in a table to record the real life tasks; skills; and language content, that have been covered in the unit (Shin, 2007). Within this step, EFL teachers may need to examine: “the variety of tasks and languages and language skills”, “the activities that are most useful to the children”, “the reorder of the tasks to mirror the real life application”, “the connection of one activity to the other”, “the sequence of the content in order to recycle the language input”(Shin, 2007, p. 5).

In step 5, EFL teachers may need to design a task in which primary school children are assigned to use the language communicatively in authentic situations. The project integrates the target language in all lessons. The project should be engaging, interesting and motivating for children to work cooperatively rather than individually (Alan & Stoller, 2005).

A thematic syllabus containing topical units will make EFL teaching in primary schools more dynamic. Children will absorb English through learning by doing, exploring themes in engaging meaningful activities within an anxiety-free classroom environment. A thematic syllabus is a motivating set of units for children, which may remove many constraints to successful EFL teaching in primary schools. This approach

is applicable to all grades of primary school as well as to all levels of proficiency (Shin, 2007). A thematic syllabus makes it possible to integrate real life situations in the classroom amalgamating language aspects (listening, speaking, reading and writing) in a communicative way. It promotes the learner's learning responsibility in a variety of language tasks interesting to children.

The section that follows outlines learning materials related to a thematic syllabus appropriate for teaching primary school children English.

4.5.3 EFL learning materials and activities for primary children

Three theories of language learning, children's characteristics and conditions for EFL learning in the classrooms (Section 4.3); the important role of content knowledge (Section 4.4) and curriculum knowledge (Section 4.5.1) form the basis for the development of EFL learning materials and language activities for children of primary school age.

Piaget's sequential development stages, Vygotsky's ZPD, Bruner's scaffolding concept that emphasises the role of supportive others in children's EFL learning, clearly have essential implications for EFL teaching in primary schools. Secondary-trained EFL teachers who come to teach English in primary schools need to consider these theories in selecting and using readymade/available EFL materials or in constructing EFL materials based on available resources. Richards and Rogers (2001) argued that many readymade materials are still influenced by a behaviouristic approach emphasising structural analysis, which is inappropriate for children, as discussed above. Similarly, Brumfit (1991) also argued that many EFL materials for children still had language activities rooted in the audio-lingual method. Therefore, EFL teachers in primary schools need to recognise characteristics of EFL materials and language activities that best suit children.

Due to their cognitive development, EFL materials and activities for children should not extend beyond their experience of the world. Children should not be given a task to describe a language rule because this type of abstract analysis is likely to be beyond their cognitive capacity (McKay, 2006). As has been discussed above, the most important factor that matters for EFL materials for primary school EFL programs is the level of interest of such materials for children. Arnold and Rixon (2008) conducted a study to find out the level of children's interests towards EFL materials and activities.

They found out that the level of children's interests towards EFL learning materials and activities (ranked from the most to the least interesting) as in the list below. Children are interested in activities that:

- are based on fun and enjoyment;
- emphasise listening and speaking;
- promote interaction in class;
- are topic-based;
- are task-based;
- promote systematic study of language;
- are content-based;
- are heavily vocabulary-based;
- are heavily grammar-based.

As has been noted in Section 4.3, one way to make EFL teaching effective in primary schools is providing children with materials and EFL activities that incorporate physical movements. As argued, the incorporation of physical movement in children's learning has several advantages. It improves attention span of children on the target language task. In general, children only have a 15 minute attention span for a language task (Moyer & Gilmer, 1954), however, if mobilising their bodies in doing the activities, children can expand their attention span above the average as the activities become more interesting to them. Brown (2001) argued that if children deal with interesting activities that involve their physical movements, their short attention span will not come into play. Physical movement in language activities stimulates children's thinking (Brumfit, 1991). Providing primary school children with active language practices enable them to store the language input in the long-term memory and facilitate recall (Kirsch, 2012).

Children like to name and manipulate things. This strength can be used to teach them concrete nouns and to participate in activities such as drawing, colouring and gaming. EFL materials and activities should also enhance children's creativity, fantasy, and imagination to improve their social and emotional development, ownership and make learning more memorable (Read, 2006). Pinter (2006) discussed that children should be provided with "various forms of language plays such as drama activities, simple poetry writing, playing with forms, sounds, rhythm, creating imaginary words or nonsense words, which allow children's imagination and fantasy to flourish" (p. 21).

Moreover, oral language activities are prioritised for primary school children, particularly for lower graders, because young children are still learning their L1 literacy. At lower grades children’s literacy power may not yet be sufficient to support EFL learning through written form (McKay, 2006; Cameron, 2007). Cameron (2007) proposed a framework for development of learning materials and activities for children as described in Figure 4.2 (p. 19).

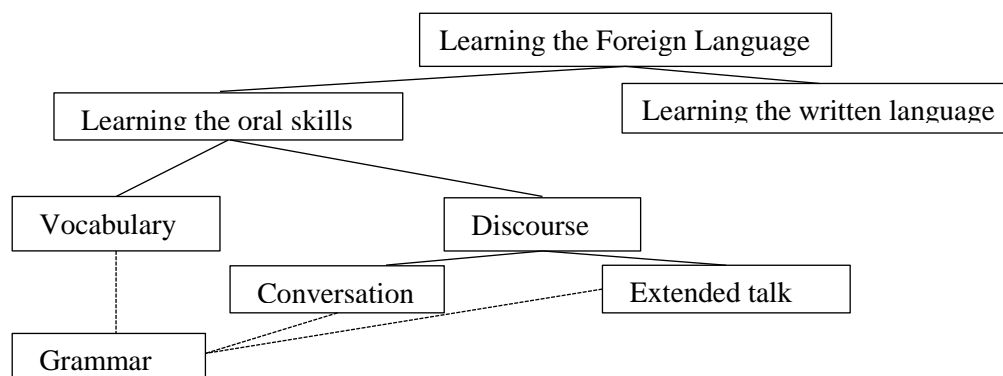


Figure 4.2 Framework of EFL Learning Materials for Children

Adopted from Cameron (2007, p. 19)

In conclusion, there can be several types of materials and activities to engage children in EFL learning. These may include total physical response (TPR) (Asher, 1969), games, songs, story-telling and drama and so on. Song, chants and rhymes are all types of “listen and repeat” activities, which can be useful for introducing or practising vocabulary or language structures (Plauska, 2011). They are particularly beneficial for the development of children’s listening and speaking skills; they allow children to practise intonation, pronunciations, and stress of the English language in a natural manner (Plauska, 2011).

Stories are loved by children and listening to stories stimulates children’s interest in reading (Read, 2008). Story reading is an attractive and motivating way of learning particular language items (Read, 2008). Repetitions of several words or lines of text are characteristics of young children’s stories and therefore the learners may join in the process of story-telling (Read, 2008).

Playing games is natural activity in children’s lives; therefore, using games in EFL lessons is always attractive and motivating for children (Cameron, 2007). Games

offer several advantages that can make language teaching effective. For example, games make the learning atmosphere relaxed and reduce learners' anxiety. In games, children's attention centres on the message rather on the form as children have a strong desire to win (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986). As children's anxiety in using the language during games is reduced, their talking time increases, their speech fluency improves, and finally communicative competence can be attained (Cameron, 2007). In conclusion, games promote learner-centred teaching, integrate whole language skills, encourage cooperative learning in using language spontaneously, and increase intrinsic motivation which leads to effective teaching of communicative competence (Macedonia, 2005).

Other activities that are interesting to children are role-plays and dramas. Role-plays and dramas consist of dialogues which provide children with an opportunity to practise situational speech (House, 1997). Role-plays and dramas become more interesting, especially when a variety of visuals such as puppets, silhouettes, or mascots, are involved (Phillips, 2004). Such activities are beneficial for developing speaking skills of primary school children (Read, 2008). To conclude, learning materials and activities through which children are encouraged to develop their communicative competence in using language spontaneously need to involve three elements: interaction, integration and imagination.

4.5.4 Summary

This section has addressed what EFL teachers of primary schools need to know about what and how they teach, and to understand the formal EFL curriculum taking into account the purpose of EFL teaching in primary schools in Indonesia, as well as characteristics of children and the content they teach. EFL teachers in primary schools need to understand the conception of EFL curriculum and specific characteristics of primary school children both in preparing and in implementing the curriculum. Such a conception of the EFL curriculum includes the formal EFL syllabus, determining appropriate topics for children of primary school age, and the enacted EFL curriculum specifying EFL activities, materials and tasks for primary school children. The section that follows reviews methods of EFL teaching to primary school children.

4.6 Methods of Teaching EFL to Primary Children

As described in Chapters 1 and 2, secondary-trained EFL teachers who come to teach in primary schools in Indonesia were formally trained to teach the target language

to secondary school students, not to primary school children. It also has been noted in Chapter 1, that there has been no LPTK in Indonesia that prepares EFL teachers to teach English to children in primary schools. LPTKs organising secondary EFL teacher education programs in Indonesia provide prospective EFL teachers with the EFL teaching knowledge required for teaching English to secondary students through a unit called “Teaching English as a Foreign Language” (TEFL) (UNM, 2013, p. 22).

This section discusses methods of language teaching that influence the EFL teaching knowledge of EFL teachers in the classroom setting. Based on the theories discussed in the previous sections, I will argue that methods for teaching EFL to children should be distinguished from those for teaching EFL to adult learners. Such distinction should be made as children possess different characteristics from older learners (McKay, 2006; Curtain & Dahlberg, 2010b; Lightbown & Spada, 2013).

The terms “method” and “approach” in language teaching field are often used interchangeably. In this thesis, I use the term *method* to cover the general underlying theoretical position that informs particular policy documents and practice, a definition proposed by Richards and Rogers (2001). Richards and Rogers (2001) used the term method to describe an overall plan and practice of language teaching which is based on a particular approach. According to them, a method of language teaching comprises underlying assumptions derived from an “approach” including ‘views of language and language learning; “design” including ‘objectives of the method, a syllabus, types of language activities, learner and teacher roles, and instructional materials’; and “procedure” (classroom techniques, practices, and behaviours observed when the method is used)” (Richards & Rogers, 2001, p. 28). In this review, I will use the above terms to discuss a method of language teaching. Within the context of Indonesia, the choice of EFL teaching methods can be discussed based on three broad methodological perspectives such as *grammar-based methods*, *comprehension-based methods*, and *communicative competence-based methods*, and how these methods made their ways to Indonesia has been described in Chapter 2.

4.6.1 Grammar-based methods

The grammar-based methodologies include the Grammar-Translation Method, the Audiolingual Method, the Situational Language Teaching Approach, and the Direct Method (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). These methods have been used to teach

EFL to older learners. The main purpose of this approach was to teach students the written language, not oral communicative competence in using a foreign language (Richards & Rogers, 2001). The main activities in a typical grammar translation lesson are reading comprehension, translation and grammar analysis. Teachers and students may use both their first or foreign language to complete any aspect of the lesson. After the reading comprehension and translation sections, the teacher usually explains specific grammatical rules that govern the text. Students are given grammar exercises to learn such rules (Richards & Rodgers, 2003; Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). Textbooks that used grammar-based methods primarily consisted of lists of vocabulary and grammar analysis, thus, students, to a great extent, are engaged in written use of the foreign language rather than oral communication practice (Brandl, 2008b). Based on Richards & Rodgers (2003) the Grammar-Translation Method can be described in Figure 4.3 below.

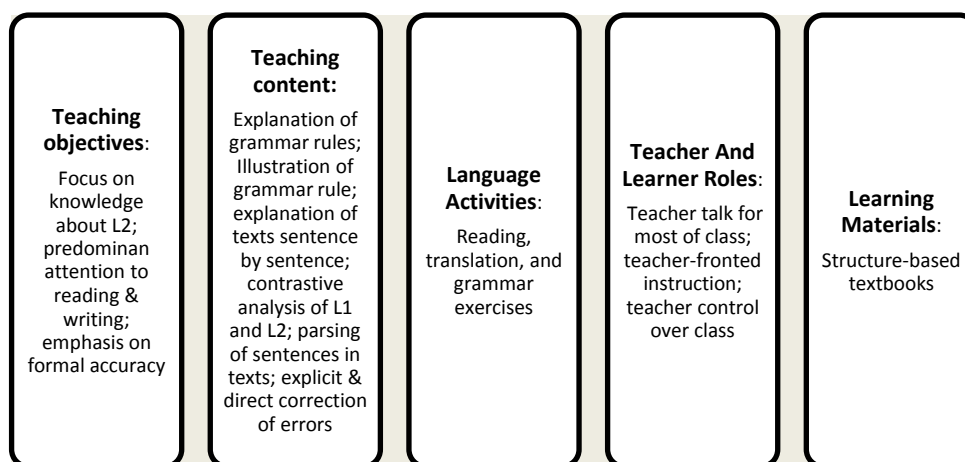


Figure 4.3 Description of the grammar-translation method

The Grammar-translation method was criticised because it failed to address the demand for oral proficiency, leading to the development of other approaches to language teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 2003). One of these is the Direct Method. Advocates of the Direct Method argued that “a foreign language could be taught without translation or the use of the learner’s native language if meaning was conveyed directly through demonstration and action” (Richards & Rodgers, 2003, p. 11). However, the Direct Method was not widely used as its advocates put a strict condition of “native-like fluency” for the foreign language teachers to teach the language (Richards and Rodgers 2003, p. 12).

The Audiolingual Method that emerged during the decades of 1950s and 1960s was also a reaction to the grammar-translation method (Richards & Rogers, 2001). The underlying assumption of this method was that a second or foreign language can be learned through mechanical drills of language form leading to spontaneous use of the target language. Language learners were provided with dialogues consisting of the targeted form. Students learn and perform the dialogues. Language form in the dialogues were extracted and practised in a variety of drills such as substitution, variation, translation, and response drills. Students are not allowed to make grammatical errors which were believed to lead learners to develop bad habits. Pronunciation was emphasised, thus native speakers were seen as the best teachers. Based on Richards & Rodgers (2003) the tenets of the Audiolingual Method can be best described in Figure 4.4 below.

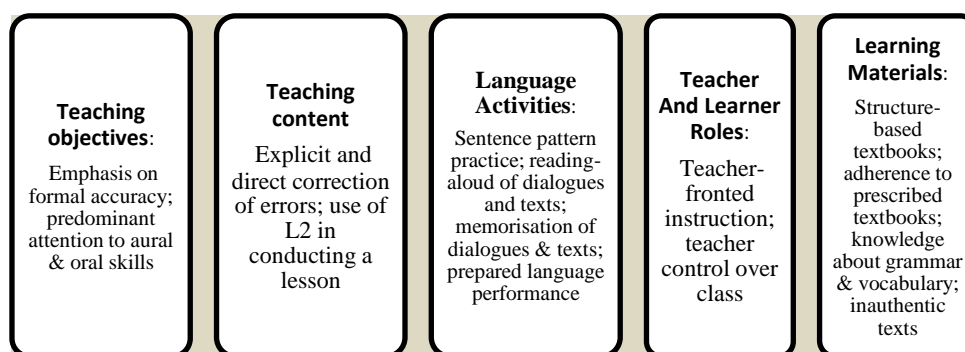


Figure 4.4. Description of Audiolingual Method

There were, however, many problems with the Audiolingual Method (Willis, 2004). One that was widely discussed was that language learners lacked engagement in using the language meaningfully in interactions with other learners. As Willis (2004, p. 4) pointed out, “This was because the emphasis was on eradication of errors and accurate production of the target forms, not on the communication of meanings”. Another weakness of the approach was the overcorrection of grammatical mistakes made by students which led to a high level of learning anxiety. Similar to the previous method, the Audiolingual Method was unsuccessful in facilitating foreign language learners in achieving communicative competence in the target language.

Because of the great emphasis on the teaching of language form, grammar-based approaches do not seem to work with children in primary schools; their principles do not suit the characteristics of children. The criticisms of grammar-based methodologies

gave birth to a number of alternative methods that were meaning and communicative based. These will be addressed in the section below.

4.6.2 Comprehension-based methods

Comprehension-based methods have been described as the bridge between grammar-based methods and communicative language teaching (CLT) methodologies (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). Some of those methods included *Total Physical Response* (TPR), the *Natural Approach*, *Silent Way*, or *Suggestopedia* (for details see Larsen-Richards & Rogers, 2001; Freeman & Anderson, 2011). These methods are based on Krashen's (1982) comprehensible input hypothesis that has been discussed in Section 4.3.1 above. Krashen argued that language learning occurs if students are immersed in comprehensible input through listening and/or reading without necessarily producing it. Krashen and Terrell (1983) who proposed the *Natural Approach* argued that learners will only produce L2 after they have learned some language through understandable input.

Lightbown, Halter, White, and Horst (2002) compared the effectiveness of teaching L2 to primary school children using a comprehension-based method and the Audiolingual method. After two years of studying, these researchers found that, L2 learners in the comprehension-based method program acquired as much L2 as those in the regular Audiolingual method program, both in comprehension and production or speaking (see also Trofimovich, Lightbown, Halter, & Song, 2009). These researchers concluded that comprehension-based methods for L2 acquisition helped L2 learners make considerable progress if they had sustained exposure to language they understand, in particular for L2 beginner learners. Comprehensible input of new language was seen as the foundation to language acquisition (Krashen 1982). Active listening and reading for meaning were valuable components of L2 teachers' pedagogical practices. Comprehension-based methods that developed into communicative approaches to teaching L2/FL will be addressed in the section that follows.

4.6.3 Communicative approach to language teaching

The "communicative approach" (Larsen-Freeman, 1990, p. 14) to language teaching also known "communicative language teaching" (CLT) (Larsen-Freeman, 2004, p. 121) was developed from the concept of "communicative competence" (Hymes, 1972, p. 286). Such a concept is concerned with both the processes and the

goals of L2 learning in the classroom setting (Savignon, 2002). Many believe that CLT integrates several language learning theories such as cognitive and social interactional theories (discussed in Section 4.3) in its practice (Larsen-Freeman, 1990). CLT centres on meaning in teaching language to learners. CLT is more learner-centred than the two methods discussed previously, therefore this approach may suit children if its principles are combined with knowledge about children as discussed earlier.

The concept of communicative competence comprises understanding of grammar and language use (Hymes, 1972). Hymes' (1972) concept of communicative competence was reconceptualised by other researchers such as Canale and Swain (1980), Bachman (1990) and Celce-Murcia, Dornyei, and Thurrell (1995), who proposed different elements of communicative competence.

The most cited concept of communicative competence was developed by Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) which includes four components: "grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and discourse competence and strategic competence" (Canale 1983, p. 6). According to Canale (1983) grammatical competence refers to "the mastery of language code" ... "such as vocabulary, word formation, sentence formation, pronunciation, spelling, and semantics" (p. 7). Sociolinguistic competence "addresses the extent to which utterances are produced and understood appropriately in different sociolinguistic contexts" (Canale, 1983, p. 7). Discourse competence is concerned with the "mastery of how to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve unified spoken or written text in different genres" (p. 9). Finally, strategic competence comprises "verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action for two main reasons" ... "to compensate for breakdowns in communications" and "to enhance the effectiveness of communication" (Canale, 1983, p. 10).

Another construct of communicative competence was offered by Bachman (1990) which consisted of four aspects of communicative language ability: "language competence", "strategic competence", ("the capacity for implementing the components of language competence in contextualised communicative language use"), "psycho-physiological mechanism, which enables the actual execution of language as a physical phenomenon", and "world knowledge" (Bachman, 1990, p. 81). Bachman considers that strategic competence is influenced by the "knowledge of the world of language users" (Bachman, 1990, p. 185).

A more contemporary model of communicative competence concept was proposed by Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) and later revised by Celce-Murcia (2007). This model consists of six components: “socio-cultural competence”, “discourse competence”, “linguistic competence”, “formulaic competence”, “interactional competence”, and “strategic competence” (Celce-Murcia, 2007, p. 47). Celce-Murcia’s (2007) model of communicative competence is presented in Figure 4.5 below.

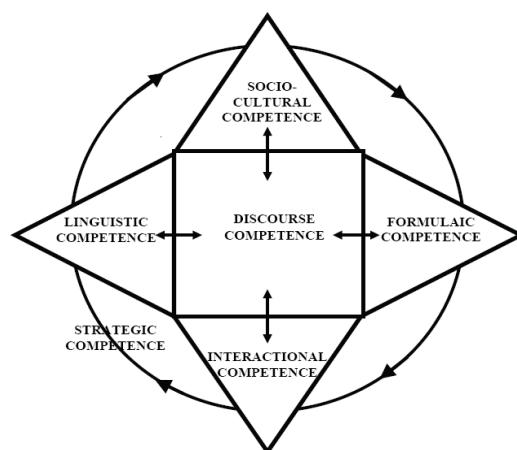


Figure 4.5 Model of Communicative Competence

Note. Adopted from Celce-Murcia (2007, p. 46)

Socio-cultural competence refers to pragmatic knowledge, the appropriateness of language use in terms of “social, cultural context and variety of language” (Celce-Murcia, 2007, p. 46). Discourse competence is central to communicative competence; it refers to “the selection and arrangement of words and utterances into a unified discourse to achieve intended communicative effect” (Celce-Murcia, 2007, p. 46). Linguistic competence includes “phonological, lexical, morphological and syntactic knowledge” (Celce-Murcia, 2007, p. 46). Formulaic competence comprises “those fixed and pre-fabricated chunks of language that speakers use heavily in everyday interaction”; it includes “routines, collocations, idioms, lexical frames” (Celce-Murcia, 2007, p. 48). Interactional competence is “knowledge of how to perform common speech acts; it also includes “conversational competence” (skills to open and close a conversation, changing topics and so forth), and “non-verbal/paralinguistic competence”. Finally, strategic competence deals with three strategies: “cognitive strategies”, “meta-cognitive strategies”, and “memory-related strategies” (Celce-Murcia, 2007, p. 51).

Although communicative language teaching (CLT) is conceptually developed from the understanding of communicative competence, many believe that it is not limited to a single theory. CLT utilises theories of learning and theories of language learning as discussed in Section 4.3.1 above. CLT combines to facilitate language teacher to teach language effectively based on learners' needs and interests as it is a learner-centred approach to teaching language. CLT is a set of macro strategies (Kumaravadivelu, 1994) or methodological principles (Long & Doughty, 2003), in which its operational procedure can be described in Figure 4.6 below. Wesche and Skehan (2002) described CLT practice arguing that it should show some features such as “activities that require frequent interaction among learners or with other interlocutors to exchange information and solve problems; use of authentic texts and communication activities linked to real world contexts, often emphasising links across written and spoken modes and channels; and an approach that is learner-centred in that it takes into account learners' backgrounds, language needs, and goals and generally allow learners some creativity and role in instructional decisions (p. 207)”.

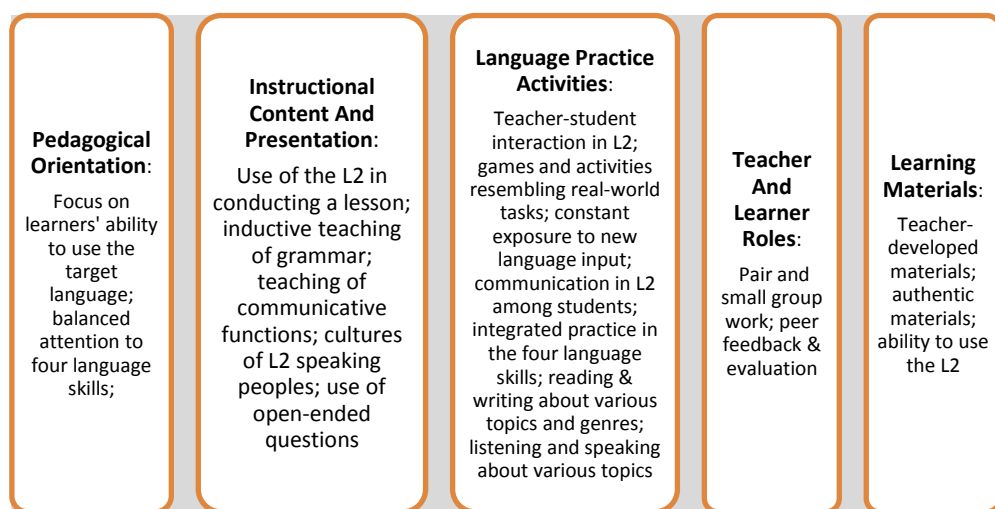


Figure 4.6 Description of Communicative Language Teaching

Adapted from Richards (2006a)

4.6.4 Research on CLT methodology

CLT methodology has been widely implemented in EFL contexts in non-English speaking countries. Research has shown that CLT methodology is optimally effective when the teachers who conduct the instructional activities are experienced and proficient in the target language (Prasongsook, 2010). However, a review of English teaching and learning at primary level in EFL contexts, carried out after English was

mandated in the curriculum for young learners in some countries including in Asia, found that there are difficulties that must be overcome for the effectiveness of CLT (Prasongsook, 2010).

Lightbown and Spada observed around 1000 primary students in 33 classes in Canada, where CLT principles were implemented and teachers rarely focused on language form (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). The teaching emphasised communicative competence focusing “on meaning rather than form with opportunities for spontaneous interaction, and the provision of rich and varied comprehensible input” (Lightbown & Spada, 2013, p. 173). They found in these classes that learners developed good listening comprehension and communicative confidence in English, but they continued to have problems with linguistic accuracy and complexity.

A study by Lee (2004) in primary schools in South Korea suggests that the poor performance of CLT as a teaching method is related several factors such as lack of English proficiency and confidence of EFL teachers in using English for classroom teaching. The study also revealed that limited opportunities to use English outside the classroom and large classes contributed to inefficiency of CLT practice. Although EFL teachers believed that CLT was suitable for children, in practice, they rarely used communicative activities due to the above mentioned factors. The use of CLT methodology was also researched in Taiwan (Scott & Liu, 2004) and in China (Yang, 2004). It was found that in Taiwan most of the primary EFL teachers still needed a deeper understanding of the CLT approach and more training on implementing the approach in the context of Taiwanese culture. The study also found that the teachers’ English proficiency was quite an issue for implementing CLT pedagogy in classrooms. A similar case was also found in China (Yang, 2004). In contrast, CLT methods have been claimed to be successful in Thailand, despite the fact that teachers’ still had limited proficiency in English and understanding of the CLT concept (Vacharaskunee, 2000; Prapaisit, 2004). Iemjinda (2003) also found that Thai primary EFL teachers were able to implement CLT methods effectively in their classrooms when they were provided with sufficient guidance and support. These studies suggested that there were some inconsistencies of CLT effectiveness in teaching English to children in primary schools. Teachers’ English competence and their perception of CLT pedagogy seemed to be crucial factors for effective implementation of the approach in classroom teaching. The section that follows discusses methods of teaching grammar to primary school children.

4.6.5 Summary

This section has discussed three major groups of language teaching methods including grammar-based methods, comprehension-based methods, and communicative language teaching, each of which has its own strengths and weaknesses. Language professionals understand that there is no one best method that suits all conditions of language teaching. The effectiveness of language teaching is determined by multiple factors including learners and teachers, methods, situations and conditions, facilities and so forth. Aspects of each of these methods have been shown to be effective for a particular purpose in a particular context. However, for teaching EFL to children of primary school age, a communicative competence-based approach, which is learner-centred, seems more suitable rather than grammar-based methods. Such a method has many relevant principles that address the specific characteristics of children discussed in Section 4.3 above. The section that follows reviews the issue of teaching grammar to primary school children.

4.7 Teaching Grammar to Primary School Students

The method of teaching grammar to EFL students in general and to young EFL learners in particular, is still debated. Some language experts such as Prabhu (1987) argued that explicit teaching of grammar should be avoided, while others (e.g., Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Nassaji, 2000) theorised that grammar teaching in EFL program was needed.

Those who avoided the explicit teaching of grammar seemed to be influenced by Krashen's (1985) learning versus acquisition, and that focusing on helping learners understand meaning suffices for L2 acquisition. Learners who receive sufficiently comprehensible input will learn communicative competence successfully. Krashen's monitor hypothesis also suggests that knowledge of grammatical form only functions as a monitor tool for learners to correct their language use.

However, the proponents of explicit grammar teaching argued that a meaning-only focus is inadequate for an L2 acquisition. Some researchers compared the effectiveness of deductive and inductive grammar teaching. Such studies have shown that learners taught using deductive approach outperformed those taught using inductive one (Lightbown, 1991). Other studies that used inductive grammar teaching involving immersion technique in which learners received only input and interactive opportunities

found that learners' output was lacking in accuracy (Williams, 1995). Base on this evidence, many argued that “form-focused instruction and communicative activities should be combined” (Larsen-Freeman, 2014, p. 253).

Grammar is best presented communicatively through “contextual structured input activities” (Lee & VanPattern, 2003, p. 142). In such activities, “students pay more attention to target forms, and the forms become more memorable” (Lee & VanPattern, 2003, p. 142). The fundamental assumption behind such activities is to encourage learners to absorb form through authentic use of language (Lee & VanPattern, 2003). The aim of such activities is to increase learners' consciousness of form and meaning.

Larsen-Freeman (2014) argued that new grammatical structures are best presented and practised based on structures that students already learned and in meaningful and interesting contextual texts. She described three components involved in a strategy of teaching grammar communicatively as seen in the Figure 4.7 below.

She proposed that various kinds of classroom interactions with visual aids should be used for students to learn and practise grammar in natural ways, first mechanically and then more meaningfully with the teacher playing the role of a knowledge provider and a guide. Moreover, Larsen-Freeman (2014) argued, “grammar is about form and one way to teach form is to give students rules; however, grammar is about much more than form, and its teaching is ill served if students are simply given rules” (Larsen-Freeman, 2014, p. 251). The section that follows reviews the role of classroom interaction in language teaching.

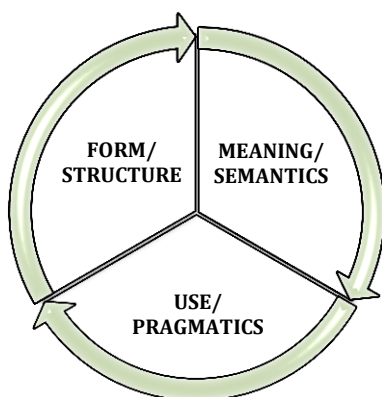


Figure 4.7 A Strategy for Teaching Grammar (adopted from Larsen-Freeman, 2014, p. 251)

4.8 Classroom Interaction in EFL Teaching

Classroom interaction is an integral part of L2 teaching; the nature of classroom interaction is what distinguishes different approaches to language teaching (Brinton, 2003; Nunan, 1992; Tsui, 2001). “Everything that happens in the classroom happens through a process of live person-to-person interaction” (Allwright, 1984, p. 156).

Classroom interactions between the teacher and children and between children and children suggest whether communicative competence learning is taking place or not in the classroom (Ur, 1996). Communicative competence learning belongs to the social process occurring during which children construct meaning, not only based on what they already know, but also from their interactions with others (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). Therefore, EFL teachers should provide greater learning time for children to interact in using the target language for communication (Savignon, 2002; Harmer, 2010). For this reason, CLT advocates argue that talking time is central to effective language teaching (Harmer, 2010); the more the students use the time to talk during the teaching-learning process in the classroom, the greater the chance of students being successful, and vice-versa. The more the teacher talks the less chance for the students to achieve the goal of the language learning (Harmer, 2010). That is to say, the success of EFL learning in the classroom context greatly depends on the provision of talking time given to learners to practise the language under the guidance of the teacher (Richards & Rodgers, 2003). Communicative competence is acquired through the communication activities emphasising meaning, not through form teaching (Savignon, 2002). This suggests that EFL teachers of primary schools should provide children with learning materials and activities that allow them to practise the input as much as possible to acquire communicative competence as outlined in the EFL curriculum.

Many language experts sequence classroom interactions in language teaching into three stages: presentation, practice and production (henceforth 3Ps). The development of 3Ps approach can be traced back to the mid-20th century, when it was derived from the Situational Language Teaching Method, developed in Britain (Criado, 2013). The 3Ps is normally used to teach language structures with “aural exposure and teacher modelling in P1; drills or controlled practice in P2; and the transference of the previously studied structures to different situations in P3” (Criado, 2013, p. 98). In Indonesia the 3Ps approach is similar to three stages of teaching (pre-learning, core-

learning and post-learning) which is encouraged not only to teach language but also other subject matters (Mendiknas, 2007b).

The 3Ps approach has been critiqued by several language experts such as Willis and Willis (1996), Skehan (1998), and White (1998) for being inconsistent with research in language acquisition. Skehan (1998) saw this methodology as basically an inadequate approach as it focuses more on form rather than on meaning. Skehan (1998) contended that once students focused their mental state towards the targeted form, it is difficult for them to focus on the message being communicated. Even at the production level, students will think that the production of particular form is the purpose, and their achievement is evaluated in terms of the capacity to produce such form. This approach prioritises mechanics of language rather than meaning. Students are encouraged to agree with the teacher expectation rather than with the exploitation of their own language use (Skehan, 1998).

Similar to the 3Ps approach, Harmer (2010) divided classroom interactions into three stages, “Engage”, “Study” and “Activate” (ESA). ESA is a blend of ideas and elements of principles of language teaching as applied in different approaches such as the Audiolingual Method, CLT, and Genre-Based Approach. ESA recognises the value of language exposure through comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985a) while still acknowledging that attention on language forms is useful in supporting language learning. In addition to believing in the students’ need for language exposure (Cameron, 2007), comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985b), and attention to language forms (Lightbown & Spada, 1990); ESA also considers the importance of learning motivation (Dörnyei, 2001), opportunity for language use (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2001), and students’ interests (Harmer, 2010).

The use of learning time in the classroom prioritises students’ talking time. The comparison of the use of learning time for each level of learning activities in ESA can be illustrated by Figure 4.8 below. The size of each box indicates the amount of talking time given students.

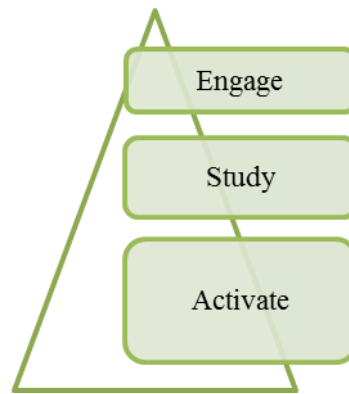


Figure 4.8 Description of Children Engagement in Learning

During the “engage” stage, the teacher builds up a situation describing authentic use of language input. After the “situation” is recognised and learned by learners, they will begin developing a concept related to meaning of the new input (Harmer, 2010). When the situation and the meaning of the input have been understood by learners, the teacher introduces the linguistic form of the input. Learners will practise to use the form naturally without help during the production stage (Harmer, 2010).

During the “study” stage, the teacher divides learning activities into two parts: controlled and free practice. During the controlled practice, the children can be immersed in mechanical production, repeating the target language. These activities range from the focus on and the practice of a single sound, words or phrases to sentence construction. The element of grammar is included in this section, presented inductively through a variety of practices that are engaging and meaningful (Harmer, 2010). In the free practice, children are required to think of how the target language is used and may be asked to manipulate the form being studied because children have already understood the form of the target language, but they need more practice to internalise the structure.

In the “activate” stage, the teacher designs language activities to get children to practise the language as freely and communicatively as they can, following the principles of CLT (Harmer, 2010). The teacher should not focus on a particular form or use vocabulary from a list that they have learned; instead, the teacher has children use any language appropriate for a given situation. Therefore, children get a chance to try out real language use with little or no restrictions. The teacher encourages children to use the target language by convincing them that any mistake they make belongs to the process of language learning that they should go through to arrive at the ultimate objective to use the language competently (Harmer, 2010).

This section has discussed a method of how EFL teachers can manage classroom interactions in light of students' and teacher's talking time in learning communicative competence in EFL program. The section that follows discusses classroom management in a broader sense related to EFL teaching in primary schools.

4.9 Classroom Management of EFL Teaching in Primary Schools

This section provides a short discussion of classroom management related to EFL teaching in primary schools. EFL teachers need to understand that classroom management is a factor in the success of teaching EFL to children (Harmer, 2010). In teaching general academic subjects, Darling-Hammond, Bransford, and LePage (2005) argued that knowledge of classroom management is an essential area the teacher needs in order to develop a strong set of pedagogical content knowledge. Knowledge of classroom management enables teachers to structure learning activities and interactions so that they are orderly, purposeful and based on shared understanding of what to do; it facilitates teachers to safeguard valuable time for students and to create a positive environment for effective teaching (Darling-Hammond, Bransford, et al., 2005). The teacher who has a strong set of classroom management strategies will use learning time efficiently for their students which will allow students to have a greater opportunity to succeed (Darling-Hammond, Bransford, et al., 2005).

Traditional classroom management involves discipline and control as well as punishment. It primarily aims at achieving class control and order (Duke, 1982). A more contemporary strategy of classroom management has changed to focus on the learning environment (Duke, 1982). The role of the teacher has altered from the traditional view of controlling learners to engaging learners. This move from control to engagement encompasses the various aspects of curriculum design including time allocation, use of space, materials, and auxiliary personnel (Duke, 1982).

The shift from the traditional to a more contemporary view of classroom management "has cast a new light to the EFL classroom management", in which the "ultimate goal is thus recognised as creating a positive climate for learning" (Yi, 2014, p. 129). Traditionally, EFL teachers tended to achieve control over the whole class by strict discipline; instructions are conveyed and the students follow them. In this type of classroom, "the teacher needs a well-controlled and strictly disciplined class simply because the language teaching is seen as a process of knowledge imparting" and not

necessarily engaging for students (Yi, 2014, p. 129). In the current view of L2/FL classroom management, the “priority is given to establishing an effective environment for communication rather than discipline, order, or control”, and the major tasks of language teachers are to “manage time and materials, create communicative needs, and involve students in classroom activities” (Rahimi & Asadollahi, 2012, p. 44). Teachers need to anticipate behaviour problems instead of solving them when they arise during the lesson (Richards & Rodgers, 2003). In addition, EFL teachers need to manage several elements such as the setting of the classroom, learning time partition, and the provision of activities that involve individuals and small group interaction (Harmer, 2007).

Research investigating elements of classroom management related to EFL teaching in primary school is minimal. However, there are several studies researching aspects of classroom management in teaching general subjects. Findings of such studies can inform EFL teachers in managing their classrooms effectively. Some of these studies are discussed below.

Berliner (1984) investigated how teachers maximise academic learning time for engaging students with a task. He divided instructional periods into three basic phases. In the first phase the teacher spent time introducing and organising the activity and the student spent time focusing their attention and developing an appropriate mindset for the activity. In the second period, students were productively engaged in the activity with teacher support. The third period was a wind-down period (Berliner, 1984). He found that high academic learning time occurred when the students were most productively engaged and is when most new learning or consolidation of learning occurs. Berliner reported that the classes in which medium to high levels of disruptions occurred, students spent about a third of their time attending to a learning task and only about a quarter of that time effectively engaged. It means that out of a 60 minute period, students may attend to the learning tasks for only 20 minutes, with only five minutes productively engaged. Therefore, in some classrooms only five minutes of each hour might be used for efficient learning and high academic learning time (Berliner, 1984). Research showed that effective classroom management can provide not only more learning opportunities for students, but also contribute to a sense of safety to children as well as decrease in unexpected misbehaviours in the classroom (Darling-Hammond, Bransford, et. al., 2005). A study by Marzano et al.(2006) indicated that of all variables that impact on learning, classroom management has the largest effect on students’

achievement. This study provided evidence that students cannot learn in a chaotic, poorly managed classroom; therefore, Marzano et al. (2006) argued the quality of classroom management was central to students' achievement.

Other studies related to aspects of classroom management investigated the quality of teacher-child relationships (e.g., Jerome, Hamre, & Pianta, 2009; Pianta, 1999). Such studies demonstrated that a positive teacher-child relationship played a significant role in children's learning (Jerome et al., 2009; Ostrosky & Jung, 2013). An excellent teacher-child relationship influenced children's achievement and peer interactions in schools (see Birch & Ladd, 1997; Jerome et al., 2009; Ostrosky & Jung, 2013). Positive teacher-child relationships lead to positive learning styles and fewer internalising and externalising problems in school (Birch & Ladd, 1997; Baker, 2006). Further, positive relationships between children and teachers influence the development of literacy competencies such as the reading ability of children in primary school (Pianta, 1999). Later studies by O'Connor and McCartney (2007) and Van Campen, Ewing, and Taylor (2009) found that warm a teacher-child relationship promotes children's academic achievement.

In in the field of EFL teaching, research investigating a warm relationship between EFL teachers and EFL learners is limited. However, the few relevant studies demonstrated that teacher-student relationship is central to effective EFL classroom learning. Effective EFL teachers began EFL classroom teaching by developing a positive relationship with their students (Brown, 2001). Brown (2001) argued that EFL teachers function not only as teachers, but also as friends, confidantes, and even parents (Brown, 2001). Rahimi and Asadollahi (2012) argued, "that the main step in the succession of practicalities for the EFL classroom is to grapple classroom management which includes a series of factors including how to physically arrange the classroom, teaching style, classroom energy, and time allocation for learning activities, and class size" (p. 44). Understanding the components of classroom management assists EFL teachers to improve their teaching strategies (Brown, 2001).

This section has briefly discussed traditional and more contemporary views of classroom management and the impact of different elements on learning. Conventional classroom management tended to involve discipline and control as well as punishment. On the other hand, a more contemporary perspective of classroom management focuses on establishing a friendly climate for effective learning. The teacher's role has shifted

“from control to management” including “management of time, space, materials, auxiliary personnel, and students” (Duke, 1982, p. 128). Research has shown that positive teacher-child relationships are an important aspect of classroom management contributing to effective teaching and successful learning as shown by students’ achievement. Such research is important and relevant to EFL teaching in primary schools.

The section that follows will discuss perspectives of language assessment, another essential aspect of EFL teaching knowledge that will be examined in this study.

4.10 Assessing Children’s Progress in EFL Learning

Assessment is an integral part of EFL teaching knowledge. At the primary school level, assessment plays a key role in keeping track of children’s achievement of language learning and analysing “their strengths and weaknesses” (McKay, 2006, p. 5). This section will discuss purposes, principles and approaches to language assessment suitable for an EFL teaching program in primary schools based on the characteristics of children addressed in Section 4.3 above.

4.10.1 Purposes of EFL assessment in primary schools

In the field of L2 teaching, the terms evaluation, assessment, and testing are often used interchangeably although they do not mean the same thing (McKay, 2006). Testing is just one part of assessment. Assessment and evaluation are more general concepts. Evaluation refers to the process of gathering information in order to determine the extent to which a language programme meets its goals (Canale & Swain, 1980). Relevant information can be teachers’ and parents’ opinions, textbook difficulty, exam results, and children’s attitudes. Some of the tools of the evaluation process are tests, questionnaires, textbook analysis, and observation. Assessment is a general term which includes all methods used to gather information about students’ knowledge, ability, understanding, attitudes, and motivation. Assessment can be carried out using a number of instruments (e.g., tests, self-assessment), and can be formal or informal (McKay, 2006).

In EFL teaching, assessment may have several purposes. Generally, assessment should reflect the goals and objectives of the EFL curriculum, and is influenced by understandings of language learning embedded in the curriculum. If the EFL curriculum

aims at promoting language use communicatively such as in the case in the Indonesian EFL curriculum, children need opportunities to use the target language meaningfully, and hence assessing EFL ability through the target language-use tasks is the most appropriate and accepted way to assess EFL learning (McKay, 2006).

More specifically, EFL assessment has several purposes. In Indonesia, based on the communicative EFL syllabus, at the primary level, assessment theoretically aims to monitor and aid children's progress, to provide pupils with evidence of their achievement and improve motivation, to better plan future work, to organise remedial teaching when necessary, and to provide information to parents and school authorities (Muhammad, 2013). However, the reality of classroom practice is little known because research in this area is very limited.

Ioannou-Georgiou and Pavlou (2004) argued that "EFL teachers need to be constantly aware of what children know, what difficulties they are experiencing, and how best to help them" (p. 5). The assessment outcomes inform EFL teachers how to help individual children. On the pupil side, the assessment results provide them with tangible evidence of their achievement. Achieving short-term goals (e.g., knowing the colours, being able to tell the time) may increase pupils' motivation which can make them persistent in learning (Ioannou-Georgiou & Pavlou, 2004). Results of assessment can also assist pupils to concentrate on certain aspects requiring more effort before they can reach a long term or short term goals. "Becoming aware of the progress expected of them within a given time-frame can motivate children, as they see themselves getting closer to their goal and when they have positive assessment results, they feel their efforts are worthwhile" (Ioannou-Georgiou & Pavlou, 2004, p. 6).

The information obtained from assessment helps EFL teachers evaluate their own program too, to ascertain the effectiveness of their teaching. They are then able to plan, modifying aspects of their teaching (books, materials, and methodology) as necessary, and develop techniques and methods for responding to the children's individual needs (Ioannou-Georgiou & Pavlou, 2004).

Most fundamentally, assessment should provide the teacher with the information of the development of children's language skills (Ioannou-Georgiou & Pavlou, 2004). Although language often involves the use of all four skills in an integrated way, in assessment the teacher may want to consider each skill separately, so that they can

examine the children's progress and/or detect problems in a particular skill. This can sometimes be difficult because assessing one of the language skills often requires the use of another. In such cases EFL teachers will need to ensure that their main focus is on the skill they are assessing (McKay, 2006, p. 145). The section that follows will review principles in assessing children's progress in L2/FL skills.

4.10.2 Principles of assessment of children's EFL skills

Before assessing children's progress in L2/FL skills, it is important to review some principles that relate to how children learn language best as has been discussed in Section 3.5. This section discussed that children learn L2/FL in social contexts; they learn L2/FL skills by interacting with other children or helpful adults, therefore assessing their language skills must entail this way of learning. In other words, assessing children's L2/FL progress must centre on learning, as Cameron (2007) terms it "learning-centred perspective" (p. 218). Thus, L2/FL teachers must consider how assessment can support children's L2/FL learning by asking questions such as: "How can the process and outcomes of assessment motivate learners?", "How can an assessment activity provide a helpful model of language use?", "How can an assessment activity, and feedback from it, support further learning?", "How can the outcomes of assessment help teachers plan more effective lessons", and "How can the outcomes of assessment inform the evaluation and improvement of course and programs?" (Cameron, 2007, p. 220).

Moreover, acknowledging the characteristics of primary school children discussed in Section 4.3 above, the assessment methods should meet certain requirements. For example, "the tasks should take into consideration children's physical, social, and cognitive development", "the tasks should be appealing to the age and interest of children and all language should be used in everyday context, matching the way in which they process language", "many types of assessment should be used, and taking into consideration the perspectives of pupils, parents and the teacher", "both the tasks and the forms of feedback should underline what they can do instead of what they cannot in order to encourage further learning", "the pupil should, at least under some circumstances, be given support in carrying out the tasks", "the activities used in assessment should be good learning practices and serve as a tool to diagnose learning and teaching problems", and "tasks should be performance-based, requiring students to

perform authentic tasks such as giving oral reports, writing essays, cooperative group work, and problem solving” (Yildirim & Orsdemir, 2013, p. 562).

4.10.3 Approaches to assessing children’s EFL progress

To assess children’s progress in the target language skills, EFL teachers need special approaches informed by knowledge of the child development features discussed in Section 3.5. First, children grow “cognitively, socially, emotionally, and physically”; “these factors need to be considered since they can influence children’s motivation and concentration spans for a given task” (McKay, 2006, p. 24). Second, children develop “literacy knowledge and skills as they are learning a second language; they may be developing literacy in their first language simultaneously or their literacy understandings may not be transferring to the second language” (McKay, 2006, 24). Third, young learners are “vulnerable to failure and criticism, and, thus, require careful attention” (McKay, 2006, 24). Considering special characteristics of young language learners, Shabaan (2001) suggested “the need for EFL teachers to use a variety of types of approaches to assessment, especially non-threatening informal techniques, with children learners” (p. 8). “Some of the most commonly used types or methods are: portfolios, conferences, demonstrations, self-assessment, peer-assessment, projects and performance tasks” (Yildirim & Orsdemir, 2013, p. 563). Rixon (2007) also proposed similar approaches including: observation, portfolios, self-assessment, peer-assessment, take-home tasks, projects, structured assessment tasks, conferencing, and traditional testing.

The teacher can observe the pupils at every single lesson and make dozens of judgements every day. McKay (2006) divided observations into “incidental and planned observation” (p. 153). Incidental observation may occur during the lesson. The teacher observes children during “oral interaction, drafting process in writing or reading” (p. 154). Planned observation is usually conducted systematically using an observation tool such as “checklists or rating scales” (p. 154).

A language portfolio assessment is a collection of samples of work produced by the child over a period of time (Hasselgreen, 2005; Little, 2005). These samples can include written work, drawings, projects, a record of books read, recordings (audio or video), test results, self-assessment records, and teacher and parent comments (Cameron, 2007). The children can be ultimately responsible for their own portfolio.

The choice of what goes into the portfolios is based on specific criteria agreed on by the teacher and the children. Keeping a portfolio is an ongoing process which includes selection of work samples, portfolio review, withdrawal of samples, and deciding on new additions (Cameron, 2007). A portfolio is useful to teachers when they are carrying out their assessment or profiling, because it offers them a more complete picture of a child's work and development than any other assessment technique. It is also important to parents, future teachers, and school authorities because it gives them a complete picture of what the child is able to do and enables them to see the child's progress over the year. Primarily, however, the portfolio should be for the children themselves; it can be an exciting project and showcase for their new-found knowledge and ability (Cameron, 2007).

Self-assessment is essential as it can improve children's responsibility in monitoring their own progress and to set personal learning objectives (Little, 2005). Self-assessment may encourage pupils to be active learners central to a learner-centred teaching (Harris, 1997). It also gives children an insight into the assessment criteria used by others. Furthermore, the children benefit from feeling that they have a say in their assessment. This gives them a certain sense of empowerment (Little, 2005). Children are able to use basic criteria to assess themselves but they may need more guidance and time than older learners. Expect children to take a long time before they are able to use self-assessment effectively - be patient and persistent (Harris, 1997). It is important that the teacher recognises the amount of time and guidance the children will need before becoming familiar with each task type. Some of the most widely used self-assessment methods are: portfolios, questionnaires, conferencing, graphic representations, and dialogue journals (Harris, 1997; Little, 2005). They can all be used with children, even if the process has to be carried out initially in the mother tongue (McKay, 2006).

Learning and assessment can be more fun when it is done with peers (Ioannou-Georgiou & Pavlou, 2004). Peer-assessment can positively influence the classroom atmosphere because children learn to respect and accept each other through assessing each other's work (Ioannou-Georgiou & Pavlou, 2004). Peer-assessment fosters the feeling that the classroom is a community working towards the same goal. Over time, this sense of community carries over into other classroom activities as well. It minimises the negative aspects of competition and encourages trust among children (Brown, 2004). The children also discover that they can learn from their peers, not just

from their teacher, and gain further insight and responsibility in applying assessment criteria (Brown, 2004). As is the case with self-assessment, children may take some time before they can carry out peer-assessment effectively (Brown, 2004). Some children may continue to be self-centred and immature, but repeated practice of peer-assessment, objective assessment criteria, and the presence of a teacher who is fair and appreciative of the children's efforts, will eventually lead to the resolution of most personality/maturity problems (Brown, 2004).

Role-play is a good strategy to be used to assess children's progress in learning communicative competence since it combines oral competence and physical movements (Shaaban, 2001). Primary school children are comfortable and motivated if assessed through this technique (Shaaban, 2001).

There are certain advantages to using traditional tests such as multiple-choice questions, true-false statements, and cloze-tests. They are objective, easy to mark, and easy to prepare. Nevertheless, the traditional testing philosophy is not an ideal approach for children (Ioannou-Georgiou & Pavlou, 2004). Children see tests as intimidating and stressful. Furthermore, teachers should bear in mind that traditional tests do not tell us much about what children can actually do (McKay, 2006). All they usually give the children as feedback is a grade or mark. Any information on children's progress derived from traditional tests should usually be complemented with information gathered through other assessment techniques (Ioannou-Georgiou & Pavlou, 2004).

In Indonesia, the guidelines for EFL curriculum implementation for all levels of education include all of the above assessment approaches. These approaches are defined in a regulation issued by the Minister of National Education (Nuh, 2013b). EFL assessment is competence-based using a variety of approaches such as authentic assessment, portfolio, self-assessment, observation, peer-assessment, and journaling (Muhammad, 2013). However, whether these approaches are implemented at the level of classroom practice is not known as research in this area is limited. The section that follows will briefly discuss research on assessment practices in primary schools.

4.10.4 Research in EFL assessment in primary schools

Research investigating the reality of EFL assessment practice in primary schools is rare (Cheng, 2004; Rea-Dickins, 2004). Rea-Dickins and Rixon (1999) surveyed 120 teachers and trainers from European countries and found out that more than 90 percent

of these participants indicated that they did assess children to help their teaching. However, the survey found there was no consistency between the curriculum goals and the assessment tools. The focus of the assessment was on children's achievements in the language learning rather than on other curricular goals such as increased language awareness or social awareness. Test formats traditionally focused on single items of vocabulary and grammar through single sentences. The content and the approach of this type of assessment differed from the classroom experience of children who have learned EFL through participation in discourses such as stories and songs (Cameron, 2007). As the assessment used the paper-pencil-based approach, oral language competence which was the focus of communicative competence teaching in the primary school context was not assessed. This was inconsistent with the goal of L2 teaching using a communicative syllabus (Cameron, 2007).

In Indonesia, the EFL assessment practice at the primary school level has not been informed by research; there has been no literature or research finding published concerning this area, and this study attempts to fill this gap. But at the secondary school level, as has been described in Chapter 2, some studies found that the EFL communicative syllabus often becomes in practice a formal grammar-based syllabus, because the examinations at year 9 and at year 12 are grammar-based, and head-teachers demand that students are prepared for such examinations (Lie, 2007). From year 7 students are tested every term and every year and the marks are reported to school administrators and parents. The test results do not impact on teaching as the next stage of the syllabus or course book will be tested in the next examination (Lie, 2007).

In conclusion, the EFL assessment in primary schools should be based on children's characteristics. The assessment outcomes must be used to support better teaching and learning rather than just reporting to school authorities and parents. The assessment should be anxiety free as possible and focused on communicative competence aligned with the curriculum goals. A variety of methods should be used to assess one language skill as they involve a complex array of skills. The tasks used in assessment should be relevant to learning activities experienced by children (Hasselgreen, 2005). Overall, assessment should provide positive effects for children learning and provide valuable information to educators, parents, and administrators (Canale & Swain, 1980).

4.11 Summary

This section has reviewed related literature relevant to the second focus of the current study, the EFL teaching knowledge required for teaching English to children in primary schools. Several broad areas of knowledge related to EFL teaching have been addressed including knowledge of children as language learners; content and curriculum knowledge of EFL teachers; specific methods for teaching EFL to children; classroom management and assessment. This section has argued for and distinguished a different set of EFL teaching knowledge required by language teachers for teaching English to students of primary school from that needed to teach older learners. The next chapter outlines the research paradigm and approaches underpinning the current research, how the research has been conducted, e.g., how the data were collected, analysed and reported.

CHAPTER 5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

To develop an appropriate research design, the researchers have to select a research paradigm for their investigation corresponding to their beliefs about reality. Thoughtfully subjecting such beliefs to an investigation will reveal the epistemological and methodological options that are possible (Mills, Bonner, & Francis, 2006). In this chapter, I outline the research paradigm, methodology and design underpinning this study.

As has been outlined in the introductory chapter to this thesis, the aim of this study was to investigate the phenomenon of Indonesian secondary-trained EFL teachers teaching English to students of primary schools. Specifically, the study was designed to investigate the motivational factors that led secondary-trained EFL teachers to come to teach English in primary schools, and to analyse the EFL teaching knowledge these teachers use to work with children in primary classrooms. To revisit Chapter 1, the overarching questions of this research study were:

- 1) How did secondary-trained EFL teachers in Indonesia come to teach English in primary classrooms? and
- 2) How do secondary-trained EFL teachers approach EFL teaching in primary classrooms?

From the overarching questions above, specific questions arose which became the basis for the study. The first question developed into two research sub-questions as follows:

- 1) What motivational factors led secondary-trained EFL teachers to enter teaching as a career in Indonesia?
- 2) What motivational factors led secondary-trained EFL teachers to work in primary schools?

The second question generated the following three sub-research questions:

- 3) How do secondary-trained EFL teachers view primary school students as language learners?
- 4) How do secondary-trained EFL teachers view the content knowledge and curriculum goals of EFL teaching in primary schools?
- 5) How do secondary-trained EFL teachers teach primary school students English?

This research could have been conducted using quantitative methodology, which is quite common in the Indonesian context (Mulyasa, 2009) involving data collection procedures such as using a set of survey questionnaires sent to a large number of EFL teachers working in different primary schools. Respondents to such a survey would have indicated their answers to a number of questions related to the research questions using a survey instrument such as Likert Scales (Merriam, 1998; Neuman, 1997). The data also could have been collected through classroom observations using a list of language teaching principles and current approaches to language teaching. This might have enabled judgments of the performance of the participants in using such approaches in their practice. The data could have been statistically presented in graphs and analysed by examining the frequency of each variable in the research data (Merriam, 1998; Neuman, 1997). The findings could determine whether the participants were teaching effectively or not.

However, the results of such a study may not be useful in understanding the particular social phenomena of significant numbers of secondary trained EFL teachers coming to work with primary school children, which has been explained in Chapter 1, which is the contemporary situation in Indonesia. Rather, the current research is based on the premise that a qualitative study offers a wider opportunity to explore such a social and educational phenomenon from the point of view of participants who embody it; and this will offer educators and policy makers who are concerned with the improvement of EFL teaching in Indonesia an authentic basis on which to make recommendations concerning the existing phenomenon (Denzin & Lincoln, 2002).

Merriam (1998); Wiersma (1998); and Denzin and Lincoln (2002) argued that to illuminate the meaning individuals make of their experiences regarding a social phenomenon, the researcher needs to use a qualitative approach with a small sample size. Patton (2002) argued that the researcher using such an approach to research does not need to collect numerical statistical data but instead captures details of participants' "perceptions, experiences, opinions, motivations, knowledge, activities, actions, ... written materials such as official publications, reports, personal diaries, letters, artistic work, photographs and many more" related to the phenomenon (p. 4). Using this rationale in order to understand the phenomenon of secondary-trained EFL teachers teaching English to primary school students, and to illuminate their perceptions regarding the motivational factors that led them to choose the EFL teaching profession, and the EFL teaching knowledge they utilised to approach the phenomenon, I chose to

use a qualitative interpretive phenomenological approach to conduct this research including writing the report of its results. Such interpretive phenomenological research has been used to investigate social phenomena through the interpretation of texts such as interviews provided by individuals who embody the phenomenon (Maggs-Rapport, 2000). The aim of such a study is to illuminate details of the participants' experiences in order to reconstruct realities of the phenomenon (Laverty, 2003). Interpretive phenomenological study is located within a research paradigm called constructivism (Guba & Lincoln, 2005).

The movement of secondary-trained EFL teachers who come to teach English to primary school students has become an educational phenomenon in the field of EFL teaching in the context of Indonesia because these teachers are not trained to teach English to young learners such as primary school age children. In terms of qualifications, these teachers have no problem in meeting the requirement of the profession; they are qualified teachers. Furthermore, there has been no specific educational regulation in Indonesia that could prohibit them from working in primary schools. However, because they have been trained to work in secondary schools, there is the important issue: that of why they choose to work in this area. Investigation of the EFL teaching knowledge they use to teach children English in classrooms involves another significant issue of how they teach. Both questions characterise a phenomenological research study.

In this chapter, I discuss the research paradigm, methodology and research design employed in the current study. The methods and instruments of data gathering and data analyses are described as well as stages and processes involved in the study based on the interpretive phenomenological approach. The chapter also addresses a key feature of interpretive phenomenology that is the use of my prior knowledge in conducting this interpretive phenomenological study. My prior knowledge includes my professional experience in the field of EFL teaching as an EFL teacher educator and my knowledge of literature about contemporary theories and practice of EFL teaching. Interpretive phenomenological researchers use their prior knowledge to guide them to elicit research questions relevant to the context of the phenomenon being researched, so that research results can fill the knowledge gap in the field being studied and at the same time be useful in solving contemporary problems in the field such as English language teaching in Indonesia today. The use of prior knowledge for an interpretive phenomenological study is also indispensable in the development of the literature

review, data collection, and data analyses. As mentioned in Chapter 1, methodologically, this study was framed by interpretive phenomenology, theories of motivational factors as well as theories that inform a set of the knowledge base required for teaching EFL to young language learners. These theoretical frameworks are needed to construct an understanding of the phenomenon being studied (Laverly, 2003).

To begin this chapter, the section that follows reviews the constructivism paradigm underpinning this interpretive phenomenological research study (Lather, 1992; Guba & Lincoln, 2005).

5.2 The Constructivism Paradigm

Research or inquiry is guided by a set of beliefs. This set of beliefs, or worldview, is known as a research paradigm. A paradigm is essentially a way of thinking about the world. Guba and Lincoln (1994) defined a paradigm as a “basic belief system based on ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions” (p. 70). These authors asserted that there is no way to prove that one research paradigm is superior to the others, which is why different paradigms have been debated. These authors contended that ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions are so interrelated within research paradigms that answering one question limits how the others can be answered. Beliefs or views of the world around us have been debated in the field of philosophy throughout history dating back at least as to early Greek times.

The term ontology originates from the Greek word for “to be”. Ontology refers to beliefs about the nature of reality (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). In philosophical terms it refers to the study of our existence and the fundamental nature of reality or being. Beliefs about the nature of reality therefore determine what can be known about it (Killam, 2013). From an ontological perspective, Bailey (1997) discussed two dominant perceptions of reality, “realism” and “relativism”. It is important to note that there are also perceptions of reality that fall in-between these two strongly contrasting views of reality. Realism refers to the belief in a single reality; it emphasises objectivity; thus it underpins research paradigms such as positivism and post positivism. Relativism refers to the belief in plural realities; it rejects objectivity of single reality, thus it is central to research paradigms such as constructivism and transformative paradigms (Mertens, 2015).

Epistemology and methodology are driven by ontological beliefs – realism and relativism (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Epistemology is more philosophical in nature than methodology. It examines the relationship between knowledge and the researcher

during discovery. It therefore refers to how individuals come to know what they know. Ontological beliefs determine how objective the relationship between the researcher and what can be known should be.

Methodology is the way people go about discovering knowledge in a systematic way (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). It is more specific and practice-based than epistemology. The appropriate methodology of a research study is determined by the researcher's ontological and epistemological beliefs, hence, research methods like experiments or interviews have varying degrees of objectivity.

Constructivism is a research paradigm that questions objectivity and the idea of a single reality, "asserting instead that realities are social constructions of the mind, and that there exist as many such constructions as there are individuals" (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 43). Due to rejecting strict objectivity in researching realities, constructivists adopt the relativism ontological tradition (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Relativists believe that reality cannot exist without context. Relativists argue that there are multiple constructions of reality (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). These realities are influenced by experiences and social interactions. Relativists argue that conceptions, e.g., "rationality, truth, reality, right, good, or norm" (Mills, Bonner, & Francis, 2006, p. 26) need to be seen "as relative to a specific conceptual scheme, theoretical framework, paradigm, form of life, society, or culture . . . there is a non-reducible plurality of such conceptual schemes" (Bernstein, 1983, p. 8). Each individual therefore, has their own reality that is considered correct. Relativism is the ontological perspective within qualitative or constructivism paradigm of research (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

Creswell (2007) argued that constructivism is a way in which human beings make meaning of their world. People construct meanings based on their own perceptions of experiences. The implication of this belief to research is that the researcher instead of narrowing meanings is required to look for the complexity of the views they embrace. Thus, ontologically, constructivists believe that there is no singular reality. Individuals and/or societies have different perspectives on reality, some of which may be interrelated, and views of substances may change all through the life time (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). Schwandt (2001) portrays constructivism understanding as follows:

In a fairly unremarkable sense, we are all constructivists if we believe that the mind is active in the construction of knowledge. Most of us would agree that knowing is not passive – a simple imprinting of sense data on the mind—but

active; mind does something with those impressions, at the very least forms abstractions or concepts. In this sense, constructivism means that human beings do not find or discover knowledge so much as construct or make it. (p. 197).

In embracing the relativism perspective, epistemologically, constructivism underscores a subjective rather than objective interrelationship between the researcher and the researched and the reconstruction of understanding of a phenomenon (Mills, Bonner, & Francis, 2006). Constructivists believe that individuals or groups construct meaning or reality based on interactions with the social environment. They believe that people do not find knowledge, rather they construct it. It is therefore possible to have multiple socially constructed realities that may be all considered correct (Killam, 2013). As noted above, constructivists reject the existence of an objective reality. Therefore, epistemologically, constructivists view the researcher and participants as co-creators of the findings. They emphasise the involvement and interaction between the researcher and participants (Killam, 2013).

The methodologies used in research under the constructivism paradigm, therefore, are based on interactions between and among the researcher and participants. A consensus is sought within the findings (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). One's reality is determined by one's place in the world which is affected by many constructs such as language, perceptions and experience, culminating in meaning (Klein and Myers, 1999). Qualitative methods like interviews, observations and document reviews are usually used, and the context is well described. Guba and Lincoln (2005) discussed that qualitative methods used in the constructivism paradigm can be hermeneutic and dialectical, in which the researcher undertakes the endeavour to gain compound understanding that may result in complete interpretations of meanings concerning the phenomenon being studied. The overall purpose of such a study is to understand and to illuminate meanings people give to social activities, as well as to acknowledge the relationship of those meanings to their behaviours. Using prior knowledge, as noted earlier, such a study constructs reality based on the interpretations of research data gained through observations, interviews, document reviews provided by the research participants (Mertens, 2015). Researchers embracing the constructivism paradigm in their research consider that researchers' backgrounds or prior knowledge to certain extent have an influence on the interpretation of the phenomenon when they try to understand the world through the experience of individuals involved in the phenomenon

(Burnard, 2008). However, such backgrounds or prior knowledge should not be used to direct the stories of the participants describing the phenomenon being studied.

In short, constructivism, as a theory of knowledge and as a research paradigm, is rooted in the assumption that knowledge is subjective and socially-constructed by individuals or groups in social contexts (Gill, Ashton, & Algina, 2004). Constructivists view knowledge as a complex construct, which is tentative, and that needs to be actively critiqued (Gill et al., 2004). Essential to the constructivism-based research is relativism; hence it relies as much as possible on the participants’ perspectives in order to construct knowledge of the phenomenon being studied. The meaning that the participants give to a situation obtained through interactions with other people involved in the phenomenon is a useful component for the creation of this socially constructed knowledge (Burnard, 2008). This premise is the basic assumption of the constructivism paradigm.

The implication of the assumption above is then researchers have to “understand the complex world of lived experience” of individuals and meaning they construct from such experience (Merten, 2015, p. 16). As such constructivists place the research product as the values of researchers and the researched, which are wholly interrelated one to another (Schwandt, 2001). Guba and Lincoln (2005) described the philosophical construct of constructivism (ontology, epistemology, and methodology) as in Table 5.1 below.

Table 5.1 *Philosophical Construction of Constructivism Paradigm*

Constructivism Paradigm		
Ontologically relativism-local and specific constructed and co-constructed realities	Epistemologically transactional/ subjectivist; co-created findings	Methodologically hermeneutic/ dialectical

Adapted from Guba & Lincoln (2005, p. 193)

In the case of this study, my aim was to investigate a contemporary phenomenon in the Indonesian social educational context in which secondary-trained EFL teachers come to teach English to students of primary schools. As argued above, instead of measuring participants’ knowledge through quantitative methodology, judging their understanding of EFL teaching knowledge, and comparing their responses to their practices, my overall aim was to explore their points of views regarding how they came to teach in primary schools and how they approach the work of English teaching at the

primary level. Teachers’ motivational factors for selecting the EFL teaching career and the EFL teaching knowledge they use to work with children are connected to their individualities. Therefore, to study the phenomenon of secondary-trained EFL teachers teaching English to children, I needed to analyse how these teachers came to teaching, and how they viewed children, content knowledge and curriculum goals in order to develop engaging strategies to approach EFL teaching in primary schools (Burnard, 2008). The phenomenon can be best investigated using qualitative methodology. In other words, in order to understand motivational factors that led secondary-trained EFL teachers to teaching English in primary schools, and how they approach EFL teaching to children in the classroom when they have not been professionally prepared for it in preservice teacher education, then I need to listen to how these teachers who embody the phenomenon describe it, and observe how they undertake their teaching practice (van Manen, 1997).

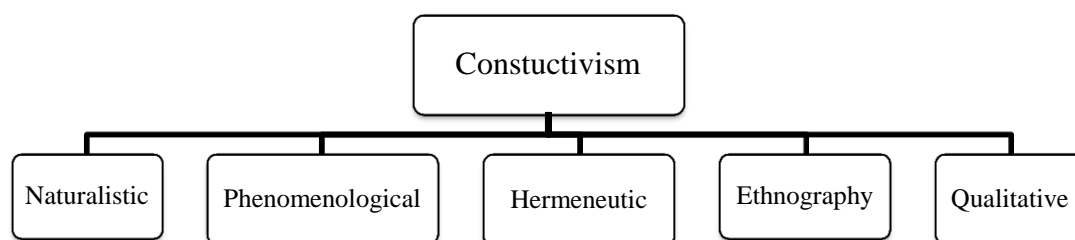


Figure 5.1 Constructivism Paradigm and Approaches to Research

Adapted from Guba & Lincoln (2005, p. 193)

Guba and Lincoln (2005) argued that the constructivism paradigm underpins several approaches to research (as seen in Figure 5.1 above) such as hermeneutic or interpretive phenomenology developed by Heidegger (1962) and Gadamer (1976). The concept of hermeneutics has been used to interpret historical documents in order to discern the author’s meaning within the context of time (Mertens, 2015).

The concept of hermeneutics has been used recently to argue that “all meaning, including the meanings of research findings is fundamentally interpretive; all knowledge in this sense is developed within a pre-existing social milieu, ever interpreting and reinterpreting itself” (Mertens, 2015, p. 16). This concept is central to the interpretive phenomenological approach used in this study. Interpretive phenomenology is also often called hermeneutic phenomenology. The section that follows discusses this approach in detail.

5.3 Interpretive phenomenology

Phenomenology as a research method was initially developed based on the work of Edmund Husserl (1859-1838). Husserl (1970) believed that experience should be examined in the way that it occurs. Smith and Smith (1995) argued that Husserlian phenomenology (often called descriptive phenomenology) has been generally defined as the study of “conscious experience as experienced from the first-person point of view, along with relevant conditions of the experience” (p. 1). Lavery (2003) explained that Husserlian phenomenology studies lived experience of how a phenomenon appears to the consciousness of the person.

Moustakas (1994) claimed that the term phenomenology is rooted in two Greek words “phaenesthai” and “phaino”, meaning “to flare up”, “to show itself”, “to appear” ... “to bring to light, to place in brightness, to show itself in itself, the totality of what lies before us in the light of the day” (p. 26). Sokolowski (2000) argued that phenomenology is defined from the Greek words “phenomenon” and “logos”, meaning “it signifies the activity of giving an account, giving a ‘logos’, of various phenomena, of the various ways in which things can appear” (p. 13). As such, phenomenology is the framework of social studies and social science learning (Moustakas, 1994).

Selvi (2008) defines Husserlian phenomenology as the study of phenomena of human experience. Creswell (2003) argued that phenomenology is best suited to understanding several individuals’ common or shared experiences of a phenomenon. The term lived experience is applied, since the lived experiences are those that reveal the immediate previous life world of the participants.

As described in Table 5.1 above, according to Guba and Lincoln (2005) phenomenology as a social science research approach has its philosophical constructs in the constructivism paradigm. As such, ontologically, phenomenology embraces the belief of relativism in that a reality is individual or social-constructed (Finlay, 2009). Phenomenologists view a person without any essence or fixed identity but rather something that comes into being through their actions in the world. This is always an embodied way in relation to others (Moustakas, 1994). Thus, epistemologically, phenomenologists believe that the way people learn knowledge is affected by the subjective interrelationship between them and the world (Mills, Bonner, & Francis, 2006).

There are two major variations of phenomenology: descriptive and interpretive versions. In the descriptive phenomenology, which was developed based on the work of Husserl (1970), the researcher attends to the descriptions of phenomenon provided by the participants, but goes through a rigorous process of dissecting descriptions to discover the essential meanings and interrelationships. Ontologically, descriptive phenomenology focuses on what it means to be.

Kockelmans (1967) asserted that descriptive phenomenology is concerned with the a priori nature of perceptions, judgments, and feelings of an individual and with the meaning of phenomena based on individuals' perception. Descriptive phenomenology deals with things themselves on an individual basis. The foundational concern of descriptive phenomenology is the consciousness and experience as it is happening (Moustakas, 1994).

The Husserlian concept of phenomenology developed a distinctive method for researching social science issues, which emphasises faithfulness to the original account of the phenomenon (Lopez & Willis, 2004). The descriptive phenomenology as a qualitative approach studies lived experience; it is concerned with "meaning and the way in which meaning arises in experience" (Langdrige, 2007, p. 10). As such a descriptive phenomenology investigates people's perceptions or views of the world, and developing understanding from their analyses. This results in a focus on participants' experience and the things as they appear.

In terms of methodological perspective, descriptive phenomenology emphasises bracketing to ensure that the researcher's preconceptions and theoretical position do not influence his/her analysis. Methodologically, bracketing is an essential concept to Husserlian descriptive phenomenology (Creswell, 2003). In using the bracketing method, the researcher sets aside his/her prejudgments about the topic as far as possible, and approaching the account as if for the first time. Later the role of the investigator is recognised more reflexively through the reflections on their influence on the findings. As noted above, the primary goal of bracketing prior knowledge is to limit the researcher's prior views, which may distort the process and results of the study (Moustakas, 1994). Hence, within the descriptive phenomenology, the researcher is to describe purely the phenomenon under the study, avoiding interference of his/her prejudices (van Manen, 1997).

The second version of phenomenology (which underpinned this study) is called interpretive phenomenology. Interpretive phenomenology originated from the work of

hermeneutic philosophers such as Martin Heidegger (1889-1976), a student of Edmund Husserl, and Hans-George Gadamer (1900-2002). It is called interpretive phenomenology, because methodologically, it emphasises interpretations of lived experiences of participants in order to produce deeper understanding of the phenomenon under research. As such, interpretive phenomenologists reject the bracketing method proposed by Husserl (1970).

Epistemologically, interpretive phenomenology also differs from the descriptive phenomenology developed by Husserl (1970). Interpretive phenomenology as a research approach to investigating social phenomena focuses on the epistemological side as it emphasises the interpretation of what it means to exist in the world (Heidegger, 1962). Interpretive phenomenologists seek to obtain to the essence of the lived experience of participants through interpretations of descriptive texts and continue to acknowledge the complexity of that experience (van Manen, 1997).

The term interpretive attached to this approach describes the methodological belief and practice of the interpretive phenomenological research, which differs from the philosophical methodology underpinning the descriptive version of phenomenology (bracketing), and uses a research tradition in which interpretative analysis is emphasised (Finlay, 2009). The interpretive aspect emerges as an important element in the interpretive phenomenology, because Heidegger (1962) argued that “the meaning of phenomenological description as a method lies in interpretation” of the phenomenon (p. 37).

Moreover, interpretive phenomenologists argued that interpretation is needed in understanding a social phenomenon as it helps the researcher to bring out meanings embedded in the phenomenon being investigated (Finlay, 2009). There are at least two reasons that necessitate the interpretation in a phenomenological research study. First, the description of individuals’ lived experiences has to be viewed in the context in which the individuals live (Finlay, 2009). Second, “interpretation is implicated as researchers make sense of data by drawing on their own subjective understandings and life experiences” (p. 22). This essentially means that when using the interpretive phenomenological approach, the researcher needs to use theoretical frameworks related to pre-understanding of the phenomenon being studied to guide the whole process of the research beginning from formulating research questions and reviewing related literature to collecting and analysing research data (Paley, 1998; Holroyd, 2007).

The involvement of interpretation in the concept of interpretive phenomenology requires the acknowledgement of the researcher's pre-understanding in making sense of meanings given by the research participants who embody the investigated phenomenon. This is derived from Heidegger (1962) who contended that nothing can be understood without pre-understanding. Similarly, Koch (1995) asserted pre-understanding and people are inseparable in making senses of the world. Meaning is formed and found, because people are formed by the world and at the same time people construct this world out of backgrounds and experiences individually and as groups. It could be described that, there is a contract between individuals and the world as they shape and are shaped by each other (Boyd, 1993). Thus, interpretive phenomenologists view pre-understanding as the structure for being in the world. This pre-understanding is essentially the individual's prior knowledge, which is brought to social actions. Pre-understanding and individuals cannot be separated because the two components have been developed together (Boyd, 1993). Therefore, in the interpretive phenomenological research, pre-understanding is a central concept, which is required to successfully reconstruct meaning or to interpret the phenomenon based on the lived experiences of the research participants (Finlay, 2009). Interpretive phenomenological researchers need to use their prior knowledge to better understand and to interpret the phenomenon being studied (Finlay, 2009). Hence, methodologically, interpretive phenomenology as a research approach rejects the bracketing method proposed by Husserl (1970), instead it emphasises the interpretation of lived experience in order to produce better and deeper understanding of the phenomenon under research using pre-understanding of the researcher related to the research topic and the phenomenon.

The characteristics discussed above provided the primary reasons for me to utilise the interpretive phenomenological approach for my study. Such characteristics suited the aims and nature of my research project, in which I endeavoured to understand and to illuminate meaning embedded in the experience of secondary-trained EFL teachers who came to teach English to students of primary schools in Indonesia. Hence I used this approach to guide me in conducting and writing the report of the results of the study. Ontologically, in my study, I viewed motivational factors for selecting teaching and the EFL teaching knowledge as multi perspectives or constructs, which are tentative in nature, bounded to the individuality of secondary-trained EFL teachers (Borg, 2003).

Thus, epistemologically, the study embraced the belief that the views of motivational factors of secondary-trained EFL teachers that are assumed to lead them to

choose EFL teaching as a career, and to work with children in primary schools are constructed through their individual experiences, which may have been affected by their socio-economic and cultural values as has been described by several studies in Chapter 3. Further, I believed that the EFL teaching knowledge secondary-trained EFL teachers use in their daily teaching is constructed through their experience, which may be related to their individual experience as EFL language learners and teachers, and through their social and educational interactions with other teachers and/or students in instructional settings such as schools and other places (Mills, Bonner, & Francis, 2006).

Hence, methodologically, as a researcher, to understand the phenomenon of secondary-trained EFL teachers teaching English to children in primary schools, I had to listen to these teachers describing their experience of the phenomenon (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). In addition, I also needed to observe them teaching children English to see the way they experience the phenomenon (Finlay, 2009). As such, I hoped that I would be able to understand and illuminate meanings secondary-trained EFL teachers constructed from their experiences in teaching English to students of primary schools.

The role of prior knowledge in the interpretive phenomenology is an important element to this study. Such knowledge is needed to help me as the researcher in conducting this study in order to understand the phenomenon. My pre-understanding related to the phenomenon being studied such as my prior knowledge of motivational factors which is based on categorisations of extrinsic, intrinsic and altruistic motives has contributed to my understanding about the phenomenon. My prior knowledge of teaching EFL as proposed by several language experts such as Tarone and Allwright (2005), McKay (2006), Cameron (2007) and many more and the views of knowledge of learners, views of content knowledge and curriculum goals, and views of teaching knowledge as proposed by Darling-Hammond Darling-Hammond, Bransford, et al. (2005) have all influenced my understanding about the phenomenon I investigated. In addition, my prior knowledge of teaching preservice secondary EFL teachers and preservice primary school teachers as well as working with EFL teachers at the secondary level in conducting classroom research projects (as I described in Chapter 1) has also helped me understand the teaching of English to children of primary school age.

My pre-understanding on motivational factors that influence individuals to select teaching has benefited me in formulating sub research questions 1 and 2, whereas my prior knowledge of foreign language teaching has assisted me in formulating sub-

research questions 3, 4, and 5. Moreover, my prior knowledge on the research topic has been useful in developing guideline questions for interviews and in conducting classroom observations (data collection) and to carry out the data analyses.

In researching the phenomenon of secondary-trained EFL teachers teaching English to children in primary schools, my pre-understanding or prior knowledge of the phenomenon was needed and hence must be acknowledged. As I have described above, for an insider researcher, the prior knowledge of the EFL profession gained from being a teacher educator in Indonesia was an essential factor, which assisted me in focusing the research aims, presenting them through the research questions that guided the research process of this study. I required such knowledge in my endeavour to reconstruct the nature of the secondary-trained EFL teachers' everyday experiences through insightful descriptions of both their motivational factors and the way they taught English to children in primary classrooms (van Manen, 1997).

In this study, the lived experience of the secondary-trained EFL teachers was described and interpreted in the ways that it emerged and was shaped by consciousness, language, cognitive and non-cognitive sensibilities, authentic meaning, and personal, socio-cultural pre-understandings (van Manen & Adams, 2010). This method of constructing knowledge from the lived experience of participants differs from that of Husserl's descriptive phenomenology as noted above, which focuses on understanding beings and/or phenomena by bracketing pre-understanding of the phenomenon being studied. If using descriptive phenomenology, I would have to set aside (or bracket) my prior knowledge on EFL teaching. As an insider researcher, who has engaged in the contextual process of EFL teaching in the Indonesian context for more than twenty years, I found that I could not bracket my knowledge of the research topic, however temporarily (Freebody, 2003); rather such knowledge as noted above was required to guide me in designing the research, and to conduct the research process, and interpret the data provided by the participants relevant to the EFL teaching in the context of Indonesia (Heidegger, 1962).

However, to use my prior knowledge does not mean that I needed to interfere or influence the participants' views or perspectives when they were describing the phenomenon. As an interpretive researcher, I am aware of the side effects of such interference of prior knowledge in my research. Thus, I understand that such knowledge should not direct the participants when they are describing their lived experience about the phenomenon, which may result in distorting the truthful meaning and understanding

of the phenomenon, although the final results of an interpretative phenomenological study can incorporate individual suppositions of the investigator (Allen, 1995).

Heidegger (1962) believed that pre-understanding relates to socio-cultural values, given to individuals from birth and facilitates them to understand the world. Through this understanding individuals determine what is real (Koch, 1995). My study, being located in the Indonesian culture may be concerned with an understanding of the Indonesian values. The motivational factors to select the EFL teaching profession as a career by the participants of this study were presumed to be influenced by cultural values; and EFL teaching knowledge they utilised to work with children (as they are not prepared for teaching English in primary schools) was presumed to be influenced by subjective understanding or views of children related to the Indonesian cultural values.

The concept of intentionality is important in the phenomenological approach. A phenomenological study should not be intentionally designed to examine or judge the things people are doing in the world, rather it should be looking at what meaning individuals give to things (Vagle, 2014). Thus, when researchers are studying something phenomenologically, they should be studying how people make meaning from what they are doing (Vagle, 2014). In the case of my study, I did not intend to evaluate or to judge the perspectives and practice of secondary-trained EFL teachers related to the phenomenon instead I intended to understand how they came to teach in primary schools, and how they approach the teaching of English to children in classrooms. Thus, the research questions that I posed “How did secondary-trained EFL teachers in Indonesia come to teach English in primary classrooms?” and “How do secondary-trained EFL teachers approach EFL teaching in primary classrooms?”

As an approach to humanistic research, interpretive phenomenology seeks to bring understanding of the phenomenon being studied through language (Annells, 1996). It uses language to interpret human cultural activity through texts to extract embedded meanings (Kvale, 1996). Texts in the interpretive phenomenological research involve oral and written discourses, transcriptions, artwork and music (Kvale, 1996). In the case of my study, the texts used were transcriptions of open-ended semi-structured interviews, descriptions of secondary-trained EFL teachers’ classroom practices, samples of teaching syllabi, lesson plans, and textbooks used to teach children English (Burnard, 2008). My focus was to interpret teachers’ motivational factors in selecting teaching, and to analyse the EFL teaching knowledge they used in their practices through these kinds of texts (Mertens, 2015).

In an interpretive phenomenological study, the interpretation is open, an ultimate understanding of the phenomenon being studied is not really possible (Annells, 1996). Gadamer (1994) argued that in interpretive research, interpretation and understanding are interrelated and tentative. Similarly, in the case of my research, the interpretations of participants' lived experiences based on the texts listed above are subjective and relative, and interpretations from other researchers are essentially encouraged, although conclusions and recommendations are offered in the concluding chapter.

As an interpretive researcher, I need to address my position and role in the study I have conducted, hence in the section that follows, I describe my role as an insider researcher of the study.

5.4 My Role as the Researcher in the Current Study

Many social researchers have argued that researchers' need to identify their roles in order to address the influence of their biases to their studies. Hatch (2002) argued that the social researchers need to outline their roles and responsibilities. Patton (2002) also argued that qualitative researchers should describe the researcher's experience and expertise, personal relationship with the research participants as well as the researcher's perspective on the researched. Similarly, Creswell (2003) contended that researchers have a responsibility to identify their biases, personal interests, and values as well as the methods they use to gain entry into the research site. Denzin and Lincoln (2005) argued that qualitative studies have to acknowledge the social nature of knowledge, and the researcher's subjective involvement within this system.

In relation to the influence of researchers' biases in studies, Freebody (2003) argued that it is impossible to bracket "values, norms or ideologies however temporarily" (p. 2). What is needed is that if the researchers are insiders, they need to clarify their position at all stages of the research as it is impossible for them "to capture and re-present the research situation in a neutral way" (Gutierrez, 2013, p. 73). Thus, what a qualitative researcher needs is to embrace what is called in qualitative research methodology, reflexivity (Gutierrez, 2013). Reflexivity is a qualitative research tradition in which the researcher "takes into account their socially and culturally constructed knowledge and the effects these have on the kind of knowledge that they produce through research data" (Gutierrez, 2013, p. 73).

Reflexivity is viewed as a fundamental process in qualitative research whereby the investigator reflects constantly on how his own activities, values and insights influence the research design and may impact on the data collection and analysis

(Patton, 2002; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). The importance of the constant introspective procedure and how the researcher's values, views and manners, together with those of participants may impact data collection and analysis has been stressed as an integral aspect in the process (Patton, 2002; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Morrow (2006) proposed reflexivity as an approach that the researcher can use for the goal of interpreting the phenomena under study, and appropriately depicting the meaning created by the subjects, and where self-assessment identifies suppositions and prejudices that could influence the research to be comprehended.

The process of reflexivity motivates a variety of efforts to interpret and engage in human relationships and is basically a human characteristic (Holland, 1999). Willig (2001) contended that by recognising the concept of the reflexive process, the investigator is advised to mirror the beliefs that have been created about reality and about the world, while conducting the study. The skill of reflexive practice is important in determining how elements of EFL teaching are seen. It assists the researcher to situate himself in connection to the research data, where and how questions may be asked; it allows the commencement of interpreting experiences related to the topics under research. In addition, it also allows the information to be investigated to see how such information may link to a wider setting (Savin-Baden, 2004).

For this study, I have described my personal experience as a teacher educator in Chapter 1. My experiences provide ways of interpreting the experience of a secondary-trained EFL teacher undertaking teaching of EFL at the primary level. As such my role and my personal biases were implicit in the research process. I incorporated my experience as a secondary EFL teacher educator to assist in the explanations in the study. I utilised my personal knowledge to help me formulate research questions that guided the research process. My understanding of contemporary EFL theories and practice or relevant EFL teaching literature helped me understand, interpret and illuminate participants' experiences related to their motivational factors that influenced them to choose a teaching career. I described how I used my experience to construct understanding of the EFL teaching knowledge the research participants used in teaching EFL to children in primary schools.

As an insider researcher, I also have explained the shared experience and meaning between the participants and myself to inform my understanding and to elaborate the essence of the phenomenon of secondary-trained EFL teachers teaching English to children in primary schools. I shared some aspects of identity, language,

cultural values and professional experiences with the participants of the study. My profession as a teacher educator and as a regular tutor in the local teacher professional development program in the province where this research was conducted made me aware of issues relevant to EFL teaching in the region in particular and in Indonesia in general. Some of the participants perhaps could have been familiar with me in my capacity as a teacher educator and a tutor of the EFL teacher professional development program.

I also recognised that the social realities represented in the language of the secondary-trained EFL teachers as the research participants, and my understanding of this language was also constructions. A qualitative study acknowledges that such constructions only represent some voices, not those from all over Indonesia. Thus, I understand and acknowledge that this study does not make objective claims to knowledge or truth that can be generalised to all schools in Indonesia. Other research studies may produce different results from a similar study. All stages of this research project have taken these aspects of critical reflexivity into consideration, and the purpose of this self-reflection was to connect with readers through an open and honest narrative (Creswell, 2007).

5.5 Design of the Study

The design of this study deals with data collection methods (data sources, participant selection, participants' profiles, semi structured interviews and observation) and data analyses methods that guided this research project. The design was developed based on the interpretive phenomenological approach.

5.5.1 Data collection methods

Data collection methods need to be aligned with the research methodology used. This section describes the data collection methods of this study, which marks it as a qualitative interpretive research project. It comprises discussions of data sources, selection of participants, profiles of participants, data collection techniques and data recording.

a. Data sources

van Manen (1997) argued that the nature of an interpretive phenomenological study is to gather experiences of participants and their reflections on these experiences, to gain a deeper understanding of those experiences. This is usually achieved by describing the experience of a small number of participants (Stake, 2005). Similarly Creswell (2007) contended that the interpretive phenomenological research method

involves collecting data from participants who experienced the phenomenon and deep analysis of the essence of the experiences for all participants in the study.

In the case of my study, the sources of the research data were the participants, who were secondary-trained EFL teachers teaching EFL to primary school children and the artefacts they used. The primary data of the study were texts describing the experiences of these participants collected through interview questions. In addition to the participants' responses to the interview questions, texts describing participants' classroom practices collected through a series of classroom observations and samples of participants' teaching documents such as lesson plans, syllabi, and course books used by them were also investigated to support the interpretation of the interview data. The data from classroom observations and teaching documents were required to improve the interpretation of the interview data. A detailed explanation of classroom observation is given in section "d" Data collection techniques.

b. Selection of participants

Scholars such as Polkinghorne (1995), van Manen (1997) and Merriam (1998) argued that there is no fixed set of data collection methods to conduct the interpretive phenomenological research. Phenomenologists utilise any relevant method for the data collection, and as a variant of qualitative research, the interpretive phenomenological researcher is encouraged to use purposeful sampling of information-rich cases for data collection.

The number of participants required for this type of study varies depending on the nature of the research data required for a successful study. Polkinghorne (1995) argued that as a qualitative research project, an interpretive study may involve five to twenty-five participants who have rich experience about the phenomenon under investigation. The criteria, upon which the participant selection is commonly based, differ from those required to meet statistical requirements. The purpose of the selection process is to choose the participants who have had experience of the phenomenon to the extent which it can richly inform the research foci, who are willing to share their experiences about the phenomenon, and who are quite diverse from each other to provide the richness and uniqueness of the phenomenon (van Manen, 1997).

In the case of my study, I involved thirteen secondary-trained EFL teachers who had experienced the phenomenon of teaching English to children in primary schools to become the research participants; this formed the basis of the thesis. The selection of the participants was based on a set of criteria which could provide sufficiently rich data.

Following Patton's (2002) characteristics, the criteria of the participants to be involved in the current study were EFL teachers with relevant educational qualifications and who had sufficient experience in undertaking EFL teaching in primary schools. First, they had to hold an S1 degree equivalent to a BA in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) or graduated from the EFL teacher education program (known as *S.Pd. Bahasa Inggris* in Indonesia) and qualified to teach English at the secondary level as specified in the focus of the research. Second, they had to have a minimum of two years of teaching experience in the EFL teaching program of primary schools or schools as described in the phenomenon. A two year involvement in the phenomenon was considered sufficient for an EFL teacher to be able to describe insightfully lived experience regarding the phenomenon (Creswell, 2007). A two year experience in teaching English to children in primary schools was considered to have passed the period of novice teacher in the field of EFL teaching (Educators, 2011; Faez, 2011; Faez & Valeo, 2012). The length of participants' experience in the phenomenon contributes to the essence of their lived experiences (Higgins, Hall, Wall, Woolner, & McCaughey, 2005). Thirdly, the participants needed to be able to complete the research; however, they were informed that they could withdraw from participation at any time and at any stage of the study (Patton, 2002).

As part of the selection process, the required criteria listed above were outlined to the local Ministry of Education and Culture in Jambi city where the study took place. As is the practice in research in Indonesian school systems, the director of the local ministry of education selected ten primary schools for the setting of the study, which in his opinion represented best performing schools in Jambi city. Indonesian schools are accredited into four levels ranging from "D" to "A". The level of the school accreditation is determined by nine criteria including curriculum and learning process; school administration and management; school organisation and institution; school facilities and infrastructure; workforces; financing; learners; community participation; and school environment and culture (Mendiknas, 2002). The primary schools selected for the study by the authority were presumed to have met all of these criteria as all of them were ranked "A", the highest level of the school accreditation applied to the Indonesian education system. Seven of the schools were state primary schools and the other three were integrated Islamic primary schools.

The selection of schools by the authority meant that I as the researcher could not involve any secondary-trained EFL teachers working in other primary schools who

could have provided significant experience of the phenomenon for the study. Therefore, it should be acknowledged here that the study could not employ purposeful sampling technique properly as suggested for conducting a qualitative study (Creswell, 2007) as I had no choice but to take those schools identified by the authority. Although this study dealt with teachers rather than with the schools, the selection procedure organised by the authority prevented my access to EFL teachers in other primary schools who could have had different experience of the phenomenon, which could have contributed to the research data and strengthened the interpretation of meaning provided by wider range of participants. In other words, the intervention of the local authority in the participant selection for the study presented a limitation of the study; in particular it impacted on the data coverage that described the phenomenon. As a result, the study could only address the phenomenon of secondary-trained EFL teachers teaching English to children in primary schools at the high performing schools in the Indonesian context, where I completed the study.

Following the authority's procedure and the criteria as outlined above, I selected fourteen secondary-trained EFL teachers from the ten identified schools as the research participants (Polkinghorne, 1995). One school with one EFL teacher was used to conduct a pilot of the interview guideline questions and classroom observation tools. The other nine schools with thirteen EFL teachers were used as the sources of the data of the study. Based on my observation, the participants were pleased to be taking part in the study. They said that they expected to obtain valuable information from the research findings. All of them signed the provided ethics consent forms and none of them wanted to withdraw from the research at any stage. In addition, the principals of the schools seemed enthusiastic that their schools were chosen as research settings. They stated that it could mean that their schools were acknowledged as being among the best schools in the city. The principals also expressed the hope that their EFL teachers who took part in the research would acquire valuable experience from the research process and that the findings of the research could improve their understanding and practice of EFL teaching in primary schools. An overview of the participants' profiles is given in the next section and summarised in Table 5.2 below.

Table 5.2 Profiles of the Research Participants

Participants (pseudonyms)	Schools	Codes	Experiences
Fairus (teacher 1)	1	T1-S1	3
Yasmin (teacher 2)	2	T2-S2	6
Endriko (teacher 3)	2	T3-S2	6
Zaharani (teacher 4)	3	T4-S3	6
Wisma (teacher 5)	3	T5-S3	10
Risanti (teacher 6)	4	T6-S4	3
Sulzillah (teacher 7)	5	T7-S5	16
Wahdani (teacher 8)	5	T8-S5	16
Susan (teacher 9)	6	T9-S6	8
Joshua (teacher 10)	6	T10-S6	6
Rahmadina (teacher 11)	7	T11-S7	3
Ermadona (teacher 12)	8	T12-S8	15
Paskah (teacher 13)	9	T13-S9	6

c. Profiles of participants

As noted above, thirteen participants were involved in the current study. Their profiles detailing their educational background and years of experience in the phenomenon are summarised as follows.

1) Fairus (teacher 1)

Fairus was the only EFL teacher at school 1. He completed all levels of his education, (primary to university level) in the integrated Islamic-academic education institutions. He commenced teaching at school 1 as a graduate teacher. He had been teaching EFL in the school for approximately three years. Before coming to work at school 1, Fairus had had no experience of EFL teaching, except when he did a supervised teaching practice of about six months in a secondary school as part of the requirements for the completion of the secondary EFL teacher education program.

2) Yasmin (teacher 2)

Yasmin was one of the two EFL teachers at school 2. She had six years of experience in EFL teaching in primary schools. She began teaching EFL to children while she was still at university, undertaking the secondary EFL teacher education program.

3) Endriko (teacher 3)

Endriko was the other EFL teacher at school 2. Like Yasmin (teacher 2), Endriko had six years of experience in a primary school EFL program. He also began teaching EFL to children while he was still studying in the secondary EFL teacher education program. He used to work as an administrative officer in a foreign oil company before he studied for a BA degree in English language. After graduating from the BA course, he continued to study English in the EFL teacher education program at a university in order to get EFL teaching certification.

4) Zaharani (teacher 4)

Zaharani was one of the two EFL teachers at school 3. She did not have a strong intention to take teaching as a career after completing secondary school. She took a part time job teaching EFL to young learners while studying at a university and after finding satisfaction in teaching decided on the teaching profession for her career. She had had six years of experience in EFL teaching at the time of interview.

5) Wisma (teacher 5)

Wisma was the other EFL teacher at school 3. He graduated from an Islamic secondary-EFL teacher education program. At the time of the study, he had ten years of experience in EFL program in primary schools as he had begun an EFL teaching career while he was at university.

6) Risanti (teacher 6)

Risanti was one of the two EFL teachers at school 4. The other EFL teacher could not participate in the research as she worked less than two years at the school, which disqualified her as a research participant for the study. Risanti had three years of experience in the primary school EFL program. The idea for enrolling in an EFL education came from her parents and her secondary school teacher. She had three years of experience teaching English at the time of interview.

7) Sulzillah (teacher 7)

Sulzillah was one of the senior EFL teachers at school 5. She had been teaching EFL for 16 years at school 5. She graduated from a foreign language academy in 1988 and continued onto university to study the secondary EFL teacher certification. She worked at a secondary school prior to working with children at the primary level.

8) Wahdani (teacher 8)

Wahdani was another senior EFL teacher at school 5. She completed a Diploma 3 of EFL teacher education in 1990, before she studied the secondary EFL teacher education program, which she completed in 2010. She had been teaching at school 5 for 16 years, ten years at the secondary level and six years at the primary level.

9) Susan (teacher 9)

Susan was one of two EFL teachers at school 6. In secondary education, she majored in accounting at a vocational economics high school. She studied a diploma program majoring in English and Computer Science after completing secondary school education. After the diploma program, she undertook the secondary EFL teacher program. She had been teaching EFL at school 6 for eight years.

10) Joshua (teacher 10)

Joshua was the other EFL teacher at school 6. Prior to teaching at the primary level, he taught English at a secondary school. He undertook the secondary EFL teacher education program through part time study, in addition to his major in an English linguistics program at university. He had been teaching at school 6 for six years.

11) Rahmadina (teacher 11)

Rahmadina the only EFL teacher at school 7, graduated from a State Islamic Institute majoring in the secondary EFL teacher education. She has been working at school 7 for three years. She was motivated to take the EFL teaching profession because she achieved excellent marks for English at secondary school.

12) Ermadona (teacher 12)

Ermadona, a senior EFL teacher at school 8, graduated from a Diploma 3 majoring in EFL teaching before she undertook the secondary EFL teacher education program, which she completed in 1999. She worked at a junior high school from 1997 to 1999. She has taught at the primary level for fifteen years.

13) Paskah (teacher 13)

Paskah, the only EFL teacher at school 9, graduated from the secondary EFL teacher education in 2005 and had taught at school 9 for six years. He studied the EFL teacher education course at a private university in Jambi city.

The summary of participants' characteristics and the coding system used in the data analysis are given in Table 5.2 above.

d. Data collection techniques

Using the interpretive phenomenological approach to investigate a phenomenon, the researcher normally relies on the words (texts) of the research participants as the research data (Denzin & Lincoln, 2002). Such data are usually collected through indepth interviews (Finlay 2009). Texts may be constructed from in-depth interviews and from observations to become data of an interpretive study. Using multiple data collection techniques, which is known as triangulation, can increase the depth and the validity of qualitative research data (Denzin & Lincoln, 2002).

This study used multiple strategies which included semi-structured interviews and classroom observations for collecting the research data. Samples of participants' teaching documents such as lesson plans, syllabi and text books were also collected as they strengthened information provided by the participants both in the interviews and classroom observations (Stake, 2005). In qualitative educational research, collecting data through a variety of sources with different techniques (such as interviews and observations) is necessary as the data collected using these strategies are relevant to educational phenomenon, particularly when looking at the teaching knowledge used by the research participants who experience the phenomenon under investigation (Stake, 2005; Yin, 2009). This section described the techniques of data collection (semi-structured interviews and classroom observations) used for this study.

1) Semi-structured interviews

As has been argued above, one strategy of data collection that can be used in an interpretive phenomenological research is an interview. van Manen (1997) detailed two purposes of an interviewing technique for collecting data in the interpretive phenomenological research as follows:

It may be used as a means for exploring and gathering experimental narrative material that may serve as a resource for developing a richer and deeper understanding of a human phenomenon; and (2) the interview may be used as a vehicle to develop a conversational relation with a partner (interviewee) about the meaning of an experience (van Manen, 1997, p. 66).

For the current study, a semi-structured interview format following interview guidelines with open-ended questions was used. The guideline questions were used in

interviewing the research participants. The guideline questions were essential in an interpretive phenomenological study to keep the researcher focused on the key aspects of the phenomenon under investigation (Stake, 2005). As has been argued above, prior knowledge or pre-understanding informs the researcher in every aspect of the research process.

In the interview process, the role of an interpretive researcher is to provide general questions to the participants which allow them to describe the phenomenon as freely as possible. The general questions may be followed by specific questions to elicit further information relevant to the research foci. In the case of my study, guideline questions comprising general questions were developed in advance (Stake, 2005). During the interviews, these general questions were asked first and followed by specific questions when I needed clarification leading the participants to describe their experiences around the phenomenon in details as freely as possible (Creswell, 2007). The specific questions were not meant to judge the participants about their specific aspects of practice (Finlay, 2006).

The guideline questions for this study were developed to address the five sub-research questions as outlined at the beginning of this chapter. These five sub-research questions covered four areas (views of the participants about motivational factors influencing them to select a teaching career, participants' views of children, their views of content knowledge, curriculum goals in EFL teaching, and EFL teaching strategies). All of these components are relevant to teaching efficacy as shared by Darling-Hammond and Bransford, et al. (2005) in the effective teaching framework. The guideline questions outlined the categories of views of students; views of subject matter and curriculum goals and views of pedagogy fundamental to teaching efficacy, hence these broad areas provided me with a framework of what I was to investigate concerning this phenomenon. However, as a user of phenomenological research, I was aware that this framework was not to be used to determine or to judge what participants expressed about their experiences, but instead to illuminate their views or the meanings they gave to these experiences regarding the phenomenon. Focusing on these areas, I believed that my study would become more useful for the development of English language teaching in the Indonesian context.

The guideline questions were divided into five groups; each of them centred on a general question related to the sub-research questions of the study (Stake, 2005). Such a procedure applied to each group of guideline questions. The general questions and

examples of specific questions can be seen in Appendix 1. However, the wording of the specific questions asked during the interviews may not have been the same as those listed in the appendix as the specific questions were only asked when necessary and adapted to suit the particular interview.

Group 1 questions elicited general educational backgrounds of the participants giving them opportunity to describe their views of motivational factors that had brought them to the secondary EFL teacher education programs and then to be working in primary schools. The general questions of this group centred on “Could you tell me about your educational background and how you became an English language teacher in a primary school?” Based on these questions, relevant questions were developed during the conversations depending on the depth of responses the participants provided. As noted in Chapter 3, the investigation of the motivational factors of the participants to choose the secondary EFL teaching profession was important as they now worked in primary schools which they were not initially prepared for. Such a phenomenon was viewed important to be studied as teachers’ motivation for teaching is related teaching efficacy (Dörnyei, 2001).

Group 2 questions centred on general questions which led the participants to describe their views of children in primary schools as young language learners. Such beliefs indicate foundational perspectives useful for teachers working with children in primary classrooms (Tarone & Allwright, 2005). The general questions of group 2 included “Could you describe your views of children as language learners?” “Could you tell me how you think children learn language” or “Could you describe your views of how children learn English as a foreign language?” The wording of the questions was flexible depending on the responses of the participants.

Group 3 questions provide a further opportunity for the participants to describe their views of EFL teaching knowledge which they used for teaching children English in classrooms. Central questions in group 3 included “Could you describe your views of the role of content knowledge and curriculum goals in teaching English to children?”, “Could you describe your views of the development of syllabi, lessons plans and language activities for children?”, and “Could you describe your views of assessment?” (Day, 1991; Roberts, 1998; Tarone & Allwright, 2005). The wording of the questions was flexible; it was always started from general questions, and then followed by more specific questions to obtain more details.

Group 4 questions aimed to investigate challenges the participants encountered in undertaking EFL teaching in the primary schools in relation to their educational background and the EFL teaching knowledge they acquired during the secondary EFL teacher education programs, and how they addressed those challenges. The general question of this group centres on “What do you see as the challenges or problems in teaching EFL to primary school children?” and “How do you address those problems?”

Finally, Group 5 questions provided an opportunity for the participants to describe their opinions about the implications and contributions of their experiences to the development of the EFL teacher education program in Indonesia, as well as to the improvement of EFL teaching efficacy in primary schools. The general questions of this group centred on “Based on your experience, what do you think are important things that secondary-trained EFL teachers need to know in order to carry out successful EFL teaching in primary schools?” and “How do you think such things can be provided for prospective EFL teachers?” In conclusion, the five group guideline questions that were used to collect the data from the participants were developed from the research questions based on the tenets of an interpretive phenomenological approach, such as allowing the participants to describe their experience as freely as possible in speaking about the phenomenon they were undertaking. The role of the researcher is to provide general questions which may be followed by specific questions that allow for eliciting necessary information relevant to the topics of the research.

2) The interview process

The overall interview process in this study can be described in two stages: preparation for the interview and conducting the interview. In the preparation stage, prior to the interview process, the researcher explained to the participants the overall purpose and the design of the study, and assured them their participation or non-participation would have no bearing on any judgment of their teaching performance. This was to limit concern that there might be negative repercussions from the education authorities. After verifying their interest in participating, the date and time for the interview was made at the participant’s convenience. All participants agreed that the interviews would take place in their schools, before or after classroom observations, with about 45 minutes for each interview.

Along with the Statement of Research Purpose, the Consent Form approved by the Australian Catholic University Ethics Committee, was agreed to by all participants. More explanations of interview procedures were given before the participants signed the

Consent Form; explanations included the right to say or comment on anything, to ask questions at any time during the interviews, and to withdraw from the interview session at any point. After asking permission to record the interview, all participants were informed that the interview recorded responses and verbatim transcripts would be kept confidential. The privacy of the participants was respected and anonymity and confidentiality were ensured by informing them that their personal identities and the names of schools or anything that could lead to the disclosure of their identities would not appear in any document related to the research project. The participants were also informed that the results of the research would be compiled into a thesis which would be written in English. They were advised that they would be provided a copy of the thesis if requested. After verbal responses of the participants to the interview questions were transcribed into Indonesian they were invited to comment on these transcripts.

Before the interview with each of the participants began, I offered them a choice of whether they wanted to speak in English or Indonesian. This technique was used to ensure that the participants did not feel anxious as if being tested to speak in English. Indeed, having been given this option, all participants decided that the interviews be conducted in the Indonesian language. Many of the participants said that they would feel more relaxed and comfortable talking in their first language, which was Indonesian, rather than in English which was still a foreign language to them. They also mentioned that the experiences that they would discuss with me could be richer or deeper when conveyed through Indonesian rather than in English because they thought that their Indonesian competence was much better than that of English. In addition, the participants also stated that the experiences that they would discuss, to a great extent, was related to the Indonesian socio-cultural context and hence could be difficult for them to express it in English (Boroditsky, 2009). This view was supported by the belief that the way of thinking or how people express themselves is always influenced by their language and culture (Whorf, 1956). Research has shown that language affects cognitive processes, such as perception, attention, and how people think and express themselves in describing lived experiences (Brown, 1986). Terminology that varies by language and culture could constrain perceptions of the participants (Boroditsky, 2009). Thus, regular use of linguistic and grammatical features determine one's world view. This is often called "Whorfian Hypothesis" (Whorf, 1956), meaning that language could constrain participants if they expressed themselves in a second language. The choice of being able to speak in Indonesian language seemed to enhance participants'

confidence and reduced their tension. The interviews were agreed to be conducted in a conversational style which facilitated communication (Finlay, 2006). The interviews took place like normal conversations; the participants were informed that they could ask me questions when they needed clarifications (Finlay, 2006); this often occurred during the interviews.

Another way to reduce tension during interviews in conducting an interpretive phenomenological study is for, the researcher to approach the participants through their cultural values (Finlay, 2006). In the case of my study, the interviews were opened with the “Indonesian cultural greetings” including questions asking the participants about their health condition, families, addresses, ethnicities, educational background and so on. In the Indonesian culture, a normal conversation between two people usually starts with a warm opening to show courtesy, concern, and emotional closeness between the two, for example, asking for the number in the family, names of family members, addresses; the place of worshipping, and so on; essentially it is used to exchange social information between people to create friendship and to feel relaxed in a subsequent conversation. In this introductory conversation both can offer to visit each other as Indonesian people like to meet and visit people they have met to create a closer friendship (Pariwisata, 2009). I used this introductory style so the interviews with the participants ran smoothly in an atmosphere of friendship without significant anxiety.

Following the interview guideline questions, I listened attentively and allowed participants to use their own language and terminology as freely as possible (Moustakas, 1994). Finlay (2006) used a metaphor of two dancers moving together following the musical instrument for describing the process of data collection using an interview in a phenomenological approach. During the interview, the researcher and the participant engage in the conversation “moving in and out of experiencing and reflection while simultaneously moving through a shared intersubjective space that is the research encounter” (p. 8). After the interviews, the researcher engaged in a solo interpretation, once again moving in and out of (pre-reflective) experience and reflection as he engages multiple meanings emerging from the data (Finlay, 2006). Different interpretations are tried out like the steps in the dance, until the researcher settles on particular meanings revealing possibilities that may excite, inform or point out the way to future research (Finlay, 2006).

The interview process took place in an atmosphere that was safe and reliable (Polkinghorne, 1995). Interactions in the interview took place in the context of a warm

relationship, which was central to data collection in a qualitative study (Sandelowski, 1993; Polkinghorne, 1995). During the interviews the participants described their experience about the phenomenon related to the topics being researched, which were their motivational factors to choose the EFL profession as a career and to work in primary schools, and the EFL teaching knowledge they used to work with children. Some direct questions were asked however; in order to gain in-depth information which was not clearly illustrated (Geertz, 1973). This technique was used to ensure that participants described truly what they underwent regarding the phenomenon not describing what they were supposed to undergo about the phenomenon (Koch, 1996). This was also to keep the interview process relevant to the experience of the phenomenon lived by the participants (Koch, 1996).

The participants were able to explore their experiences of the phenomenon in an inter-subjective relationship with me (Creswell, 2007). The participants described and interpreted their own actions with me as the researcher; they seemed to be able to reconstruct the subjective views of motivational factors and EFL teaching knowledge from their experience regarding the EFL teaching in primary schools (Creswell, 2007). They told stories of how they became EFL teachers of primary schools. They described their views of motivational factors that have brought them to choose the secondary EFL teacher education program, as well as views about why they came to work with children in primary schools. They also described their views of how they approached the work of EFL teaching at the primary school level using the EFL teaching knowledge they learned during the secondary EFL teacher education program. They discussed their views of children, how to teach children English, challenges they faced in working with children and offered some suggestions for appropriate preparation of EFL teachers for primary schools and for their development after entering the EFL teaching profession in primary schools.

During the interview section, all of the agreements made in the preparation were implemented. I followed the guideline questions, moved back and forth to develop specific questions dependent on the depth and completeness of responses participants gave to the questions (Finlay, 2006; Given, 2008). In some interviews, not all prepared general questions were asked, but some supporting questions were created during the interviews, allowing both me as the researcher and the participants flexibility to go into details of the participants' experience when needed (Finlay, 2006). The wording of

questions as detailed in Appendix 1 was not exactly the same that were asked for all participants (Cohen, 2006; RWJF, 2008).

During the interview with each of the participants, my own experience at times did influence the direction of the discussion and I sometimes informed the participants of my own experience related to the questions being asked and comments of participants. This indicated that the process of bracketing my perceptions and experience in this study was nearly impossible (van Manen & Adams, 2010). As an insider researcher, it was difficult for me to not guide the interview questions without making references to my experience in the field (Creswell, 2007; Patton, 2002; van Manen, 1997).

3) Classroom observations

As has been outlined above, in addition to semi-structured interviews, I used classroom observations to collect data describing participants' practices. Data from classroom observations were needed to enrich the interview data and to enhance the interpretation of the experience of the participants (Blumer, 1969). To collect data from a variety of resources in order to better understand meaning given by the participants to the phenomenon being studied is discussed by Blumer (1969) who argued that "meaning is triadic; it involves interactions among a person; an object, event, or process; and the action taken toward that object, event, or process" (p. 9). In an agreement with Blumer (1969), Denzin (2001) also argued that in the interpretive research, "interpretation is the process of setting forth the meaning of an event or experience"; meaning is embedded in "the intentions and actions; it is interactional and interpretive" (p. 38).

Based on the argument above, the role of classroom observation in conducting educational research, such as in this study, is important. Although debatable, the theoretical basis for the inclusion of classroom observation in conducting a qualitative interpretive study in the field of education can be argued. Many educational researchers such as Allen (1995) and Freeman (1996) argued that to understand teaching knowledge (as described by the participants of this study through interviews) was a complex task as teacher's knowledge was influenced by the school and the classroom contexts (Allen, 1995; Freeman, 1996). Thus, to understand teaching knowledge, educational researchers need to observe classroom contexts (Allen, 1995; Patton, 2002). Reed and Bergemann (2005) also argued that classroom observations were required to better understand

teachers' experiences, which they described in the interviews in order to build a view of the phenomenon being studied.

Teaching knowledge as qualitative data can be ambiguous, as it is a highly complex construct. To understand such knowledge, the researcher needs to see how it is practised in contexts (Baxter & Lederman, 2001). Borg (2003) argued that the teaching knowledge of EFL teachers comprises both external and internal constructs as it is established from what teachers know, what they do, and the rationale beyond their acting. This means that to study what teachers know (through interviews) educational researchers should also look at what they do (Baxter & Lederman, 2001). Therefore, in the case of my study, to address research sub-questions dealing with the EFL teaching knowledge the secondary-trained EFL teachers utilised in their practices, I needed to employ multiple techniques of data collection (interviews, classroom observations, and analysis of participants' teaching documents); data from all of these helped me to see what these teachers knew, what they believed, what they did, and reasons that were the basis of what they did (Guba & Lincoln, 2005).

Language researchers have also argued that EFL teaching knowledge is a multifaceted and complex construct which is difficult to be analysed. When EFL teachers attempt to verbalise the rationale behind their instructional choices, they may provide reasons that sound correct to the investigator, but may not reveal all the important factors. Thus, language learning activities are better understood when they are seen in actions (Brown, 1986). A teacher's actions and interactions in the classroom reflect their beliefs and knowledge. Teacher's actions include interactions between the teacher and the whole class, those that involve teachers and students in groups/pairs, those that only involve group-work or pair-work and so forth (Cullen, 1998). All of these activities reflect the EFL teaching knowledge of the participants (Brown & McIntyre, 1993; Richards & Rodgers, 2003).

On top of these, classroom observation was needed to triangulate educational research data in order to improve the validity of the study (Patton, 2002). Collecting educational research data from a variety of sources and analysing them based on multiple perspectives improves the validity of the study (Patton, 2002). Based on this understanding, I believed that the classroom observations describing classroom contexts and classroom activities with different kinds of classroom interactions, and relevant samples of participants' lesson plans as well as textbooks the participants used to teach children English increased the validity of my research project. Multiple data collection

techniques such interviews and classroom observations gathered information about what the participants described, what they believed, what they acted upon as well as documents relevant to their actions, were needed for this study (Baxter & Lederman, 2001). Studying any components of the EFL teaching knowledge in isolation using one data collection technique seemed to incur a considerable risk of twisted understanding and interpretation (Baxter & Lederman, 2001).

However, classroom observation in this research was not intended to compare what the participants conveyed in the interviews with their actions in the classroom or to judge participants' practices, rather it aimed to strengthen what the participants described in the interviews in order to integrate the data to create as clear as possible an understanding of the phenomenon under investigation (Patton, 2002).

Classroom observation in this study was focused on several things including: the classroom settings; teachers' classroom actions and interactions (types of language activities the participants and children were experiencing in the classrooms); and stages of classroom teaching, which all helped describe communicative EFL syllabi and strategies used by the participants in presenting the target language (Cullen, 1998). Information was also collected from samples of participants' teaching documents such as syllabi, lesson plans, and text books. All of these elements were needed to develop themes regarding the phenomenon, particularly in interpreting the EFL teaching knowledge the participants used in teaching that they discussed with me during the interviews.

Eleven out of the thirteen participants were observed teaching once or twice. Two participants (T9-S6 and T10-S6) could not be observed as they had completed their curriculum at the time of data collection for the study. These two participants taught grade six classes, who were required to complete EFL curriculum earlier than other classes every year in order allow children more time for studying compulsory subjects such as mathematics, Indonesian language and other subjects tested in the national examination. These two teachers did provide samples of their teaching documents that included syllabi, lesson plans, and text books that they used in their practices.

Information about classroom settings was described in the researcher's notes; it included the setting of students' seats and resources available in each classroom. Teaching activities of the eleven participants were chronologically transcribed into texts which became parts of the research data. As appropriate in interpretive

phenomenological research, my prior knowledge based on an understanding of contemporary EFL theories and practice shaped my observation framework.

Observation notes adapted from Gay, Mill, and Airasian's (2009) were used to record the classroom physical setting, actions and interactions of the participants in their teaching. Participants' teaching was described following chronological stages of their instructional activities including "pre-learning", "while-learning" and "post-learning" sections as outlined by the participants in the interviews. Given the pervasiveness of the 3Ps approach in Indonesia (as noted in Chapter 4), I used this framework to guide the observation as I was interested in how the participants enacted the communicative EFL syllabus of Indonesia. I also used a check list to note types of communicative classroom actions and interactions of instructional activities such as teacher's interaction with the whole class (T-Ss); questions and answers of various types (Q-A); role plays (RP); total physical response activities (TPR); individual/pair/group presentations to the whole class (P-Ss); Action songs (AS); word recognition activities (WR); choral/group repetitions following the teacher or reading aloud together (CR); writing activities (WA); spelling activities (SA); and listening to dictation (LD).

In addition, during and after an observation, I also had an opportunity to tick a list of language skills of the participants that as argued by Richards (2011) are necessary to carry out EFL teaching effectively. These included the participants' ability to: "comprehend texts accurately; provide good language models; maintain use of the target language in the classroom; give explanations and instructions in the target language; provide examples of words and grammatical structures and give accurate explanations; use appropriate classroom language; select target-language resources; monitor his/her own speech and writing for accuracy; give correct feedback on learner language; and provide input at an appropriate level of difficulty" (Richards, 2011, p. 3). However, the purpose of noting the participants' language skills was not to judge their language proficiency level; rather such information was used to analyse the role of content knowledge and curriculum goals in teaching EFL to children of primary school age.

The participants' classroom teaching was neither videotaped nor audiotaped. Classroom observation data were taken through note-taking manually, and some photos depicting classroom settings were taken with the permission of the participants after the observations. The classroom observation was conducted after or before an interview with each participant. My role in the classroom observations was as non-participative observer (Gay et al., 2009); I was not directly involved in the situation being observed.

That is to say that I observed and manually recorded behaviours, but I neither interacted nor participated in the life of the setting under study (Gay et al., 2009). Finally, based on a manual observation note-taking format adapted from Gay's (2012), I reconstructed participants' classroom practices into written texts chronologically and they became a part of the research data. The format includes initials of participants; the duration of the lesson; the topic that was taught; the date of the observation; the grade levels; and columns to record the three stages of their teaching practice (pre-learning, core-learning and post-learning activities) as they described in the interviews.

e. Data recording

As has been noted above, the data for the current research involved qualitative information gained through interviews and classroom observations plus samples of teaching documents of the participants such as lesson plans, syllabi, and textbooks. The interviews were digitally recorded from which the data transcript of each participant was made. Participants were informed in advance that the interviews would be recorded and that any identifying material would be excluded. The transcripts were generally verbatim with some modifications, for example, where real names were used in the interviews and pseudonyms were used in the transcripts.

Verbatim transcripts, however, presented some challenges (Merriam, 1998); they could not reveal the emphasis or tone or the hidden understanding that participants and the researcher understood from the conversations, nor did a single interpretation of an interview reveal the essence of the conversation (Merriam, 1998). At the time of interviews the personal state of mind of the participants could have affected the perceptions that were revealed at the time of interviews (Merriam, 1998). To counter the possibility that participants presented a point of view, which they saw as not sufficiently accurate, a copy of the Indonesian transcript was made available to each of the participants for clarification or refinement (Merriam, 1998). The participants made minor refinements, such as adding in an explanatory phrase or adding in a clarifying sentence to the texts. Where the participants had requested a specific modification at the end of the interviews, they confirmed on reading the transcripts that the alterations captured the essence of what they had said. All participants signed every page of the transcripts indicating that the transcripts were trustworthy and could be analysed for the research findings.

5.5.2 Data analyses methods

This section describes methods that were used to analyse the data of this study. It includes descriptions of the theoretical framework and stages of data analysis, and data presentation. As has been discussed above, all of the data of this study were qualitative information which included texts collected from two main collection strategies: interviews and classroom observations plus teaching documents of the participants such as samples of lesson plans, syllabi and text books they used for children. Figure 5.2 that follows shows kinds of data used for this study.

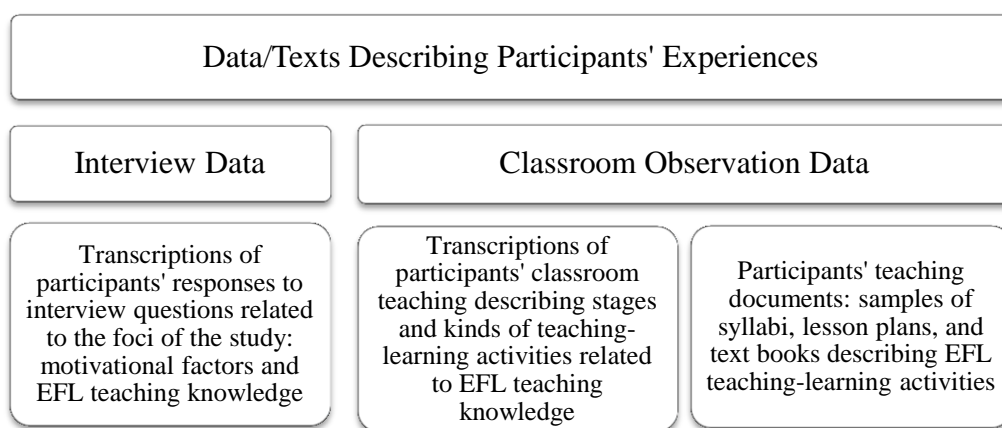


Figure 5.2 Kinds of Data Used for This Study

a. Framing data analyses

The aim of data analyses in a qualitative study is to “transform lived experience into a textual expression of its essence in such a way that the effect of the text is at once a reflexive re-living and a reflective appropriation of something meaningful” (van Manen, 1997, p. 36). Similarly, in an interpretive phenomenology, the purpose of data analyses is to build an evocative description of the experience of the participants which includes action, their intentions and behaviour with regard to the phenomenon being researched. The results of an interpretive phenomenological study “should be simple and straightforward such that readers who experienced the phenomenon can analyse their own reality with themes that are identified” because the themes describe the “structure of experience” of the participants and provide a lively picture of the phenomenon (Ajjawi & Higgs, 2007, p. 622).

In the case of my study, data analyses were framed by a thematic analysis technique commonly used in the interpretive phenomenology (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Elo & Kynga, 2007). As outlined before, using the interpretive phenomenology, the

researcher is advised to use related literature of the field being researched to guide the construction of research questions, collection and analyses of the research data (Paley, 1998; Holroyd, 2007). This means that the researcher will use the provided literature reviews to analyse and interpret the research data. Usually, the data (such as interviews or evidence from observations) are presented first, and followed by discussion and interpretation using relevant literature outlined in the literature review chapter.

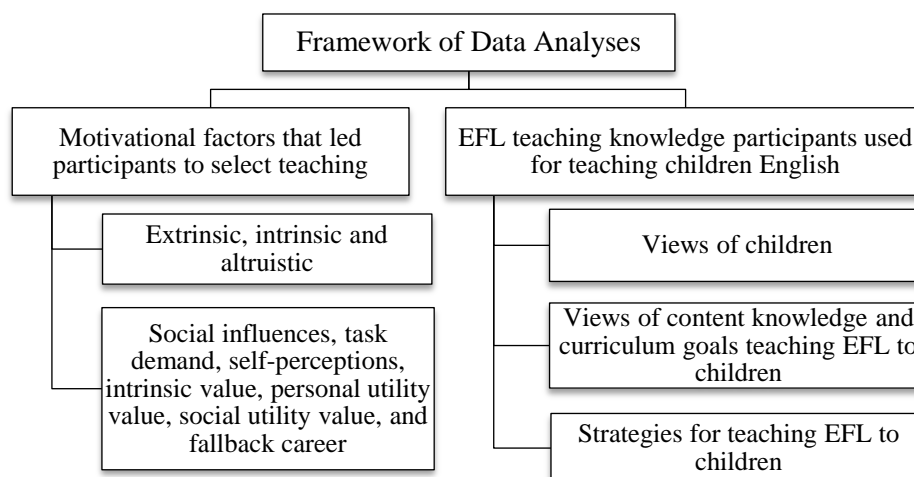


Figure 5.3 Theoretical Frameworks of Data Analyses

In the current study, the data concerned with the participants' views of motivational factors that led them to choose the secondary EFL teaching profession and to work in primary schools after university study, were framed and discussed using the categorisation of motivational factors such as extrinsic, intrinsic and altruistic categorisation (Ryan and Deci, 2000). In addition, motivational factor categorisation proposed by Richardson and Watt (2006) in the FIT-Choice, which included social influences, task demand, self-perceptions, intrinsic value, personal utility value, social utility value, and fallback career, was also used. Moreover, the data dealing with the EFL teaching knowledge the participants used in teaching primary school children English, both gathered through interviews and classroom observations plus lesson plans, syllabi, and text books, were discussed and interpreted using the frames of three broad language teaching theoretical perspectives: views of children as language learners, views of content and curriculum in teaching children English, and views of pedagogical approaches required to teach EFL to children as discussed by several language experts in Chapter. This meant that the themes and subthemes emerging from the data or texts (interview and classroom observation transcriptions) were framed and grouped according to these broad domains. Such a method of data analysis has been used by

many health researchers such as Boyatzis (1998) and Burns & Grove (2005) and educational researchers such as Stake (2005) and Yin (2009). The theoretical frameworks that guided the data analyses of the study are described in Figure 5.3 above.

b. Stages of data analysis

A hermeneutic circle, the key strategy drawn from the interpretive literature, was used to analyse the data (van Manen, 2011). The hermeneutic circle is a symbolic descriptive strategy for interpreting meaning embedded in the participants’ experiences. It describes the procedure used by interpretive researchers to understand and interpret the research data in which they “move from the parts of experience, to the whole of experience and back and forth again and again to increase the depth of engagement with and the understanding of texts” (Laverly, 2003, p. 9). Following the flow of the circle, the researcher actively moves between parts and the whole of the research data in order to construct integrated interpretation of the phenomenon being studied. Such procedure was used in the current study; the process of interpretation occurred iteratively as described in Figure 5.4 below. The interpretation remained open to questions that emerged from studying the phenomenon (Laverly, 2003). The researcher allowed the text to speak and the answer was to be searched for in the text.

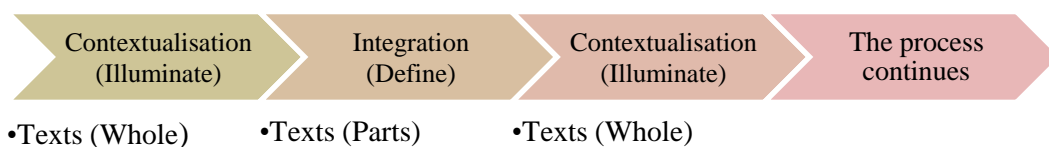


Figure 5.4 Process of Data Analysis

The understanding of the phenomenon emerged from the cyclic process of dialoguing (or interrogation of the research text) between the researcher and the text in the context of researcher’s knowledge from experience plus the literature. The process of interpretation represented ongoing dialogues between the researched and me as the researcher. Thus, the interpretation as the result of the data analysis remains open and tentative (Bontekoe, 1996).

The final interpretations were constructed into a report of the phenomenon describing the experiences of the participants regarding the phenomenon of EFL teaching in primary schools (Flick, 2002). Following the procedure as described in Figure 5.4 above, data analysis of this study consisted of three main stages: immersion,

synthesis and theme development, and illumination and illustration of phenomena. These stages can be described in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Stages of Data Analysis Developed For This Research

STAGES	TASKS ACCOMPLISHED
1. Immersion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organising the research data into texts • Repetitious reading of texts • Making notes of the texts to enable coding • Labelling words, phrases, sentences, sections (coding)
2. Synthesis and theme development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identifying sub-themes • Grouping sub-themes into themes • Extending elaboration of themes • Contrasting themes across sub-themes groups
3. Illuminating the phenomenon	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relating the themes to the literature • Reconstructing interpretations into the report

1) Immersion

My thematic analyses were done immediately following the sequence of the sub-research questions. First, Indonesian texts were constructed from interviews with the participants and from the descriptions of classroom activities taken during the classroom observations. The interview texts were grouped according to sub-research questions, and the observation texts were grouped according to the stages of participants' teaching. Relevant copies of the Indonesian texts that were grouped according to the sub-research questions were provided to the participants for clarifications or refinements (Laverty, 2003). This step was needed as it is important to assure the internal validity of the data (Patton, 2002).

Second, the Indonesian texts after the participants' reading were translated into English texts. This step had special challenges, both in terms of the language accuracy and the styles of data presentation in the report. The accuracy issue, if not addressed properly, may lead to violation of the internal validity of the data (Nikander, 2008), and the presentation style is still debateable (ten Have, 1999). For the accuracy issue, the data, both the Indonesian and the English texts, were sent to a bilingual Indonesian-English linguist working as a fellow-researcher at Central Queensland University based

in Melbourne, Australia. The language specialist had worked as an EFL lecturer in Indonesia (1987 to 1998); therefore, she has considerable understanding about the contexts of EFL teaching in Indonesia. She speaks both Indonesian and English with about the same accuracy. After completing a PhD program at Monash University in Melbourne, Australia, she worked as a research fellow at several universities in Australia. This educational and professional background meant she had the appropriate background to check the translated verbatim data, both the English and the Indonesian version texts. After refinements were made, the texts were ready to be the starting point for the data analysis.

The third stage in the immersion stage dealt with repeated reading of the data related to research questions of the study (Silverman, 2000). I read the research data (interview transcripts, descriptions of the participants' teaching, and teaching documents) repeatedly to understand the texts comprehensively. I went back to the recorded interviews and classroom observation data iteratively. Such a process was called *immersion* in the data which involved "engaging with the meaning of the texts, where the aim was to get a sense or preliminary interpretation of the texts" (Ajjawi & Higgs, 2007, p. 622) that enabled coding.

Initially, the data were coded with the assistance of NVivo 10®, software that sorted the information systematically (QSR, 2011). The transcripts of the thirteen participants were entered into the software to be coded. However, the program was only useful to sort or group the information; it was not sufficiently sensitive to create themes. In addition, it could not display all information at once in order for the researcher to be able to classify and move the data into different themes.

More useful was undertaking a manual reading and reviewing of the hard copies of transcripts, both the Indonesian and the English versions. The print out of the thirteen transcripts from the participants were scanned while making notes in the margins and identifying key statements, concepts or issues, and writing comments linked to the literature frameworks of the study. I used colours to indicate different key statements, concepts or issues emerging from each of the participants. By reading the hard copies of the transcript of each participant repeatedly, I was able to identify similar or different subthemes emerging from each of participants related to the research questions and the literature. This stage allowed me to formulate subthemes from significant statements of the participants "using creative insight to move from what participants said" to come closer to what they meant (Creswell, 2007, p. 54).

2) Synthesis and developments of themes

The subthemes, obtained from the results of the previous stage, were grouped together into a smaller number of themes. In this stage, themes and sub-themes were further explored and their relationships were refined by repetitious reading of the data. This stage consisted of cyclic movements between the review of previous studies, the research data and the former analysis, as well as the movements from parts to whole, undertaking the process as described in the interpretation circle, Figure 5.4 above. This process provided the basis of interpretation of the phenomenon of secondary-trained EFL teachers undertaking teaching in primary schools. The process facilitated in-depth interpretation of identified themes that the participants articulated, taking into account the complexity and characteristics of the phenomenon being investigated (Ajjawi & Higgs, 2007). “In determining the universal or essential quality of a theme the researcher’s concern was to discover aspects or qualities that made the phenomenon what it was and without which the phenomenon could not be what it was” (van Manen, 1997, p. 107). Validation was gained by referring back to the original transcriptions both the Indonesian and English versions to examine anything that was not considered in the categorisations or themes and whether the themes described something, which was not suggested in the original transcripts. Differences and ambiguities were noted without rejecting data that did not fit into themes (Creswell, 2007).

3) Illuminating the phenomenon

The stage of illuminating the phenomenon described the step in which I considered carefully the literature that was linked to the themes and sub-themes emerging from the texts. I also examined the links between primary themes to construct theoretical position. Based on the themes and sub-themes as well as their interconnections as a basis, I reassembled the participants’ professional pathways to become EFL teachers in primary schools and the EFL teaching knowledge they used to teach children EFL using their own words in order to illuminate their professional journey and draw major findings from the data set.

c. Data presentation

Data presentation is the part of the analysis process in interpretive phenomenological research that enables themes and subthemes to be clearly organised through examining the data that have been coded in order to establish patterns, so that interpretation can be conducted and conclusions drawn (Silverman, 2000). In an

interpretive phenomenological study, in terms of the presentation of data in the chapters detailing the findings, when working with translated data (such as the Indonesian and the English versions) two choices could be made: first, to present chunks of both versions in separate blocks, one after another in the body of the report; and second, to show only the chunks of the translated version while keeping both the original in a safety locker for other researchers to check (Paoletti, 1998). In the case of my study, I used the second technique for its simplicity and ease of writing procedure relying on the accuracy of the translation work. Some idiomatic expressions in the Indonesian versions which could not be literally translated into the English texts, however, were kept and included in the data presentation.

In the chapters discussing the findings, themes and subthemes emerging from the coded data are presented according the sub-research questions. Quotations from participant's words derived from interviews were presented first (Smythe, 2011). In other words, in every chapter of findings, after a short introduction, each theme was presented with quotations of data consisting of participants' words and evidence from classroom observations, and followed by discussions. The presence of supporting data from classroom observation is important. As argued earlier, to understand participants' EFL teaching knowledge comprehensively, the interview data need support from evidence of classroom observation (Brown, 1986). However, in this study, not all themes had supports from evidence of classroom observations.

Interpretive phenomenology treats samples representing the phenomenon being studied collectively (Silverman, 2000; van Manen, 1997). This means that in the data presentation, it is not necessary for the researcher to mention the number of participants who discuss a particular theme (Smythe, 2011). However, in my analyses, I presented themes with supporting data sequencing from the most common to the least common, in order to highlight the importance of the themes discussed by the participants. I noted the number of participants who discussed the themes during the interviews. At the end of the interpretation of a theme, a summary was provided connecting to the presentation of the next theme.

5.6 Verification

The data analyses process led to decisions about which data were going to be used in the research and, therefore, which data informed the conclusions (Silverman, 2000). In this study, verification involved checking the data by the participants. (Flick, 2002; Silverman, 2000; Stake, 1995). As also mentioned above, the data were first

checked by the participants; they signed every page of the text verifying that the data were ready for analyses. In developing the findings, the data were constantly checked. This was done by checking data on a particular theme related to each participant and then checking whether further data about that theme was embedded in another theme of subtheme. This involved multiple readings of the data. The initial categorisations of themes were refined to verify the meaning of the data that had been placed under a particular heading of theme. In that way, I checked the essence of what each participant was saying. Through a cycle of collecting, analysing, reducing data and data display, my understandings developed and formed the understanding about the phenomenon (Seidman, 1998; Eisenhardt, 2002).

5.7 Ethical Issues

The study was conducted in accordance with the policies of the Australian Catholic University (ACU) Ethics Committee. As noted the research involved EFL teachers in Indonesian primary schools in Jambi, permission was sought from the local Ministry of Education and Culture of Indonesia (MECI) of Jambi City. The local MECI was informed that the study would involve several schools and EFL teachers. The local MECI was informed that the study would use semi-structured interviews and classroom observations for data collection, and that pseudonyms would be used for the schools and the EFL teachers selected as the research participants.

In the discussion of the data, references to the school were necessary to provide the context for participants' experiences and, therefore, the schools were named, School 1, School 2, and so on. Each participant was given pseudonyms and a code number such as Fairus (teacher 1) at school 1 (T1-S1) for anonymity as seen in Table 5.2 earlier. All records of the interviews including notes, audiotapes, transcripts and other relevant materials were secured in a locked filing system at ACU, and the access was available only to the researcher and other researchers with the permission of ACU. Any information collected which might reveal the identity of the participants and their schools was not used in reporting this research.

5.8 Limitations and Delimitations

The limitations of the current research are acknowledged. Firstly, the control of the authority (the local Minister of Education and Culture of Indonesia) over the sampling procedure contributed a significant limitation to the research findings of the current study. As described in the participant selection section, the nine schools were chosen by the government only represented what they saw as the best performing

primary schools implementing the EFL teaching program in the city. This method closed access to other schools to include more EFL teachers who could have a different range of experiences in the topics of the phenomenon under investigation.

Secondly, as the study used qualitative methodology with a small sample size, when viewed through the lenses of a quantitative approach, it is inappropriate for the purpose of generalisation. Therefore, the research findings were particular rather than general, in that they did not necessarily relate to all EFL teachers and to all primary schools in Indonesia (Patton, 2002). Although the study revealed a more comprehensive analysis qualitatively compared to a quantitative statistical finding, it was not designed for a purpose of generalisation (Merriam, 1998; Neuman, 1997).

Thirdly, the data which were translated from the Indonesian version into English texts also contributed a limitation. Some words, expressions, or phrases which were Indonesian culturally-bounded could not be translated into English properly. This reduced the richness of the data which could weaken the interpretation. In addition, the research provided descriptive insights from the participants that were focused on targeted research questions, and therefore, limited what was discussed by the participants. This restricted the scope of the study. The research reported here did not include all issues that may have been raised by the participants during the data collection process. A more extensive study of primary schools implementing the EFL program may not produce the same conclusions or recommendations to this study. The conclusions of and recommendations from this research, however, could form a basis for further research (Silverman, 2000).

5.9 Summary

This chapter has outlined the research paradigm and methodological framework that guided me as the researcher to conduct and to write the report of the current research. The research paradigm was influenced by constructivism theory and the methodological framework was located in the area of qualitative research contextualised by the interpretive phenomenological methodology. For this purpose, I have discussed the constructivism paradigm and the interpretive phenomenological approach underpinning this study. The discussion of research design that included data collection methods, thematic data analysis methods, ethical issues, and limitations and delimitations related to this phenomenological study were provided.

CHAPTER 6 FINDINGS:

Motivational Factors of Participants in Selecting the EFL Teaching Profession

6.1 Introduction

Using an interpretive phenomenological approach to investigate the experience of thirteen secondary-trained EFL teachers (henceforth participants) teaching English in primary schools, the current study was concerned with understanding the participants' views of the motivational factors that led them to come to work in primary classrooms, and their views of the EFL teaching knowledge they used to work with children.

This chapter addresses the research aims by analysing transcriptions of interviews collected from the research participants teaching English in primary schools in Jambi city, Indonesia. To revisit the methodology chapter, the specific sub-research questions this chapter attempts to address are:

1. What motivational factors have led individuals to choose the EFL teaching profession in Indonesia?
2. What motivational factors have led the secondary-trained EFL teachers to come to teach English in primary schools?

The first question above explored participants' views of motivational factors that led them to choose a secondary EFL teacher education program in order to become English language teachers of secondary students (grades seventh to twelve). The second question explored participants' view of motivational factors that led them to work in primary schools rather in secondary schools after completing the secondary EFL teacher education program. To address these questions, transcriptions of the participants' responses to interview questions are analysed thematically. Themes emerging from the analysis are discussed using traditional categories of motivational factors (intrinsic, extrinsic and altruistic) and contemporary categories of motivational factors used in the FIT-Choice framework proposed by Richardson and Watt (2006) discussed in the literature chapters.

The chapter is divided into two sections: participants' views of motivational factors that led them to select the teaching profession (Section 6.2) and motivational

factors that led the participants to work in primary schools (Section 6.3). Each of these sections presents themes emerging from interviews. The themes, together with related responses of the participants, which are ordered from the most common to least common, are presented first, followed by analyses and discussion. A summary is provided at the end of each section.

6.2 Motivational Factors that Led Secondary-Trained EFL Teachers to Select the Teaching Profession

Interviews revealed that, in general, the participants seemed to be influenced to select the EFL teaching profession by extrinsic and altruistic motivational factors rather than intrinsic ones. However, interestingly, all participants also stated that they seemed to develop intrinsic motivational factors in themselves after they entered the secondary EFL teacher education program or after they worked in the teaching profession. In other words, their initial motivational factors changed into intrinsic motivational factors after they entered the teaching profession. Table 6.1 below provides a general description of participants' views of motivational factors before and after they completed the secondary EFL teacher education program.

When the interview data were viewed using motivational factors that constitute the FIT-choice framework, in general, the participants appeared to be influenced by “task returns”, “personal utility value”, “social utility values” and “fallback career”. Motivational factors such as “task demand” and “self-perceptions” did not emerge from the interviews. Some motivational factors appeared to be unique to the Indonesian culture. The following themes describe the motivational factors that were found to have influenced the participants in selecting EFL as a teaching profession:

- Wanting to learn English for the benefits it brings
- Fallback career
- To please parents
- It is my fate
- To motivate others to learn English
- From extrinsic to intrinsic

Table 6.1 Participants' Motivational Factors Before and After Entering the EFL Teaching Profession

Participants	Before Entering the Teaching Profession					After Entering the Teaching Profession
	Intrinsic	Extrinsic	Altruistic	Fallback career	To please parents	Intrinsic
T1-S1	-	-	√	-	√	√
T2-S2	-	-	-	-	-	√
T3-S2	-	√	-	-	-	√
T4-S3	-	√	√	√	-	√
T5-S3	-	-	√	√	-	√
T6-S4	-	-	√	-	√	√
T7-S5	-	√	-	-	-	√
T8-S5	-	√	√	-	√	√
T9-S6	-	-	√	-	√	√
T10-S6	-	√	-	√	√	√
T11-S7	-	√	-	-	-	√
T12-S8	-	-	√	√	√	√
T13-S9	-	√	√	√	-	√

Note. √ indicates the presence of relevant motivational factors in the data of participants' interviews. The table above shows that participants' initial motivational factors before they entered the secondary EFL teacher education program varied and no participant showed intrinsic motivational factor initially. However, all initial motivational factors changed into intrinsic motivation after they worked in primary schools.

6.2.1 Wanting to learn English for the benefits it brings

In responding to a general question which required the participants to describe their pathways to the EFL teaching profession, five of these thirteen secondary-trained EFL teachers stated that at the beginning their primary reason for entering the secondary EFL teacher education program was to learn English for the several benefits it offered. They said they thought that English would benefit them in developing their professional business career. Moreover, they seemed to believe that English proficiency was required by people in the contemporary world as it has become an increasingly important language in the world of business. In other words, initially their intention to learn English or to major in the EFL teacher education program was to support a non-teaching career.

T4-S3 stated that since she was at the secondary school, she always wanted to be a businesswoman. She wished to study a double degree in economics and English literature at university, believing that business and English proficiency would complement each other and would benefit her career in business. She stated, "I believed English would benefit my career in business, so I wanted to major in Economics and in

English at university” (T4-S3, personal communication, April 2, 2012). However, T4-S3 stated that she failed to gain a place to study in the Faculty of Economics; she only passed the test to study in the EFL teacher education program.

Similarly, T13-S9 stated that he wished to combine an undergraduate degree in economics and the English language, but he could not gain a place to study the desired program in the Faculty of Economics although he sat for the entrance test twice. He only passed the test to study the EFL teacher education program which finally brought him to become an EFL teacher. T13-S9 stated, “I knew English would become an important language for business people in a modern world; therefore, I decided to study management at the Economics Faculty and English in the EFL teacher education program, but I only gained a place for the latter” (T13-S9, personal communication 1, April 27, 2012).

Likewise, T7-S5 commented, “I believed that studying EFL teaching would lead me to a good career in the future because I knew English would become one of the most important languages in the world, and my hometown is a famous destination for western tourists, so knowing English would benefit me there” (T7-S5, personal communication, April 7, 2012). T1-S1 stated, “Initially, my motivation to enter the EFL teacher education program was not to teach English or to be an English teacher; I just wanted to learn English for many benefits it offered; I wanted to speak English fluently, and I undertook a state secondary EFL teacher education program as I knew it was better than the private language school where I learned English during my secondary education” (T1-S1, personal communication, March 29, 2012).

All the participants’ statements above fit in with what are described as extrinsic motivational factors similar as discussed in Chapter 3. The above participants explained that they wanted to learn EFL or to study the secondary EFL teacher education program because they perceived the practical benefits of English proficiency were increasingly important these days because of the role of English in a globalised world; they seemed to believe that English had become an essential language in modern profession or in business dealing (Richards, 1998). Apart from the above participants, almost all of the thirteen secondary-trained EFL teachers to some extent discussed this factor in their responses.

Research showed that the motivational factors that inspire individuals to choose the teaching profession vary (Richardson & Watt, 2012). Some studies also showed that people may be influenced by multiple factors in choosing a career (Latham & Pinder, 2005). Similarly, the current study revealed that multiple factors seemed to have shaped participants' motivation to enter the secondary EFL teacher education program and choose to become secondary-trained EFL teachers. Some of these motivational factors seemed to be integrated in individual participants so that they appeared to be influenced by multi motivational factors in making decisions about their teaching career. The theme "wanting to learn English for the benefits it brings" as described by the participants above can be classified into "ought-to L2 self" motivational factor (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009, p. 3), in which one believes that they ought to possess something in order to gain the primary goal. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009) argued that if proficiency in an L2 has become a part of belief of "one's ideal or ought-to self", it can become a strong stimulus to them to study the targeted L2 because of people's psychological need to decrease the difference between their contemporary and possible upcoming selves (p. 3). This type of motivation was seen in the participants' responses as quoted above, in which they stated that English proficiency was important for a successful career in business due to the increasing use of the language in this field.

Using the categorisation of motivational factors in FIT-choice proposed by Richardson and Watt (2006), this theme can be categorised into personal utility value or instrumental motivation. Such a motivational factor describes an individual's understanding of the increasing important role of a related skill (such as English proficiency) required to gain an ambition in social life. Such a motive can be seen in five participants in that they believed English proficiency was an essential instrument for the development of a profession in a business career; they seemed to believe that without English proficiency, it would be difficult for them to achieve the desired position in the world of business.

This finding is also related the Indonesian context discussed in Chapters 1 and 2, where the need for English proficiency in Indonesia has been increasing mainly due to the influence of globalisation and modern life (Emilia, 2005). The influence of English in the globalised world has meant that, the Indonesian government has always linked the importance of English proficiency to state development in various sectors including economic, education, tourism, and health. The government of Indonesia has promoted English proficiency through many official documents (such as the curriculum for

Indonesian education) or through official meetings (e.g., the national language day) (Emilia, 2005). The Indonesian Institution of Higher Education requires English proficiency for lecturers who want to upgrade their professional degrees both inside and outside the country.

The awareness of the importance of English has also increased among Indonesian private employers. Many Indonesian private companies have signalled proficiency in both spoken and written English as an essential criterion for employment (Lamb & Coleman, 2008). Moreover, the public can see that Indonesian people who have English proficiency have greater opportunities to work for important companies such as international banks and mining companies which offer better salaries than local employers than those who do not. Also, Indonesia is a tourism destination country, and many positions require English. As said by T7-S5, she initially undertook the EFL teacher education program as her home town was one of the tourist destination cities in Indonesia that required tourist workers. Therefore, initially T7-S5 was motivated to learn English at an institute of foreign languages in her city in order to work in tourism; it was only later that she entered the secondary EFL teacher education program in Jambi. In summary, as the need for English proficiency for Indonesian people is increasing, it is not surprising that many individuals want to learn English or to become EFL teachers; they seemed to be driven by the “ought-to L2 self” motivational factor, that is to obtain practical benefits.

The above finding is similar to the research findings reported in developing countries such as Zimbabwe, Cameroon, Malawi, Brunei and Egypt as discussed in Chapter 3, where many individuals chose to become teachers because of extrinsic rather than intrinsic motives (Kyriacou & Benmansour, 1999). For example, a study in Morocco found that forty-five percent of respondents were motivated to learn a foreign language in order to obtain the practical benefits of the language such as to use the language to learn the culture of the native speakers or to advance education, e.g., to study overseas. However, in a few developing countries such as Thailand and China individuals’ motivation in selecting the EFL teaching profession has shifted from extrinsic to intrinsic (Hayes, 2008; Zhao, 2008).

6.2.2 Fallback career

The theme “fallback career” has been discussed in several research studies conducted in developed and developing countries. As discussed in Chapter 3 there was a tendency in developing countries for people to view teaching as a fallback career. For example, they came to teaching because of failure to pursue the desired career.

In this study, the theme fallback career is related to the theme discussed in 6.2.1 above. Five of the thirteen participants stated that they chose to study the secondary EFL teacher education program because they failed the entrance tests to study their desired study program at university. For example, T5-S3 described that at first, he wanted to study medicine in order to become a doctor; however, he could not gain a place at the university. Thus, instead of waiting for another year to repeat the entrance exam, he undertook the test to study the EFL teacher education program. He stated, “I undertook the entrance test to study medicine, but I did not pass the test, and then I took the entrance test to study the EFL teacher program” (T5-S3, personal communication, April 2, 2012). Similarly, T10-S6 explained a similar experience. He stated, “I wanted to become a doctor, but I did not pass the entrance test, and then I studied in the Faculty of Language and Arts, majoring in English Linguistics” (T10-S6, personal communication, April 17, 2012). T12-S8 stated:

In undertaking the university entrance test, my first choice was the Faculty of Law and the second one was the EFL teacher education program taking the advice of my parents. Unfortunately I could not gain a place in the Faculty of Law; I only passed the test to study in the Faculty of Education majoring in EFL teaching (T12-S8, personal communication, April 16, 2012).

Teaching as a fallback career was identified in studies discussed by other researchers such as Kılinc et al., (2012) in Turkey, and Mtika & Gates, (2011) in Zimbabwe. Teaching as a fallback career was also discussed by researchers in Asian regions such as in China (Zhao, 2008) and in Thailand (Hayes, 2008) in which people to considered the teaching profession as a second choice for a career. Such a tendency was also revealed in the current study. The participants of the current study appeared to select the teaching profession as a fallback career; they chose to study the EFL teacher education program as they had failed to enter their desired study programs at university. This phenomenon supports the public opinion in Indonesia discussed in Chapter 3 that

the students studying in the Faculty of Education are undertaking teaching as a fallback career. It has been argued that many prospective teachers chose teaching after they had failed to gain a place for studying the desired programs in faculties other than education (Rumongso, 2013). Perhaps this factor has also led to a public perception in Indonesia that prospective teachers are not as smart as students in the faculties of science and technology, mathematics, and accounting (Rumongso, 2013).

6.2.3 To please parents

The theme “to please parents” illustrates the fact that some of the participants chose to study the EFL teacher education program due to parental encouragement. The participants, who embodied this theme, at first, did not intend to become EFL teachers, but in order to respect their parents they took the advice of their parents and undertook the secondary EFL teacher education program.

Six participants stated that to become EFL teachers was not their own choice; but the influence of parents contributed to their decision. For example, T8-S5, a senior EFL teacher, graduated from a Primary Teacher Education School, known as “Sekolah Pendidikan Guru” (SPG); she attained the best mark for English in the final examination. At seeing this, her father said, “Why not study an undergraduate degree in EFL teaching” (T8-S5, personal communication, April 7, 2012). T12-S8, T6-S4, and T10-S6 had similar experiences.

T12-S8 stated that she wanted to study law or economics, taking the initiative to select a different profession from that of her family (parents and sisters) who were all teachers. However, her father seeing her excellent English marks in her school certificate encouraged her to select the EFL teacher education program. T12-S8 stated, “The idea and motivation for studying the EFL teacher education program came from my parents; after looking at my certificate and secondary school transcript, they saw my outstanding mark for English” (T12-S8, personal communication, April 16, 2012). Similarly, T6-S4 stated that she was majoring in science at the secondary school, but because her parents saw a wider opportunity in working in English teaching rather than in the field of science, they encouraged her to enter the EFL teacher education program. She stated that she had a difficult time during the early semesters of her university education as she did not have strong motivation and knowledge of English; however, she managed to graduate from the program with an excellent result. T6-S4 explained,

“The very first reason for studying the EFL teacher education program was to follow the advice of my parents. They believed the program had better job opportunities compared to other study programs” (T6-S4, personal communication, March 3, 2012). In the same way, T10-S6 described, “The thing that brought me to be working as a teacher was my parents” (T10-S6, personal communication, April 17, 2012). Like T12-S8’s parents, T10-S6’s parents were also teachers. Finally, T1-S1 stated that although he loved English, he did not have an intention to teach English at first; however, his parents wanted him to be a teacher. T1-S1 stated:

Initially, my motivation to study the secondary EFL teacher education program was not to become a teacher. I just wanted to learn English, to be able to speak the language, but my parents, when I was at secondary school, said to me “My son, could you be a teacher?”. So I obeyed my parents in order to please them, and then I enrolled in the EFL teacher education program (T1-S1, personal communication, March 29, 2012).

Besides parental influence, some participants were influenced by their English teachers to select the EFL teacher education programs or to choose the EFL teaching pathway. In the Indonesian culture, teachers are respected as parents; they share the same role in terms of education, e.g., to guide children to the right direction that fits their ability and personality (Wahab, 2005). For example, T9-S6 stated that because she was good at English, her teacher suggested that she undertake the EFL teacher education program at university. T9-S6 said, “I always had excellent marks for English, and because of that, my teacher said to me”, ‘You are very good at English, so why not take the English teacher education program at university?’” (T9-S6, personal communication, April 16, 2012).

The theme “to please parents” is similar to the theme “My family think that I should become a teacher” identified in a study by Kılinc et al. (2012) in Turkey. This theme suggests that parents in Indonesia as in Turkey contribute to their children’s choice of the teaching profession. As has been noted above, the social demand for English competence in Indonesia has grown due to the increasing use of the language globally. For this reason, the Indonesian government has always highlighted the importance of English proficiency for national development. And Indonesian society is becoming increasingly aware that the use of English is indispensable in the contemporary world to obtain a good job post university and hence improve the quality

of social life. In addition, in Indonesia, English proficiency is a kind of honour for parents. Parents are proud to see that their children can speak in English. Parents' views about the social status associated with English were likely to have influenced them in encouraging teaching English as a career for their children.

In Indonesia, studies investigating the impact of parental influence on children's career choice to become EFL teachers were not found in the review of literature. However, as described in Chapter 3, generally prospective teachers studying in LPTKs were from low income families (Wiharyanto, 2004); wealthy families were not keen on sending their children to study in the faculties of education or to become EFL English teachers. Low income families view that studying in the faculties of education such as EFL teaching program is affordable and graduates the EFL teaching program have a greater opportunity to work soon compared to graduates of other study programs.

Parental influence on children's career choice (not in becoming an English teacher) has also been reported in few studies in Canada. A study by Witko, Bernes, Magnusson, and Bardick (2005) in Canada, reported that parental influence was dominant children's decision in selecting their careers. Another study reported that parental influence was the first factor that determines the career choice of children in Canada (Esters & Bowen, 2005).

A similar theme to parental influence on children career choice was also found in China as discussed in Chapter 3. In China many EFL teachers at first did not have the intention to choose EFL teaching for their profession; however, their parents wanted them to become EFL teachers because the English teaching profession was a secure and honourable job (Zhao, 2008). A similar theme was also found in studies by Su, Hawkins, Chunhua, and Tao (2002) in Tibet and Wuhan; Harun (2006) in Malaysia; and Hayes (2008) in Thailand; Kılınc et al. (2012) in Turkey.

The theme of parental influence on children career choice in Indonesia appeared to be influenced by the specific context of Indonesian culture. "To please parents" is related to the Indonesian culture as a Muslim religious country. Muslim children are encouraged to be obedient and dutiful to their parents (Bukhari, 2013). In this study, it is apparent that all participants showed their obedience to their parents; none of them rejected the advice of their parents to become EFL teachers. They took the advice although some of them (as described in 6.2.2) placed the choice of their parents as the

second option when they registered to undertake the university entrance tests, while T1-S1 said clearly “I wanted to obey them”.

Greatly influenced by Islamic values, Indonesian children are always expected to uphold the advice and guidance of parents and teachers (Bukhari, 2013). Honouring or accepting the advice of parents or teachers is seen as an excellent and honourable behaviour highly valued in social life, the religion and the state of Indonesia. Taking the advice of parents and teachers is one way to “please them” and to be dutiful to them. To please and be dutiful to parents is among the major teachings of Islam (Muslim, 2013). A saying of the Prophet is that the mercy of God depends on the mercy of parents (Bukhari, 2013). Perhaps, because of their obedience to parents, these participants developed an intrinsic motivation factor that enabled them to commit to their profession as described above. In short, this finding indicates that parents’ influence on children’s career decision in Indonesia is significant, and the participants appeared to sincerely accept their parents’ choice for their profession.

The theme “to please parents” discussed by the participants in this study should be viewed as an aspect of Indonesian culture. In this study, it was an indication that parents of the participants wanted to preserve this culture in the lives of their children. In addition to wanting children to obey them, as believed in the faith of the majority of people in Indonesia, they also wanted their children to have a decent life. The fact that teachers in Indonesia experience economic difficulties did not deter parents from recommending it to their children as it is seen as an honourable profession. Parental guidance in the selection of their children's career in Indonesia is still very powerful. Although at the present time, children may know more about the career or profession options, but in the Indonesian culture it is expected that they should not ignore the counsel of parents (Muslim, 2013).

6.2.4 It is my fate

The theme “it is my fate” is related to the participants’ religious belief in regard to their career path. Five participants commented that the journey of their profession has been written in their “fate” as it has been decided by God for them. Many comments of the participants are related to this theme; some of them are as follows.

T5-S3, as also noted in 6.2.3 above, was interested in studying medicine as he wanted to become a medical doctor, however, he was not successful on the entrance

test. When he tried the Faculty of Education, he passed the test, therefore he commented, “Perhaps God has created me to become an English teacher” (T5-S3, personal communication, April 2, 2012). Similarly T6-S4, (as also noted in 6.2.2), said that she wanted to be a scientist, but her father considered that English education had better job opportunities after graduating from university; so he suggested that she study the EFL teacher education program. Commenting on this T6-S4 stated, “I think it was my divine fate that has led me here” (T6-S4, personal communication, March 3, 2012). The same was also expressed by T7-S5, commenting, “God has provided me with the best job, EFL teaching” (T7-S5, personal communication, April 7, 2012).

This theme cannot be categorised into any aspect in the FIT-choice proposed by Richardson and Watt (2006) or into conventional categorisations of motivational factors such as extrinsic, altruistic or intrinsic; however this study found it to be related to the development of intrinsic motivation as has been discussed in Sections 6.2.2 and 6.2.3 above. Similar to the theme discussed in 6.2.3, it appeared to be related to the religious faith of the participants and the majority of Indonesian people; it indicates the relationship between the participants’ religion (e.g., Islam) and their work motivation leading to high commitment in undertaking the EFL teaching profession. As has been noted in Chapter 4, the settings of the study involved three Islamic schools and six state schools where most teachers were Muslims. Except for T13-S9, all participants were Muslims. Thus, in such circumstances, the issue of religious values seemed to be unavoidable.

A study by Yuwono and Harbon (2010) in Salatiga Indonesia also found a motivational factor which was similar to the above theme. These authors found that many participants said that teaching was a noble religious duty, meaning that teachers who sincerely choose the teaching profession would receive countless rewards from God in the hereafter. In my study the participants above mentioned that they sincerely accepted the job of teaching as it was given by God.

The study by Yuwono and Harbon (2010) as well as the finding of the present study suggest that currently in Indonesia these religious aspects are relevant for teacher motivation. The participants, in both studies evoked their faith in God in their career. Such important information may contribute to the teacher professional development program in the context of Indonesian education.

As noted in Chapter 3, for Muslims, God is everything (Bukhari, 2013; Muslim, 2013). Muslims believe that God has written a journey of life for them including their career path and, the way they will arrive at a profession (Bukhari, 2013; Muslim, 2013). As seen in the comments above, participants indicated that they perceived God as clearly involved in their career path. They commented that initially they wanted to study other programs, but they did not pass the university entrance test to study such programs. Some even stated that they took the test more than once yet still failed. However, when they undertook the test to study the secondary EFL teacher education programs, they were successful. This was what they called a divine fate. In Islamic faith, when individuals have done their best to achieve what they desire but fail, it means that God has written it for them (Bukhari, 2013). To accept the divine fate sincerely is called divine destiny, a pillar of Islamic faith (Muslim, 2013). These participants sincerely accepted the EFL teaching profession as their career; and similar to those participants discussed in 6.2.3, they stated that they would remain in their profession. T5-S3 said, “By God willing, I keep praying to remain in the profession” (T5-S3, personal communication, April 2, 2012); T6-S4 stated “I promised to remain working at the primary level” (T6-S4, personal communication, March 3, 2012); and T7-S5 stated, “As long as the school needs me then I will be teaching here, God willing” (T7-S5, personal communication, April 7, 2012).

The theme "it is my fate" can be seen as having a positive side. Indonesian people are religious people; when they say "this is my fate" it can mean that they have to accept it with patience and sincerity, because they regard it as the gift from their God. To accept and execute the fate that has been outlined by God is good practice in Islam, so to say “this is my fate” could be a motivator for them to work with commitment and to start to love the work that has been given by God.

6.2.5 To motivate others to learn English

This theme describes a motivational factor of the participants that involved encouraging other people in the society to learn English, for English has become an increasingly important language in a globalised world. Beside parental influence, T1-S1 stated that another reason to study the secondary EFL teacher education program, was to motivate other people in his suburb to learn English. He stated, “I undertook the EFL teacher education program in order to encourage my people to learn English as it has become such an important language. I wanted my people to love and learn English”

(T1-S1, personal communication, March 29, 2012). Therefore, after graduating from a secondary Islamic school, T1-S1 entered a secondary EFL teacher education program at an Islamic university.

This theme is related to the “enhance social equity” categorisation in the FIT-Choice (Richardson & Watt, 2006). Richardson and Watt (2006) specified three themes for this categorisation. These were “teaching will allow me to raise the ambitions of under-privileged youth”; “teaching will allow me to benefit the socially disadvantaged”; and “teaching will allow me to work against social disadvantage” (see also Kılınc et al., 2012, p. 223).

Research findings related to this theme in Asian countries are limited. In Chapter 3, a study by Zhao (2008) that indicated that in China, some EFL teachers entered the teaching profession with a number of motives was discussed that besides looking for a secure job, they also wanted to influence children to become good citizens, because being a teacher they would have time and opportunity with children to achieve this noble purpose. This is similar to T1-S1’ goal as identified by this study; in addition to learning English for himself, he wanted to influence other people to learn English. This motivation needs acknowledgement as it is consistent with the Indonesian government effort to propagate the importance of English competence for accelerating the development of the country in all sectors (Emilia, 2005).

6.2.6 From extrinsic to intrinsic

The study reported in this thesis revealed a tendency that the initial motivational factors leading individuals to enter the EFL teacher education program changed during their studies or after entering the teaching profession. All participants who initially entered the secondary EFL teacher education program influenced by extrinsic or altruistic motivational factors changed such motivations to intrinsic motives after they worked in primary schools. The new motivational factors seemed to support their retention in teaching; for example, T4-S3 in describing how long she would plan to teach English said that she decided to stay in the profession. Although she might move to other primary schools but she firmly stated that she would remain in EFL teaching until retirement. She said, “I have decided to keep on teaching in primary schools, because I enjoy working with children” (T4-S3, personal communication, April 2, 2012). Similarly, T5-S3 explained, “I love teaching, so I will teach English till the end

of my teaching career” (T5-S3, personal communication, April 2, 2012); and T13-S9 stated, “I love children, so I will be teaching English in primary schools up to pension” (T13-S9, personal communication, April 27, 2012).

This phenomenon is similar to the one identified in a study by Zhao (2008) in China as discussed in Chapter 3. Although being a teacher of English was not the first choice for many individuals in China, EFL teachers may express some aspects of intrinsic motivation before entering EFL teacher education institutions, such as the love for the English language or liking children, and such factors became more apparent after the participants entered the teaching profession. Yuwono and Harbon’s study (2010) conducted in Salatiga Indonesia also identified a similar finding. Although many teachers of the sample initially entered the EFL teaching profession with extrinsic or altruistic motives or started the EFL teaching profession as fallback career, many of the participants developed an element of intrinsic motivation after they entered the profession (Yuwono & Harbon, 2010). Thus, the current study reported here supported Yuwono and Harbon (2010) in that in the case of Indonesia, extrinsic motivational factors could change to intrinsic motives after EFL teachers entered the EFL teaching profession.

6.2.7 Summary

This section has addressed sub-research question 1, the motivational factors that led the participants to enter the EFL teacher education program, and to choose EFL teaching as a profession or career. The outcomes of the analyses showed that several factors leading the participants to become EFL teachers were extrinsic factors such as the practical benefits of the English language; altruistic such as to please parents, to influence other people to learn English, and as a fallback career. These factors were present in almost all of the participants, meaning that most participants had a combination of these motivational factors (see Table 6.1). Interestingly, although no participant articulated an intrinsic factor at the time they entered the EFL teacher education program, after entering the teaching profession, all participants articulated an element of an intrinsic motivation; all of them expressed the idea that they would commit to the EFL teaching profession because they loved teaching or liked working with children and would not stop EFL teaching until they reach the age of retirement. The discussion above proposed that this change may be related to the cultural values of

the participants, the majority of whom were Muslims, and the values underpinning the Indonesian culture.

The theme of “fallback career”, leading the five participants to study the EFL teacher education program, supports the public opinion as described in Chapter 3 that many of prospective teachers in Indonesia were students who failed to study their desired programs at university (Rumongso, 2013). However, a public perception that prospective teachers were not as smart as students studying in other study programs such as science or accounting (Rumongso, 2013) seemed to be counter to the reality reflected in this. The current study found that the participants who entered the EFL teacher education program with extrinsic or altruistic motives had outstanding achievements in secondary schools. In addition, although some entered the EFL teaching profession as a fallback career choice all participants were successful teachers.

The section that follows discusses the motivational factors that have brought these secondary-trained EFL teachers to come to work in primary schools rather than in secondary schools.

6.3 Motivational Factors that Led Secondary-Trained EFL Teachers to Work in Primary Schools

It has been noted in Chapter 2 that Indonesia does not have any LPTK (teacher education institution) that specifically prepares prospective EFL teachers to teach English to children in primary schools. Thus, EFL teaching at the primary level has been taught by secondary-trained EFL teachers from the time English was introduced in primary schools in 1994. In Chapter 2, it was noted that in the context of Indonesia, the teaching profession is identified as a civil servant career with similar employment conditions as other civil service positions. In other words, many prospective teachers prefer to work for the state teaching service (with guarantees of job security, health insurance and pension services) to working in non-governmental schools or other non-governmental jobs. Nevertheless, the opportunity to enter the state teaching force has become more competitive at the secondary level as positions available at this level have been decreasing annually. The current study has the potential to investigate whether this factor was a trigger for graduates of secondary-trained EFL teacher program to choose to work in primary schools.

This section investigates the factors that have motivated the participants (secondary-trained EFL teachers) to teach English in primary school classrooms. Such information is significant for teacher educators in Indonesia in order to better design the curriculum of secondary EFL teacher education programs so that it can provide knowledge of teaching needed by EFL teachers for working in both secondary and primary schools.

Interviews revealed three themes related to factors that have shaped motivations of the participants to work in primary schooling as follows:

- a need for a quick job;
- preference for working with primary school students; and
- needed by the school.

Similar to the previous section, such factors interacted in the individual participants; meaning that the participants were interested to work in the primary schools context because of multiple factors, which will be explained in this section.

6.3.1 A need for a quick job

Five participants stated that they needed a quick job after successfully completing a secondary EFL teacher education program. They applied for a job in primary schools because they knew they were qualified for it. Extracts of participants' comments describing the theme are as follows.

T5-S3 after completing his education at an Islamic university needed a job quickly to start a new chapter in his life. He knew that primary schools needed EFL teachers. He stated, "After completing the secondary EFL teacher education program, I wanted to work as soon as possible and I did not know any secondary schools where I could work. But I knew primary schools offered a greater opportunity for EFL teachers than secondary ones" (T5-S3, personal communication, April 2, 2012). Similarly, T11-S7 said, "The reason I am teaching in this school was that I wanted to start a teaching career as soon as possible after completing secondary EFL teacher education" (T11-S7, personal communication, March 31, 2012); and T13-S9 said,

I needed a quick job for living after completing the secondary EFL teacher education program, but my experience in teaching secondary school students was stressful. Then this school offered me an opportunity to teach English, so it

came to my mind that I had to take that opportunity (T13-S9, personal communication, April 27, 2012).

T6-S4 stated,

When I nearly completed the secondary EFL teacher education program, I thought of a quick job to support my financial expenses, but my teaching experience during the supervised teaching program at a secondary school was not very good, so I did not want to work in secondary schools anymore, and then a friend of mine told me that this school needed an EFL teacher (T6-S4, personal communication, March 3, 2012).

The theme of “a need for a quick job” is related to none of the categories in the FIT-choice (Richardson & Watt, 2006), however, according to the conventional categories of motivational factors, it can be grouped into an extrinsic motive, because the participants were driven by the factor that benefited them economically rather than enjoying the teaching itself such as in intrinsic motivation. As has been described in the literature chapter, in some cases, the majority of individuals who study in the teacher education programs come from low-income families (Wiharyanto, 2004). The EFL teacher education program became a favourite study program in the education faculties because it is believed that it has wider job opportunities that could benefit prospective EFL teachers for an immediate career after completing the program; and prospective EFL teachers always want to get a job as soon as possible after graduating from the program (Timredaksi, 2014). Some economic reasons that have been revealed in the literature included wanting to help reduce the financial burden on the family; wanting to be free of dependence on parents; and wanting to begin a new chapter of life to pursue a profession that has been studied during university education (Yuwono & Harbon, 2010). This study revealed similar findings to the study by Yuwono and Harbon (2010). Although not all participants gave detailed reasons about why they wanted to work immediately after completing the secondary EFL teacher education program, their desire to find a job seemed to be more significant than the desire to work in particular contexts.

Beside a need for a quick job, two participants such as T6-S4 and T13-S9 also mentioned that they were not comfortable with secondary teaching. Such an uncomfortable experience seemed to drive them to come to work for primary schools

rather than for secondary schools. This theme is related to theme that will be discussed in 5.3.2.

The theme of “a need for quick job” is consistent with additional reasons provided by other participants such as T7-S5, T8-S5, and T10-S6. These participants had already pursued a teaching career in secondary schools before they moved to primary schools. T7-S5 stated, “A second motivation that led to this primary school was an economic benefit offered by primary EFL teaching. When I worked at a secondary school, I earned too little, which could not support my family” (T7-S5, personal communication, April 7, 2012). T8-S5 stated that she used to work for a private secondary school. However, her profession as a private teacher was not as secure as that of a permanent or civil servant teacher. To obtain a position as a civil servant teacher to secure her economic income, she applied to be a permanent teacher at school 5; thus, she resigned from the secondary school and came to work at the primary level as a civil servant teacher. The current position was secure and she had a salary paid by the government and received some incentives from the school too. Similarly, T10-S6 moved from a secondary to primary school because he needed a secure position as well as a better salary. This finding (the economic factor) is clearly related to extrinsic motives.

Research investigating factors that motivated secondary-trained EFL teachers to work in primary schools is rare in the Indonesian literature. The only similar study found in Indonesian literature is the study by Yuwono and Harbon (2010) in Salatiga City Indonesia (see Chapter 3) that revealed that a reason related to EFL teachers wanting to work immediately after the completion of the EFL teacher education program was to help lighten the financial burden on parents.

6.3.2 Preference for working with primary school students

The theme “preference for working with primary school students” describes participants’ desire to work with children in primary schools rather than with secondary students. Four participants explained that they chose to work in primary schools, because they liked working with primary children better than secondary school students. They mentioned some features of children that made them interested in working in primary schools. For instance, T2-S2 stated, “I prefer to teach primary school children to high school students, because children are cute, unadorned, and honest” (T2-S2,

personal communication, April 9, 2012). Similarly, T12-S8 said, “I am more than happy to work with primary school children rather than with secondary students; I did not enjoy working at the secondary school level. I like it better here with children” (T12-S8, personal communication, April 16, 2012); and T13-S9 commented, “To work with primary school students is more enjoyable than to work with secondary students. I found teaching secondary students stressful. Children are friendlier and more respectful to teachers compared to secondary students” (T13-S9, personal communication, April 27, 2012). T9-S6 stated:

My teaching experience at a secondary school was not a good one. I think I like children better than secondary students. So I thought why not try primary schools. Thus, the thing that has brought me to work in this school was, because I love working with primary school children better than secondary students (T9-S6, personal communication, April 16, 2012).

Research that investigated why secondary trained teachers choose or move to teach from secondary to primary schools was not found in the review of literature. However, several studies have discussed that many teachers chose the teaching profession because they like to work with children or young people (see Chapter 3). In Australia, for example, Richardson and Watt (2006) reported that the love of working with children was found to be dominant factor that inspired graduate and undergraduate student teachers to choose the teaching profession. This result countered an earlier finding (Haubrich, 1960) that reported people chose teaching as a fallback career in Australia. Similarly, a study by Nott (1992) in the United Kingdom, noted that the love of children ranked the second among factors motivating people to choose to become foreign language teachers. Canadian student teachers enthusiastically endorsed working with children and adolescents as a motivation for selecting a teaching career (Klassen et al., 2011). In western settings, studies have revealed that many teachers decided to teach because they liked to work with children or adolescents (Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000; Liu & Ramsey, 2008). In Asian countries, such a finding was also found. A study by Harun (2006) in Malaysia showed that “the love of children” ranked the third among factors that motivated individuals to choose teaching as a career. This study was actually designed to investigate the motivation of classroom teachers in the context of primary schools, but this factor (the love of children) is relevant to factors that have brought secondary-trained EFL teachers to work in primary schools in Indonesia (Harun, 2006).

The theme of “preference for working with primary children rather than secondary students” suggests that the teachers’ motivational factors can change when they are still undertaking EFL teacher education programs at university, especially after they learn more about the work that they will encounter during their career as teachers. This finding is important for EFL teacher education programs in Indonesia, as it is important to equip the EFL student teachers with actual information about the field before they enter the teaching profession. This is also significant in the Indonesian context as the teaching profession is not flexible (as described in Chapter 3), meaning that after teachers are appointed to work as a civil servant teacher, it is hard for them to switch to other professions if teaching does not meet their needs. In addition, EFL teacher educators need to consider this information in order to better understand their students and cater for their needs.

Another important understanding implicit in the theme above was that Indonesian teachers seemed to like respectful students. This was reflected in all responses of the participants above; particularly in T13-S9’s comment that says “children are friendlier and more respectful to teachers when compared to secondary school students” (T13-S9, personal communication, April 27, 2012). In the Indonesian culture, respectful students are expected, not only by teachers but also by the whole community (Presiden, 2003). To respect teachers, parents or an older person is taught in moral and religious education from kindergarten to university, and teachers want to be respected, valued, and respected by their students. Students are taught to provide feedback to the teacher in ways that are polite and respectful, in accordance with the Indonesian culture. For example, they are expected to use the right hands for asking questions, not to interrupt the teacher speaking, use polite language, and so on. However, this respectful attitude seems to decline at the secondary and university levels (Fadli, 2010; Redaktur, 2012). Although no study has investigated it specifically, complaints about the disrespectful attitude of secondary school students towards teachers are often heard (Fadli, 2010; Redaktur, 2012). This factor seemed to be a motive for secondary-trained EFL teachers to choose to work in primary schools rather than in secondary schools as articulated by the relevant participants above.

6.3.3 Needed by the school

The theme “needed by the school” describes the shortage of EFL teacher at the primary school level as discussed in Chapter 2. Interviews revealed that three

participants (T2-S2, T3-S2, and T7-S5) commented that their coming to teach English in primary schools was because the schools needed EFL teachers to run the EFL program. T3-S2 stated that initially he worked at school 2 only as a substitute, because the EFL teacher of the school was taking leave. Later when the EFL teacher resigned from the school, the principal offered him a fulltime job to replace the teacher. He stated that he refused the offer twice, because he already had the same job in another school although it was not yet a permanent one. However, because the principal offered him for the third time he felt he could not refuse it. The following is an excerpt from T3-S2 describing his experience.

Then the principal called me and offered me the job, but I refused it. Few months later he rang me again offering the job, which I refused for a second time. Few months later, again he offered me for the third time adding more reasons; that the school had just installed a new language laboratory donated by the local government; he said that he had no teacher who could be in charge to operate it. I gave deep thought to the offer, it had been three times now; I thought it was not polite to refuse it this time. In our culture “gotong royong” (helping each other), one does not need to beg for help three times (T3-S2, personal communication, April 19, 2012).

Similarly, T4-S3 initially worked at the secondary school of the college where she was working. When the EFL teacher of the primary school resigned, the school principal transferred her to the primary level. T4-S3 commented as follows:

Because the former EFL teacher of this primary school resigned from the job, the principal transferred me from my former position at the secondary to primary school here. ...; so it was actually the decision of the school management (T4-S3, personal communication, April 2, 2012).

This theme is not included in the FIT-choice (Richardson & Watt, 2006). It illustrates the shortage of an EFL teaching force in primary schools in Jambi city, which could be reflective of the situation in other parts of Indonesia as noted in Chapter 2. The situation of EFL teacher shortage opens opportunities for secondary-trained EFL teachers to work in primary schools. Many EFL teachers working in primary schools are part time teachers; some of these teachers may not have graduated yet from EFL teacher education programs. They work in primary schools, because they are needed by

the schools (Zein, 2012). T2-S2, T3-S2, T4-S3, and T13-S9 stated that they had been working in primary schools while they were students of the EFL teacher education program.

The next factor that led the secondary-trained EFL teacher to come to work in primary schools was the need to fill a vacant position, which was also related to the teacher shortage. T4-S3 stated that she was transferred to the primary school from her former job at the secondary level to replace the former EFL teacher who had resigned.

Secondary school teachers' interest in working in primary schools because of the teacher shortage at this level is expected to occur as a consequence of the unavailability of an EFL teacher education program that specifically prepares English language teachers for primary schools as explained above and in Chapter 2. This finding is consistent with the finding of a study by Suyanto (2004), which found that more than 80 percent of English teachers in the primary schools were those who were trained initially to teach English in secondary schools. This study took place in ten provinces in Indonesia; however, the study did not investigate the motivational factors or the reasons why they chose the primary school rather than the secondary school as a place of their career. This is likely to be the case in other regions in Indonesia, as the number of primary schools (144.567) is far greater than secondary schools (36.516) (Kemenkokesra, 2014).

6.3.4 Summary

This section has addressed research sub-question 2, the motivational factors that led secondary-trained EFL teachers to teach English to children in primary schools. The discussion and the analysis have highlighted three common themes emerging from interviews including: a need for a quick job, preference for working with primary school students and needed by the school. The first motivational factor was related to extrinsic motivation, while the second factor was intrinsic, and the third factor was classified as altruistic. Of these three factors, extrinsic factors dominated. Similar to the motivational factors that led the participants to select the EFL teaching profession discussed in the previous section, these factors were integrated with each other, meaning that one participant was influenced by more than one motivational factor to choose to work in primary schools rather than in secondary schools.

6.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the motivational factors that brought the participants to study the secondary EFL teacher education program in order to enter the teaching profession, and to teach English in primary schools instead of in secondary schools after completing their studies. The chapter has addressed research sub-questions 1 and 2 of the current study: “What factors have shaped motivations of secondary-trained EFL teachers to enter the EFL teaching profession in Indonesia?” and “What motivational factors have led the secondary-trained EFL teachers to come to work in primary schools?” The data analyses have revealed that the motivational factors that have brought the participants to study the secondary EFL teacher education programs were interconnected with those that led them to teach English in primary schools instead of in secondary schools; their motivational factors tended to be extrinsic and altruistic rather than intrinsic. In some participants, these factors were interrelated to form multi-motivational factors.

Many participants considered the teaching profession as a fallback career. Many also stated that they studied the EFL teacher education program, taking the advice of their parents. The participants, who initially entered the EFL teaching as a fallback career or to please parents, linked their career path to cultural values. They believed that their career has been written by God, and because of this belief they accepted the teaching profession sincerely. Those who wanted to please parents seemed to relate their career path to Islamic values that to please parents and to take their advice were noble behaviours. They believed that to take parental advice in order to please them would bring blessings in their lives (Bukhari, 2013), and perhaps, because of this belief, the extrinsic or altruistic motivational factors that drove them into teaching converted into intrinsic motivational factors after entering the EFL teaching profession. This finding suggests that motivational factors of individuals to choose teaching may change after they enter the profession (Dörnyei, 2001).

The motivational factors that led the participants to work in primary schools instead of in secondary schools revealed in the interviews were related: a need for a quick job; liking to work with primary school students; and needed by the school. The first factor was extrinsic, the second was intrinsic, and the third factor was classified as altruistic. Of these three factors, extrinsic factors dominated. These factors were integrated across the participants, meaning that one participant was influenced to teach

English in primary schools rather in secondary school by more than one motivational factor.

The theme of “fallback career” stimulating the five participants to study the EFL teacher education program (as discussed in 6.2.2 above) supports the public opinion as described in Chapter 3 that many prospective teachers in Indonesia were students who failed to study the desired programs at university (Rumongso, 2013). However, the public perception claiming that prospective teachers were not as smart as students studying in other study programs such as science or accounting (Rumongso, 2013) seemed to be an exaggeration as the current study found that the participants who entered the EFL teacher education program with extrinsic or altruistic motives had outstanding achievements in secondary schools. In addition, all of these participants were successful teachers although some of them entered the EFL teaching profession as a fallback career choice.

CHAPTER 7 FINDINGS:

Participants' Views of Primary School Students

7.1 Introduction

This chapter addresses the research aims by analysing interview data collected from the thirteen secondary-trained EFL teachers who were teaching English to primary school students in nine schools in Jambi city, Indonesia. The specific sub-research question this chapter aims to address is, "How do secondary-trained EFL teachers' view primary school students as language learners?"

To address this question, participants' responses in the interview data were analysed thematically (Allen, 1995). The themes emerging from participants' responses in the interviews are discussed in relation to views about primary school students as language learners as proposed by language experts such as Brumfit (1991), and McKay (2006) Lightbown and Spada (2013) which were outlined in the literature review chapter (Chapter 4). The analyses revealed that in general, these secondary-trained EFL teachers, participating in the study, recognised several specific characteristics of primary school students (see Table 7.1 below).

Table 7.1 Views of Participants of Primary School Students

Primary school students:	T1- S1	T2- S2	T3- S2	T4- S3	T5- S3	T6- S4	T7- S5	T8- S5	T9- S6	T10- S6	T11- S7	T12- S8	T13- S9
are "lugu"	√	√	-	√	-	√	√	√	√	√	√	-	-
have a variety of interests	-	√	√		-	√	√	√	√	-	-	√	√
learn English from meaning and words, not from rules	-	√	√	√	-	-	√	√	-	√	-	√	√
need to feel happy to learn EFL effectively	-	√	√	√	√	√	-	√	-	-	-	√	-
are curious to learn English	√	-	-	-	√	-	-	-	√	√	√	√	
are respectful to teachers	√	√	-	-	-	-	-	-	√			√	√
are active English users	√	-	-	-	-	√	-	-		√	√	-	-
have a short attention span	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	√	√	√	-	-

Note. √ indicates relevant participants articulated relevant characteristics. The table above shows that the participants' views of primary school students varied. The most discussed view is "primary school students are lugu" and the least is "primary school students have a short attention span". Not all characteristics of primary school students were discussed by the same participants.

Some of the emerging themes are related to Indonesian cultural values, and others are related to the characteristics of children's cognitive and socio-emotional development. The chapter presents the themes and related responses of the participants

first, and followed by discussion. The themes are presented in order from the most common to the least common as discussed by the participants during the interviews. Eight themes emerging from the interviews addressed in this chapter are as follows:

- Primary school students are “lugu”,
- Primary school students have a variety of interests,
- Primary school students learn English from meaning and words, not from rules,
- Primary school students need to feel happy to learn EFL effectively,
- Primary school students are curious to learn English,
- Primary school students are respectful to teachers,
- Primary school students are active English users,
- Primary school students have a short attention span.

7.2 Primary school students are “lugu”

“Lugu” is an adjective in the Indonesian language. It is an idiomatic expression, which is often used by Indonesians to describe a characteristic of children. The common translations of the word lugu in the bilingual “Indonesian-English Dictionary” (Shadily & Echols, 1992) are innocent, honest and unadorned, simple”, and straightforward. Thus, the sentence “Primary school students are lugu” can mean “They are unadorned, honest, innocent, and straightforward”. In the Indonesian dictionary, “Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia” (Sugono, 2008) the word lugu is equivalent to cute, obedient, friendly, frank, and courteous and direct and unreserved in speech. Therefore, the participants’ comment saying “Anak-anak masih lugu” can mean that children are cute, honest, frank, courteous or direct and unreserved in speech.

The most common attitude held by the participants about primary school students stated that they were lugu. This characteristic is related to the Indonesian culture. Nine participants described primary school students as lugu. For example, T2-S2 stated, “Anak-anak masih lugu” (T2-S2, personal communication, April 9, 2012). She assumed that primary school students are innocent, honest, and obedient as explained in the “Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia” (Shadily & Echols, 1992) T2-S2 liked them and enjoyed teaching in primary schools. In addition, T2-S2 said, “I think it is easier to teach EFL to children compared to teaching EFL to secondary school students” (T2-S2, personal communication, April 9, 2012).

Similarly, other participants such as T4-S3 stated, “Primary school students are lugu, they learn English sincerely; if I see those lugu faces, I feel so happy” (T4-S3, personal communication, April 2, 2012). T1-S1 stated “the nature of primary school students is lugu” (T1-S1, personal communication, March 29, 2012). T6-S4 said, “primary school students need a lot of instructions from the teacher, because they are lugu” (T6-S4, personal communication, March 3, 2012). T11-S7 stated, “Primary school students are lugu; they are as you see” (T11-S7, personal communication, March 31, 2012). T8-S5 said, “Because they are lugu, they told me everything about how the former EFL teacher had taught them” (T8-S5, personal communication, April 7, 2012). T9-S6 said, “They are lugu, but children in this school are also critical” (T9-S6, personal communication, April 16, 2012). Finally, T10-S6 said, “Because primary students are lugu, so they just accept what the teacher teaches them, they just accept and love English” (T10-S6, personal communication, April 17, 2012).

Participants’ perceptions describing primary students as innocent beings are perhaps rooted in the Indonesian culture. In the Indonesian culture the word lugu is associated with the nature of children to describe their honesty, obedience, friendliness, courteousness, and respectfulness (Sugono, 2008). Many children’s stories use the word lugu in their titles to describe the honesty of the characters in the stories to inculcate honesty in children. For example, “Si Lugu Baik Hati Akhirnya Jadi Pemimpin Tiran” (Taymur, 1950) and “Si Lugu dan Si Malin Kundang” (Rangkuti, 2007).

In Islamic education in Indonesia, children are often associated with “plain fabric” or “plain paper” (Bukhari, 2013) meaning a “blank slate”, as T2-S2 stated, “I think it is easier to fill in “blank slates” [primary school students] rather than to fill in those who already got something on them [secondary school students]” (T2-S2, personal communication, April 9, 2012). Indonesian people also often compare children to a “young bamboo”, which can be crafted easily into something (Abbas, 2013). Thus, for Indonesian teachers to compare children to a blank slate, plain fabric and young bamboo, meaning easy to be filled or crafted, is common.

This finding suggests that the above participants may mean that primary school students can be taught English more easily (compared to secondary students), because primary children are obedient, receptive, and respectful to teachers, as stated by T2-S2 above, and because of this belief, some of the participants of this study, as has been noted in Chapter 6, chose to work in primary schools rather than in secondary schools.

7.3 Primary school students have a variety of interests

The theme “primary school students have a variety of interests” describes one of features of general learners, not only children as young EFL learners. Eight of the thirteen participants stated that primary school students have a variety of interests, which means that they need a variety of learning materials and language activities to learn effectively. For example, T6-S4 said, “Primary school students are varied in terms of interests in learning materials, I need to prepare a variety of learning materials to cover such interests” (T6-S4, personal communication, March 3, 2012). Similarly, T8-S5 described, “Because students have different interests in every class, I need to modify the learning materials and activities provided in the course book to address such interests” (T8-S5, personal communication, April 7, 2012). T9-S6 explained, “I know children’s interests are varied, which require me to modify types of learning activities in the course book so that they meet such interests” (T9-S6, personal communication, April 16, 2012). T1-S1 said, “I know primary students need different kinds of activities as they have different interests, I observe this during the learning process” (T1-S1, personal communication, March 29, 2012). T13-S9 said, “I notice students have a variety of interests, which mean that I need to provide them with different kinds of materials and language activities” (T13-S9, personal communication, April 27, 2012). Finally, T7-S5 stated, “I always try my best to relate my teaching strategies, materials, language activities to address different interests of children” (T7-S5, personal communication, April 7, 2012).

The understanding of the various interests of students is important to learning in general (Dewey, 1913). This finding is also essential to EFL teachers in primary schools as it is relevant to the importance of using children’s interests in developing a thematic EFL curriculum or syllabus as discussed in Chapter 4. To understand that primary students have a variety of interests is central to effective EFL teaching in primary schools. Many language experts discussed that EFL teachers need to analyse interests of primary school students before they prepare learning materials and language activities for them. Hawkins (1974) argued that teachers need to become diagnosticians of children’s interests and ideas in order to engage them in explorations of subject matter that extend the reach of their understanding (cited in Darling-Hammond, Bransford, et al., 2005). EFL teachers in primary schools need to know the different interests of their students in order to engage them in various language learning opportunities through different kinds of EFL materials and activities to extend children’s language output. If

the EFL materials and activities are interesting to primary children, their motivation to learn EFL can be maintained; research has shown that primary school children's interest towards learning materials and activities influences their intrinsic motivation and attention span leading to effective learning (Hidi & Renninger, 2010). Research has also shown that primary children's interest is related to learning efficacy or effective instruction (Wood et al., 1976). Therefore, knowing the different interests of primary school children lead EFL teachers of primary schools to carry out more child-centred EFL teaching rather than EFL teacher-centred teaching (Dewey, 1913; Krapp, 1999; Darling-Hammond & Barron, 2008; Hidi & Renninger, 2010) in a more interesting way.

7.4 Primary school students learn English from meaning and words, not from rules

Eight participants stated that children learn English from meaning and words rather than from abstract rules. For example, T1-S1 stated:

I don't know how primary school students learn English exactly. However, what I observe every day in the classroom is that, students begin from learning meaning and words; I observe they memorise those words, and amazingly they can tell almost every word I have taught them (T1-S1, personal communication, March 29, 2012).

Similarly, T6-S4 said, "I think primary school students begin from learning the meaning of words, and I see that they can learn words quite easily. I think so that they can learn meaning of words quickly because their memory is fresh" (T6-S4, personal communication, March 3, 2012); and T11-S7 explained, "I think primary children learn English from meaning embedded in words and I see them pronounce those words repeated and loudly" (T11-S7, personal communication, March 31, 2012). T10-S6 stated:

I think primary children begin from learning the meaning of English words. However, my opinion is that EFL learning is heavily dependent on the environment within which the children learn. I think English is best learned in the environment where it is used for spoken communication purposes; therefore, here, in this school, we, teachers establish an English-speaking environment to encourage EFL teachers, other teachers and children to use

English for communication. We use English most of the time to talk to children (T10-S6, personal communication, April 17, 2012).

In addition to learning meaning from words, three participants also stated that children cannot learn English from abstract rules. For example, T9-S6 explained that primary school children cannot learn English through abstract rules of the language; they need to see language in actions. T9-S6 stated, “Children do not learn anything from abstract rules, so we need to demonstrate to them how language works; we engage them in actions, interactions, and demonstrations” (T9-S6, personal communication, April 16, 2012). Similarly, T4-S3 stated, “If we teach primary children English through rules, they will never be successful in learning the language, as rules are abstract to them, they will get frustrated instead” (T4-S3, personal communication, April 2, 2012). Finally, T7-S5 explained:

If we teach primary children the “Simple Past Tense” through rules such as “subject” plus “verb” plus “object” for sure they will get frustrated; they will not learn it as teaching language through rules is abstract to them. Thus, what we do here is that we use authentic examples that show children how English operates in real contexts, and I observe in this way they learn it effectively (T7-S5, personal communication, April 7, 2012).

This theme “primary school students learn English from meaning and words, not from rules” is relevant to the comprehensible input hypothesis (Krashen, 1985b). Krashen (1985b) stated that during the language acquisition process, children will always look for meaning, and thus, vocabulary within which meaning is embedded becomes the most important input to L2 learners. Vocabulary must be comprehensible to children. When the new language is comprehensible, L2 learners will process it and then hold it in their memory. Primary children will only acquire L2 when they receive comprehensible input, which contains exemplars of the language a little above their current understanding, but from which they can infer meaning (Krashen, 1982, 1985b).

This finding is essential to EFL teachers teaching English to children in primary schools. EFL teachers need to prepare language activities that lead to increasing primary children’s vocabulary. The language input such as vocabulary must be comprehensible to them. One way to make the language input comprehensible to primary children is to recycle the vocabulary they already know (Ellis, 1985). EFL teachers may utilise “here

and now” oriented topics such as a story of everyday life and surrounding environment supported by familiar vocabulary, word games and so on. By doing so primary children are enabled to use the linguistic and extra-linguistic contexts and also their general knowledge to interpret the language directed to them (Ellis, 2009). Teachers also need to prepare activities that focus more on the process rather than on the product (Ellis, 2009).

7.5 Primary school students need to feel happy to learn EFL effectively

Seven of the thirteen participants highlighted that primary school students needed to feel happy in classrooms to work productively. For example, T8-S5 who used to work at a secondary school before moving to the primary school, stated that in the first few weeks of her working with primary school students, her teaching style was still influenced by the way she taught secondary school students. But during those few first weeks children rarely asked her questions, and the class atmosphere was dull. She consulted experienced teachers at the school asking why such a situation happened in her classes. Two experienced teachers told her to be closer to children so that they would feel safe. Taking the advice of those experienced teachers T8-S5 then explained:

So I started to play with my students in the classrooms, and I began to use games and songs in my teaching so they became happy, and I tried to get closer to them; they also tried to get closer to me, and then they told me how they would like to learn. So my experience was telling that primary children need to feel happy to learn English language productively (T8-S5, personal communication, April 7, 2012).

Other participants stated similar opinions. T2-S2 stated “If they say ‘I am afraid of that teacher’, they will not learn anything from him/her, so we have to make sure that children feel secure and happy” (T2-S2, personal communication, April 9, 2012). Similarly, T4-S3 stated, “Children need to feel happy and secure in the classroom to learn EFL effectively” (T4-S3, personal communication, April 2, 2012). T3-S2 commented, “We never give bad comments to children if they make mistakes in using the target language; they need to feel happy about what they have achieved, and this will motivate them to use the target language much more” (T3-S2, personal communication, April 19, 2012).

Three participants also stated that some of primary school students are very sensitive. For example, T12-S8 stated, “You never come to the classroom with an ‘angry face’, it will affect students’ emotion” (T12-S8, personal communication, April 16, 2012); similarly T13-S9 stated, “Never attend your class when you are angry, some of primary school students are very sensitive and they will be afraid of you” (T13-S9, personal communication, April 27, 2012). T6-S4 stated “Some primary school students are very sensitive; they may lose EFL learning motivation because of a small problem” (T6-S4, personal communication, March 3, 2012).

This finding is central to effective EFL teaching to children in primary schools. It has been discussed in Chapter 4 that in the classroom setting, primary school students need to feel secure or safe to learn L2 effectively (Harder, 2009; Harmer, 2010; McKay, 2006). When students feel safe, they will feel free to explore and play with the language and hence learn it. Moreover, feeling secure offers primary school students opportunities to learn how to interact with others and respect other children (Harmer, 2010). EFL teachers need to always give children positive encouragement.

The finding about the sensitivity of children is also an important factor that may influence effective EFL teaching in primary schools, which EFL teachers should know. As has been noted in Chapter 4, a study by Aron (2002) suggested that 15 percent of children are very sensitive. Some children tend to burst into tears any time they experience a strong emotion, whether it is embarrassment or frustration (Healy, 1994; Aron 2002). Healy (2012) asserted that many children are known to be unhappy and dislike top-down authority that gives them orders and no choices.

This finding indicates that EFL teachers in primary schools need to approach primary school students in ways that make them feel happy and secure e.g., asking them for their thoughts, how they think an EFL activity went or what can be improved and they will do much better, as suggested by T8-S5 above (Healy, 1994; Aron 2002). The sensitivity of primary children is a factor in determining EFL assessment methods (McKay, 2006). EFL teachers in primary schools need to avoid giving harsh criticism. They may need to prepare activities in which everyone has some success, for example, activities where children are involved in clubs or other groups to give them a sense of belonging and security. Teachers must be open to discuss student fears.

In addition to being happy and secure, some participants also stated that primary school students were egocentric. For example, T6-S4 stated, “Some primary school students were egocentric” (T6-S4, personal communication, March 3, 2012), other participants such as T2-S2 stated, “Some primary school students are egocentric; sometimes we cannot persuade them. They will not take part in the activity. Sometimes they just do not want to enter the classroom” (T2-S2, personal communication, April 9, 2012).

This notion is relevant to a concept discussed by DeHart et al. (2004). These authors argued that primary children are often unable to understand the teacher’s points of view, because they assume that their view of the world is the same as other peoples’ views (DeHart et al., 2004). This finding may suggest that the EFL teachers working in primary schools need to prepare a variety of activities that emphasise cooperative learning, peer group discussion, and cross-age teaching; such activities are well-suited to characteristics of primary children and may provide instances of cognitive conflict that could lead to better appreciation of the perspective of others in children (DeHart et al., 2004).

7.6 Primary school students are curious to learn English

Six of the thirteen participants participated in the current study mentioned that primary school students were curious to learn English. Excerpts of their comments describing this theme “primary school students are curious to learn English” are summarised as follows.

T1-S1 stated, “Students of primary schools have high curiosity to know about English” (T1-S1, personal communication, March 29, 2012). T5-S3 said, “I think primary school students have stronger curiosity to learn English compared to secondary school students. I think that one thing that makes EFL teaching in primary schools more successful than in secondary schools is that primary school students have strong curiosity and motivation to learn English” (T5-S3, personal communication, April 2, 2012). Similarly, T9-S6 said, “students of primary schools have strong curiosity to learn English”. T10-S6 stated, “Primary schools children have strong curiosity and eagerness to learn English” (T9-S6, personal communication, April 16, 2012).

Piaget (1983) viewed curiosity as a central component that contributes to child development. According to Litman (2005), curiosity is “a desire to know, to see, or to

experience in that it motivates exploratory behaviour directed towards the acquisition of new information” (p. 793). As such, curiosity plays a significant role in facilitating children’s cognitive, social, emotional, and physical development (Litman, 2005).

The theme “Primary school students are curious to learn English” is relevant to the discussion of curiosity in Chapter 4. Research shows that curiosity, an aspect of intrinsic motivation, has great potential to enhance children’s learning (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). It is the motivational component behind children’s exploration that has both positive and negative influences on children’s behaviours (Baxter & Switzky, 2008). Many studies that have explained the role of curiosity in child learning noted that curiosity attached to children drives their impulse to learn. Most studies dealing with curiosity are related to science learning (Engel, 2011), but inferences can be drawn to EFL learning.

This finding is important for EFL teachers who are working in primary schools, particularly in preparing language materials and designing language tasks for primary children. As noted in Chapter 4, the concept of curiosity has been used in current approaches to language teaching (Ur, 1996). For example, CLT uses such a concept for “fill the gap task”, in which a text, has certain words replaced with a gap is presented to learners; such a task is said to be based on the curiosity concept. In fill the gap tasks, there is generally sufficient information to allow the gist of the text to be gleaned, but the detail is missing and must be provided by the learner (Ur, 1996). The curiosity concept is also used in “information gap” tasks which are thought to be particularly good at generating student interest. An example of such a task would be for one member of a pair of students to verbally describe an image that the other cannot see (Loewenstein, 1994); the gap in the student’s knowledge will gradually decrease as more information is transmitted in the target language, in this way curiosity about the remaining information to be predicted will increase.

As discussed in the literature review (Chapter 4), in recent years more complex language teaching methods that involve evoking student’s curiosity have been adapted for use within foreign and second language teaching. For example, the “Task Based Language Learning” (Prabhu, 1987) or “Task-Based Language Teaching” (Nunan, 2004), and “Problem-Based Learning” (Barrett, Mac Labhrainn, & Fallon, 2005) all used the concept of curiosity in providing second language learners with language activities in classroom learning. In these methods, learners’ motivation to use the new

language is provided by piquing their curiosity with a challenge that needs to be solved. These methods have been initially implemented in teaching general subjects, but currently they have become important methods in language teaching too.

Both the task-based and problem-based methods focus on the use of communicative tasks as an aid to language learning. Language learners are presented with situations in which they are encouraged to communicate in order to achieve a task, e.g., roleplaying a telephone conversation, or giving and receiving directions. A key feature of the methods is the recognition that the desire to communicate motivates the student to use the language, and it is this motivation driven by curiosity, which enhances learning (Willis, 1990).

In relation to child curiosity as discussed above, six participants also stated that primary school students had high motivation to learn English as a foreign language. For example, T8-S5 stated, “Almost all primary school students have strong motivation to learn EFL” (T8-S5, personal communication, April 7, 2012). T12-S8 said, “The motivation of primary school students to learn English is very high” (T12-S8, personal communication, April 16, 2012). T10-S6 commented, “Primary school students have strong motivation and curiosity to learn EFL” (T10-S6, personal communication, April 17, 2012). T13-S9 explained, “They have strong motivation to learn English. I can see that there are more than thirty out of forty children in each class show strong motivation to learn English” (T13-S9, personal communication, April 27, 2012). T4-S3 asserted, “Primary school students’ motivation and curiosity to learn English is very high” (T4-S3, personal communication, April 2, 2012). T7-S5 stated, “We notice that primary school students have strong motivation to practise English. This is one the strengths of the primary school students in learning English” (T7-S5, personal communication, April 7, 2012). Finally, T3-S2 stated, “It is obvious that primary school students have strong motivation to learn English” (T3-S2, personal communication, April 19, 2012).

This finding is consistent with the research literature suggesting that children are motivated to learn a foreign language because they are driven by their sense of curiosity (Dörnyei, 2005). EFL teachers in primary school should maintain such motivation because it is related to learning conditions that fit the nature of children and language acquisition (Krashen, 1985b). To maintain primary school students’ motivation high in learning English, EFL teachers should provide them with language input comprehensible to them (Krashen, 1982; Krashen & Terrell, 1983); the output should

match the input (Swain, 1995); the teaching must be anxiety-free (Krashen, 1982), the children should be allowed to have a silent period before they are ready to produce language orally; and the teaching should be meaning-focused rather than form-focused (Krashen, 1982). In short, the teaching must use a child-based approach (Dewey, 1913).

7.7 Primary school students are respectful to teachers

Five of the thirteen participants participated in the study stated that primary school students are more respectful to teachers compared to secondary school students. T1-S1 said, “Primary school students respect teachers better than secondary school students” (T1-S1, personal communication, March 29, 2012). T2-S2 stated, “primary school students respect me better than secondary school students, they love me very much” (T2-S2, personal communication, April 9, 2012). T12-S8 similarly stated, “Primary school students respect me more than the secondary schools students” (T12-S8, personal communication, April 16, 2012). Likewise, T13-S9 also stated, “Primary children are friendlier and more respectful to teachers compared to secondary students; if I enter a class, children will greet me respectfully” (T13-S9, personal communication, April 27, 2012).

As has been argued in Chapter 2, all participants had experience in teaching EFL to secondary school students for a minimum of six months during the supervised teaching practice program before they completed the secondary EFL teacher education program. Thus, they had some experience of the classroom atmosphere of secondary schools in Indonesia. Based on such experience they compared features of secondary school students with the characteristics of primary school students; their experiences allowed them to perceive that primary school students as friendlier and more respectful to teachers compared to the secondary school students.

This theme is related to the theme discussed in Chapter 6, section 6.3.2 in which many of the participants stated that they chose to work with primary school children because they believed that children were more respectful to teachers than secondary school students, and because of that they stated that they liked working with children better than secondary schools students. In addition they also described their experience of working with students in secondary schools as stressful.

In the Indonesian culture, to respect teachers is viewed as noble behaviour and teachers usually appreciate students who are respectful to them. However, as discussed

in Chapter 2, in the last decade, Indonesian teachers have seen that respect of teachers at the secondary level has tended to decrease (Mulyono, 2013). It is argued that the respect of the students for their teachers affects the teachers' motivation for teaching, and the teacher motivation, as discussed in Chapters 3 and 6, influences their performance and the students' learning outcomes (see Dörnyei, 2001). Many studies have shown that the motivation of EFL teachers is related to the teaching efficacy and L2 students' learning outcomes (see Dörnyei, 2001).

As noted in the literature, Dewey (1913) viewed respect in its connection to children's interests. He argued respect for teachers is necessary, but it must be based on attention to children's educational progress, meaning that in turn teachers should pay attention to the interest of children. Dewey (1913) wrote that, the child's interests, impulses and desires contribute to shaping his/her destination and provide energy for the engagement in learning. Therefore, while the teacher needs respect from children, he/she must offer appropriate experiences that engage children in desirable learning. (Dewey, 1913). To Dewey (1913) respect is built through interactive experiences of teachers and learners; it does not evolve naturally after a period of repressing the child's desires, instruction in an adult-chosen curriculum or responding to the loving care of others. This notion is important to the context of Indonesia. Besides expecting to receive respect from students EFL teachers should centre their practice on children in order to help them to be successful in their language learning.

7.8 Primary school students are active English users

Four participants stated that primary school students were active users of English. They stated that the level of engagement of primary school students in language learning activities is higher than secondary school students. Following are comments of the participants exemplifying this theme.

T5-S3 stated:

The way primary school students learn English, which I observe, is through active learning, engaging themselves in using the language. It is clearly seen in the classroom that they are cognitively and physically active in using the English language, for example, in doing learning activities such as free communication activities. They talk to their peers in English; they speak to me or ask me questions in English. I can see that they use English

inside and outside the classroom. Most of them use digital bilingual dictionaries to learn words, for example, to check word meanings they do not know (T5-S3, personal communication, April 2, 2012).

Similarly, T8-S5 described children learning:

They enthusiastically learn and use new language that is presented to them; they are active English users and indeed children at this school are active learners, not only during the school time, but also at home through the Internet (T8-S5, personal communication, April 7, 2012).

T12-S8 asserted, “Children at this school are active learners; they will ask you questions in English when they are not sure about something you are teaching them” (T12-S8, personal communication, April 16, 2012). T6-S4 commented,

Children at this school are active English learners. If compared to secondary school students, they are more active, e.g., in doing learning activities such as speaking, taking notes, asking questions; they often initiate to learn new language from other resources such as the Internet (T6-S4, personal communication, March 3, 2012).

In addition, four participants commented that primary school students like to learn language while moving instead of sitting on their seats. T1-S1 stated, “Children like to learn while moving around the classroom while making jokes with friends” (T1-S1, personal communication, March 29, 2012). T7-S5 said, “Primary school students learn English best through physical movements and they love to move around while learning” (T7-S5, personal communication, April 7, 2012). T8-S5 also commented, “primary school students love to play with language; sometimes it is difficult to get them sit just to listen to the teacher’s instruction before the activity commences” (T8-S5, personal communication, April 7, 2012); and finally T11-S7 said, “primary school students are very active physically; they love moving around while learning” (T11-S7, personal communication, March 31, 2012).

The comments of the participants above demonstrate their understanding of the specific characteristics of young children as discussed in the literature chapter (Chapter 4). It is argued that children of primary school age are associated with actions rather than sitting still; primary school students cannot be expected to work at a task at their

table for more than fifteen minutes (Hildreth, 1950). Primary school students are physically lively thinkers (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill, & Pincas, 1980); it is children's nature to fidget, to jump, to talk, interrupt and to ask questions while learning (Pauncz, 1980). Children are naturally exuberant and inquisitive, therefore, EFL teachers should use these features of children's natural being, to enhance learning.

This theme "primary school students are active English users and lively English learners" is important to primary school EFL teachers as it informs them of particular kinds of language activities that they need to prepare for children that match their characteristics. Brown (2001) proposed that EFL teachers should include in their lessons physical activities that are parts of children's natural play such as games and role-play.

This finding is consistent with the social constructivism theory that suggests that young children learn through their own individual actions and exploration (Vygotsky, 1978a; Piaget, 1983;). Young children's language development is a result of their social interactions with others (Vygotsky, 1978b). Vygotsky (1978b) argued that thought was essentially internalised speech, and speech emerged in social interactions. Thus, young children require activities that involve physical movement to stimulate their thinking (Brumfit, 1991).

7.9 Primary school students have a short attention span

This theme "Primary school students have a short attention span" is an important characteristic of children (McKay, 2006). Three out of thirteen participants mentioned that children cannot concentrate on language tasks as long as secondary school students. They stated that the longest time primary school age children could fully concentrate ranged between 15 to 30 minutes.

T9-S6 stated, "Primary school students can only focus on a particular task within a very limited time span; a fifteen minutes period is the maximum time primary school students can concentrate on a task" (T9-S6, personal communication, April 16, 2012). In addition, she also stated, "Children cannot remain sitting at their seats long; they want to move around while learning". Similarly, T10-S6 stated, "Each session should not be more than 30 minutes as primary school students can only concentrate on language tasks within this time span" (T10-S6, personal communication, April 17, 2012); and T11-S7 said, "Primary school students can only concentrate on learning

tasks about 30 minutes at the longest” (T11-S7, personal communication, March 31, 2012).

This finding is consistent with the results of several studies in language teaching. As noted in the literature review (Chapter 4), Hildreth (1950) argued that for primary school students immobilising their bodies and regarding an object fixedly with their eyes for a period for more than fifteen minutes is a difficult task, tedious and tiring. At this age, children need activities rather than sitting still. Moyer and Gilmer (1954) argued that for a reading activity, fifteen minutes appeared to be the most suitable time span for children. However, contemporary literature debates such a concept. In response Brown (2001) commented that the short attention issue appears only when children are not engaged in their learning, therefore the choice of activity of a crucial factor. Enjoyable activities such as drama, role-play, games, and so on, which interest children can keep them focused on language tasks longer (Rixon, 1991; Brown, 2001). This finding is also important for effective EFL teaching in classrooms. EFL teachers of primary schools need to consider the duration, level of interest and challenge and kinds of EFL activities they need to prepare for children.

7.10 Summary

This chapter has addressed the views of the participants about the nature of children, and their implications for EFL teaching in primary schools. Eight characteristics of primary school students emerging from interviews with the participants have been analysed. Two of the characteristics being “lugu” and “respectful to teachers” seemed to be specifically related to the Indonesian culture. The rest are related to teaching in general and EFL teaching specifically. The participants did not include all characteristics addressed in Table 4.3 in Chapter 4. Some characteristics that are related to child cognitive development “more interested in process than in product”, “learn by repetition”, “learn more by doing than by listening” were not discussed by the participants specifically. As also seen in Table 7.1, not all participants discussed the same characteristics, meaning that different participants discussed different characteristics, depending on what they observed in their classes. However, they did seem able to recognise many distinctive characteristics of young children’s learning.

This finding suggests that while these participants did not have as in-depth views as language experts do, they had developed considerable knowledge of children useful for teaching English in primary schools effectively. The finding also suggests

that an understanding of children is important knowledge for secondary-trained EFL teachers if they decide to teach EFL to children at the primary level. This finding could serve as the basis into ways to improve the curriculum of EFL teacher education programs in Indonesia and to improve the EFL teaching program in primary schools.

The chapter that follows will outline participants' views of the content knowledge and curriculum goals of EFL teaching in primary schools.

CHAPTER 8 FINDINGS:

Participants' Views of Content Knowledge and Curriculum Goals

8.1 Introduction

This chapter addresses the research aims by analysing the texts of thirteen interviews and eleven classroom observation transcriptions and samples of teaching documents (syllabi, lesson plans, and text books) collected from the participants of the current study. The specific sub-research question this chapter aims to address is:

- How do secondary-trained EFL teachers view the content knowledge and curriculum goals of EFL teaching in primary schools?

The themes emerging from texts mentioned above were discussed based on theoretical views or perspectives about content knowledge and curriculum goals as discussed by language experts such as Harmer (2001), Richards (2011), and others as outlined in the literature review, Chapter 4. The themes emerging from the text analyses discussed in this chapter are as follows:

- having sufficient content knowledge to teach primary children English;
- focusing on teaching communicative competence.

8.2 Having Sufficient Content Knowledge to Teach Primary Children English

This theme describes participants' views about the level of content knowledge they have learned. All participants stated that content knowledge, including the language fluency level that they acquired during their EFL teacher education program was much higher than that needed for teaching children English in primary schools. In addition, they stated that they never experienced difficulties with their language knowledge (grammar and vocabulary) and English proficiency in translating the curriculum goals into their practices or in understanding learning materials to be presented to children. Some of them even commented that they often needed to simplify their language in talking to children in order to help them understand the messages they wanted to convey to them.

For example, T1-S1 stated, "Content knowledge that I learned during the secondary EFL teacher education program reached an advanced level, while content knowledge that I teach to primary school children here is pretty much basic. I often need to simplify my English to talk to them" (T1-S1, personal communication, March 29,

2012). T13-S9 commented, “The competency level that I acquired in the EFL teacher education program was high, while the language that I teach to children here is only basic skills for simple communication” (T13-S9, personal communication, April 27, 2012). Similarly, T2-S2 stated:

The EFL teaching program in primary schools is a foundation level; it deals only with basic skills of English such as basic vocabulary and a few English sentence structures such as *the Simple Present Tense*, *the Present Progressive Tense* and *the Simple Past Tense*. During the secondary EFL teacher education program, I reached an advanced level of content knowledge; I never experience difficulties at all in my practice (T2-S2, personal communication, April 9, 2012).

Other participants such as T4-S3 expressed, “During the secondary EFL teacher education program, I learned advanced courses of English grammar and English proficiency, but at this school, I only teach basic skills of English such as basic vocabulary, pronunciation, simple oral communication skills, basic reading and writing skills” (T4-S3, personal communication, April 2, 2012). Likewise, T3-S2 said:

I have learned English linguistics and English skill and proficiency throughout my education, secondary education, foreign language education, and the secondary EFL teacher education program, so I have no problem with content knowledge in primary schools at all (T3-S2, personal communication, April 19, 2012).

In addition, four participants mentioned the important role of EFL teachers’ oral language proficiency over other skills, such as reading and writing, for teaching children English in primary schools, because they believed that teaching oral language competence is the foremost goal in primary schools.

T12-S8 stated, “The teacher’s oral language proficiency together with vocabulary knowledge is the most important aspect in teaching English to children, because it is the main of EFL teaching at the primary school level” (T12-S8, personal communication, April 16, 2012). T7-S5 similarly said, “Teacher’s knowledge of vocabulary and oral proficiency is the key to successful EFL teaching in primary schools” (T7-S5, personal communication, April 7, 2012). T6-S4 stated, “I learned English linguistics, English proficiency and pedagogy, but the key to successful EFL in primary school according to my experience relies on my knowledge of vocabulary and oral competence” (T6-S4, personal communication, March 3, 2012). T10-S6 stated,

“The Primary school EFL program needs EFL teachers with excellent speaking skills. EFL teachers need such skills as they will be the language models for children” (T10-S6, personal communication, April 17, 2012).

The interview data describing content knowledge (English linguistics and English proficiency) of the participants were verified by the classroom observation data. During classroom observations, the participants demonstrated extensive use of English in teaching the target language (e.g., through demonstrations or contextual examples) to children through related topic or thematic materials. They were able to use the target language as the language of instruction to carry out teaching tasks as described by Richards (2011) shown in Table 8.1. Although my presence in the classroom was not to judge the mastery of the participants’ content knowledge, I prepared a useful way of analysing participants’ content knowledge using a list of language skills needed by an effective language teacher as seen in Table 8.1 effectively.

Table 8.1 *Elements of Participants’ Content Knowledge Observed During Classroom Observations*

comprehend texts accurately
provide good language models
maintain use of the target language in the classroom
maintain fluent use of the target
give explanations and instructions in the target language
provide examples of words and grammatical structures and give accurate explanations
use appropriate classroom language
select target-language resources (text books and the internet)
give correct feedback on learner language
provide input at an appropriate level of difficulty

Note. All of the skills in the table above were observed in the eleven participants. Source (Richards, 2011, p. 3).

Considering the above list (without intending to offer summative judgement on their language knowledge and proficiency), it could be said that the participants’ content knowledge was more than sufficient to support them in developing sets of teaching strategies, and designing learning materials and activities, often referred to as pedagogical content knowledge, in language teaching. Their knowledge about the English language, both declarative and procedural (Freeman & Johnson, 1998) was more than sufficient for what was required to develop pedagogical content knowledge

of EFL teaching and to help children access the target language in order to acquire communicative competence as prescribed in the Indonesian curriculum of EFL program for primary schools.

This finding does not support EFL research evidence discussed in Chapter 2. For example, studies by Astika (1996), Agustina, Rahayu, and Murti (1997), Febriyanthi (2004), and Suyanto (2004) suggested that EFL teachers in primary schools in Indonesia were not able to use English for the language of instruction. These authors argued that EFL teachers used the Indonesian language, instead of English in their teaching, showing their limited communicative competence. Moreover, Suyanto (2004) argued that more than 80% of EFL teachers working in primary schools in Indonesia did not possess enough English proficiency and teaching skills to work with children in primary classrooms; and many primary school EFL teachers pronounced English words incorrectly; thus, they were not appropriate language models for children. The findings of my study in the area of content knowledge do not agree with these studies.

Participants' statements in which they said that they had an advanced level of content knowledge (English linguistics, vocabulary and fluency) reflected the curriculum goal for content knowledge courses listed in the curriculum of secondary EFL teacher education programs as discussed in Chapter 2. Although the curriculum of EFL teacher education programs in Indonesia does not explicitly define the targeted level of content knowledge that should be achieved by prospective EFL teachers, many LPTKs do expect that after graduating from the program, novice EFL teachers should be able to demonstrate a level of English language competence of 550 on the TOEFL score (UNM, 2013), equivalent to 6.5 on IELTS (VEC, 2015). Such a level is equivalent to an advanced level on the scale of Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CASLS, 2010).

The level of content knowledge required by language teachers to teach the target language effectively is still debated (e.g., Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Johnston & Goettsch, 2000; Andrews, 2003; Andrews & McNeill, 2005; Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011; Richards, 2011). Many have argued that L2/FL teachers should have a high level of content knowledge like a native speaker. In agreement with this notion, many language teaching schools allocate most time to content knowledge study in their curricula for prospective L2/FL teachers (Johnston & Goettsch, 2000). In Indonesia, this practice is also apparent. Indonesian EFL teacher education programs in LPTKs allocate

86 percent (out of 146 credits) in the curriculum to learning content knowledge of English; only about 14 percent is allocated for prospective EFL teachers to learn EFL teaching knowledge. This is despite the findings that for L2/FL teaching, it is the teaching that is foremost (Johnston & Goettsch, 2000). As noted in Chapter 2, secondary-trained EFL teachers in Indonesia have spent 800 hours studying content knowledge during their secondary education, and 3,840 hours during university study. This number of hours is far greater than the number of hours required to reach an intermediate level (ranging from 630 to 720) as shown in the results of several studies by CASLS (2010). Therefore, it is likely that with such a large number of hours, secondary-trained EFL teachers can reach an advanced level of content knowledge.

8.3 Focusing on teaching communicative competence

This theme describes the participants' views of the curriculum goals of the EFL teaching program in primary schools in Indonesia. Interviews revealed that the majority of participants viewed the goal of EFL teaching in primary schools should be to help children to speak the language for everyday communication purposes. Of the thirteen participants, only T1-S1 viewed the goal of EFL teaching in primary school to be to introduce children to foundational English grammar.

The view of the majority of the participants was exemplified by their classroom practices observed during the classroom observations. The view was also supported by the analyses of samples of participants' teaching documents such as syllabi, lesson plans, and text-books they used to teach primary children in the classrooms. What follows are excerpts of participants responses related to this theme.

T4-S3 commented, "according to me, the goal of EFL teaching in primary schools is to teach basic oral communication skills to children, so at the time of graduating, they can speak English for simple communication purposes in daily life" (T4-S3, personal communication, April 2, 2012). Other participants, such as T2-S2 stated, "In my opinion the ultimate goal of teaching English to children in primary school is to learn oral language competence" (T2-S2, personal communication, April 9, 2012). Similarly, T5-S3 stated:

According to me, in primary schools, EFL teaching should focus on helping children learn the foundation of communicative competence to use English. That is why at this school, I always encourage children to speak in English although

they are not very accurate grammatically. Thus, we don't correct grammatical mistakes children make very often, because such corrections may discourage them to speak, rather we give them positive feedbacks to keep going to use the language in speaking (T5-S3, personal communication, April 2, 2012).

T6-S4 also gave a similar comment as follows:

I think the aim of EFL teaching in primary schools is to be able to communicate in simple oral communication. Therefore, the teaching should focus on helping children acquire communicative competence through rich knowledge of vocabulary. EFL teachers in primary schools should emphasise teaching immediate use of the target language with appropriate vocabulary to provide primary school children with experience of the immediate benefits of English to develop a sense of successful learning. This goal fits the goal of curriculum of this school. My principal wants to upgrade the accreditation level of the school to bring more parents to send their children to study here (T6-S4, personal communication, March 3, 2012).

Finally, T7-S5 stated, "In my opinion, the ultimate goal of EFL teaching to primary school students is to help them acquire basic oral communicative competence to establish their confidence and motivation to learn English up to an advanced level" (T7-S5, personal communication, April 7, 2012).

In addition to the above comments, six participants stated that they allocated longer learning time for children to acquire oral communicative competence and provided children with sufficient oral language activities rather than other language aspects such as reading and writing.

T2-S2 stated, "I always use longer teaching time to teach oral competence and vocabulary in order to prepare children to speak English, I also help them use the learned vocabulary for communication purposes" (T2-S2, personal communication, April 9, 2012). Another participant, T3-S2 commented, "I always spend greater time for children to acquire oral skills rather than to learn knowledge about language" (T3-S2, personal communication, April 19, 2012). Similarly, T5-S3 said, "I spend most of the teaching hour to teach oral language competence" (T5-S3, personal communication, April 2, 2012). Likewise, T7-S5 stated, "I always provide longer time for children to do communication practices than to do other language activities" (T7-S5, personal

communication, April 7, 2012). T13-S9 commented, “I provide one session of every lesson, which is about one hour, for children to practise speaking” (T13-S9, personal communication, April 27, 2012). T10-S6 said, “The most important goal in my teaching is oral language, so I use more time of my teaching to engage children in speaking practices” (T10-S6, personal communication, April 17, 2012).

Participants’ view of teaching oral language competence as the main goal of EFL teaching in primary schools is verified by their teaching documents. The text book that participants used for teaching children such as *Let’s Make Friends with English* (Sugeng, 2007) used a task-based communicative syllabus. The text book contained more oral language tasks than reading and writing activities (see Table 8.2). The text book presented the target language (grammar and vocabulary) comprehensibly using a task-based approach through contextual presentation that leads children to acquire oral language communicatively. One lesson in the text book contained a variety of oral language tasks as listed in Table 8.2.

Table 8.2 Types of Tasks in Children’s Course Book

Types of Tasks	Language Skills
<i>Let’s look and say</i>	Simple dialogue (speaking/vocabulary)
<i>Let’s listen and repeat</i>	Presenting vocabulary with pictures in speaking practice
<i>Let’s learn about it</i>	Inductive grammar presentation in speaking activities
<i>Let’s practise</i>	Simple exercise (grammar in speaking activities)
<i>Let’s say it</i>	Speaking activities
<i>Let’s trace it</i>	Reading/writing
<i>Let’s ask and answer</i>	Speaking activities
<i>Let’s listen and do it</i>	Listening/Speaking
<i>Let’s read;</i>	Reading
<i>Let’s write</i>	Writing
<i>Let’s sing a song;</i>	Speaking

Note. The tasks and the language skills as seen in the table above are the main learning materials in every chapter of the course book, “Let’s Make Friends with English” (Sugeng, 2007).

The focus on teaching oral language skills was also apparent in the classroom practices of the participants. All classroom practices of the participants were divided into three main stages, a pre-activity, core-activity, and post-activity. Most of learning

activities in the core-activity were designed to help children practise the target language for oral communication purposes. All participants allocated the greatest proportion of time in the core learning stage for children to practise the target language. A lesson analysis of the participants taken during classroom observation as seen Table 8.3 below exemplifies this emphasis. Table 8.3 below shows that the participants spent most of the learning time in training children to use the language orally. They spent approximately 30 minutes (almost half of the total study time) for practice either in pairs or in groups with varied types of activities.

Table 8.3 Samples of Types of Activities in Participants' Practices

Stages of practice and types of learning activities	Time
<p>Pre-learning</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Students greet the teacher - All instructions were in English - The teacher led the class to sing the song "Brother John" while dancing. 	5 minutes
<p>Core-learning</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The teacher introduced the language input in context - whole class activity (20 minutes) - The teacher introduced language input (shapes) using colourful flashcards such as triangle, square, rectangle, pentagon, hexagon, heptagon, octagon, circle, ellipse, and oval. - The teacher encouraged the class to brainstorm the names of the shapes shown to them. They could use their picture dictionaries and could come to the white board to spell the names of the shapes they mentioned. - Spelling mistakes were corrected by asking other students' to check their dictionaries. - Pronunciations of shapes were repeated several times. - The teacher asked children to examine kinds of shapes in the classroom, in the schools, and around their environment. - The teacher used the white board to demonstrate drawing interesting pictures using different kinds of shapes. ▪ Practising: group-work competition games (30 minutes) - The teacher asked students in groups to draw pictures using as many shapes as possible. The teacher allowed 15 minutes for the activity. The group who have the most shapes in their picture was the winner. - Students shared their pictures with the class, describing what picture was about, how many shapes they used in the picture, why they chose to draw such picture (15 minutes). 	50 minutes
<p>Post-learning:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Summarising - whole class (5 minutes) ▪ Singing - whole class (5 minutes) 	10 minutes
(T2-S2, observation, April 19, 2012)	

Note. The table above shows the main teaching-learning activities teacher 2 at school 2 undertook with students during a classroom observation on April 19, 2012. A detailed discussion of the language learning activities the participants provided for children is provided in Chapter 9.

Participants' views of the curriculum goal are consistent with the goal of EFL teaching in primary schools as described in the 2006 National Indonesia curriculum discussed in Chapter 2 (Mendiknas, 2006a, 2006d; Depdiknas, 2007). Table 2.1 in Chapter 2 describes that the overall goal of the EFL program in primary schools in Indonesia is to introduce basic English communicative competence to children as the foundation for them to acquire academic English at the next level of schooling (Mendiknas, 2006b). Participants' views of the EFL curriculum goals demonstrated the following concepts of curriculum proposed by Darling-Hammond, Bransford, and LePage (2005), which include formal curriculum, topics or concepts to be taught; "enacted curriculum, activities, materials, and assignments that teachers create as well as the interactions with students; hidden curriculum, the underlying goals and perceptions schools and teachers hold for students" (p. 170).

The participants' views of curriculum goals are also relevant to an element of the knowledge base of EFL teaching proposed by Brumfit (1991), Roberts (1998), Tarone and Allwright (2005), McKay (2006), Cameron (2007) and Harmer (2010). These authors suggested that L2/FL teaching in primary schools should emphasise the teaching of oral competence as children will probably still be grasping the complexities of their mother tongue literacy skills. To support this goal, L2/FL vocabulary will be the most important language component for children. The teaching should express ideas in a meaningful context with the resources at hand. Harmer (2010) stressed that in primary schools, teaching oral communication competence of L2/FL should be emphasised, because children usually have strong curiosity and intrinsic motivation to practise new language through speaking, and they like to take risks to use the target language, and their anxiety in language learning is lower than that of secondary students.

The participants' strategy of providing more time for children to learn oral English language competence than to learn other language skills is consistent with the role of teacher in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Ur (1996) and Harmer (2010) argued that students need more time to play their role as learners as meaning negotiators in verbal communication practice. The main goal of L2 learning in CLT is to be able to use the target language for communication. As discussed in Chapter 4, the best way to achieve this goal is through communication activities in which meaning is negotiated using different aspects of communicative competence: linguistic competence, pragmatic competence, strategic competence, and discourse competence (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2001).

It is most likely that the participants' views of the curriculum goals were developed through their experiences during the secondary EFL teacher education program. As described in Chapter 2, the curriculum of EFL teacher education programs in Indonesia allocated 14 credits for English language teaching theories to equip prospective EFL teachers in teaching English to secondary school students. Included in these 14 credits were the units that serve as pedagogical content knowledge of English language teaching contexts such as curriculum/syllabus design, and methods of teaching English as foreign language (TEFL). All participants studied such units as described in Chapter 2. These units interrelate with each other and in one section they discuss the curriculum goals of EFL teaching and learning in general. Communicative competence-based methods of language teaching such as CLT, which have become the foundation of the curriculum and text book development in Indonesia emphasise teaching communicative competence rather than form to L2 students. The focus has been on learners' competence to be able to use the target language communicatively rather than grammatically accurate (Savignon, 1971; Canale, 1983).

The participants' views of curriculum goals could also have been influenced by workshops that were held by "Kelompok Kerja Guru" or KKG (Mendikbud, 2010b). KKG is a local professional development community of eight to ten from nearby schools of subject teachers (including English) who meet to discuss current instructional issues such as curriculum and syllabus making, lesson planning, and assessment and so on. T4-S3 stated, "Yesterday I attended a local workshop of EFL teachers held by KKG" (T4-S3, personal communication, April 2, 2012). Participants' understanding of the EFL curriculum goals could also be influenced by their knowledge about children as discussed in Chapter 7, in which all participants stated that they had developed an understanding of the importance of children's interests in their teaching, and they appeared to be convinced that children like to learn language through active communication practices.

The finding of this study that the participants viewed the curriculum goals of their teaching as developing oral language competence does not support the view of studies discussed in Chapter 2. For example, a study by Astika (1996) suggested that EFL teaching in primary schools in Indonesia was teacher-centred and more than half of the learning hour was used by the teacher to explain language form, to ask questions, to give instructions and to drill. In contrast, in my study as it was revealed that the participants, to some extent, exhibited features that described them as more learner-

centred rather than teacher-centred teachers. Such evidence was derived through the analyses of participants' words, their practice, and their teaching documents, such as syllabi, lesson plans, and course books.

In summary, the participants' responses as verified by the classroom observation data suggest that the participants of the current study were familiar with the national curriculum (see Table 2.1), although they may not have referred to it. It seemed that the participants' views of the EFL curriculum goals shaped their teaching as this understanding was evidenced not only in the interviews, but also in the classroom observation data and their teaching documents. This understanding could be based on their experience during training in the EFL teacher education program and/or from an EFL teacher professional development program conducted by KKG of English language teachers of primary schools.

8.4 Summary

This chapter has addressed research question 4 of the study through the discussion of "How do secondary-trained EFL teachers view content knowledge and the curriculum goals of EFL teaching in primary schools?" Interviews revealed that all participants stated that their content knowledge including grammar and vocabulary, and language proficiency, exceeded the level needed to teach English effectively in primary schools. They stated that they have learned an advanced level of English grammar and language proficiency during the secondary EFL teacher education programs in relevant LPTKs. This finding was verified by the classroom observation data that showed their ability to use English competently as the language of instruction in the teaching process. The participants' understanding of the curriculum goals was relevant to the overall goal of the EFL teaching in primary schools as outlined in the national curriculum; the emphasis on the teaching of communicative competence. This finding suggests that the content knowledge of the secondary-trained EFL teachers working in primary schools meets the standard of content knowledge required by EFL teachers to teach English to children effectively. The participants' understanding of the curriculum goals was relevant to the goal of EFL teaching described in the guidelines of Indonesian EFL Curriculum 2006 and is related to the EFL goal addressed in literature review, in which spoken language is emphasised.

The findings related to participants' content knowledge and curriculum goals are also inconsistent with the few studies reported by previous researchers. All participants of this study possessed sufficient content knowledge and understanding of curriculum goals to teach children English. Their understanding of these two areas may have led to them to being enthusiastic and confident teachers of EFL to primary school children which they professed to be. However, the results of this research may not be generalisable to other schools in other regions in Indonesia as the schools and the EFL teachers involved in the current study were selected by the local government; the nine selected schools selected had the accreditation "A" in Jambi city. Nevertheless, this finding can be used as the basis for research on content knowledge and understanding of curriculum goals of EFL teachers of primary schools in other regions of Indonesia.

The chapter that follows reports on the analyses the EFL teaching knowledge the participants used in teaching English to primary school students. The chapter will outline how the participants used their knowledge of children discussed in Chapter 7 and knowledge of subject matter and curriculum goals to teach English to children in primary classrooms.

CHAPTER 9 FINDINGS:

Participants' Views of the EFL Teaching Knowledge They Used to Teach Primary School Students English

9.1 Introduction

This chapter addresses the specific research sub-question five of the study “How do secondary-trained EFL teachers teach English to students of primary school? To address this question, the interview data and descriptions of eleven participants’ classroom practices together with their samples of syllabi, lesson plans, and text books (as supporting data) were analysed thematically (Allen, 1995; Baxter & Lederman, 2001). The chapter is organised into three smaller sections relevant to EFL teaching-learning processes: “Planning and Implementing EFL Teaching for Children”, “Developing a Positive Teacher-Child Relationship”, and “Assessing Children’s Progress in Learning EFL”. The themes emerging from thematic analyses addressed in this chapter are as follows:

- Integrating children’s interests into EFL learning,
- Topic-based and functional syllabus,
- Involving physical movement into EFL learning,
- Making EFL learning meaningful to children,
- Teaching language inputs playfully,
- Teaching grammar inductively,
- Incorporating cultural values into EFL learning,
- Three stages of teaching,
- Immersing children in language use,
- Becoming another parent to children,
- Emotionally engaging children,
- Acting like an actor,
- Using formative and summative assessment.

The above themes are presented in order from the most common to the least common as discussed by the participants in interviews and shown in their classroom practices. In the discussion, the themes are presented with samples of excerpts from the participants’ responses and evidence observed during classroom observations. However, there are themes which only emerged from interviews or and some only from classroom

observations, thus such themes are discussed based on the data from which they emerged.

9.2 Planning and Implementing EFL Teaching for Children

This section outlines the themes that describe participants' experience in designing EFL syllabi, preparing lesson plans, selecting learning materials and language activities for children to learn English as a foreign language in classrooms. The section addresses the first nine themes above emerging from interviews and/or classroom observations.

9.2.1 Integrating children's interests into EFL learning

The theme "integrating children's interests into EFL learning" describes an element of the participants' views about the EFL teaching knowledge in developing an engaging EFL syllabus for primary school students. The theme emerged from interviews and classroom observations. All participants stated that they developed EFL syllabi based on children's needs and interests in order to engage primary school students in EFL learning. In the interviews, the participants described how they developed their EFL syllabi as follows.

T1-S1 stated, "I make a list of topics in my syllabus to be taught according to the children's experience and interests, and I decide which one of them will be taught the first lesson, the second and so on" (T1-S1, personal communication, March 29, 2012). Other participants such as T9-S6 stated, "So first, I need to know what topics and activities children are likely to be interested in" (T9-S6, personal communication, April 16, 2012). Similarly T6-S4 stated that she developed a syllabus and lesson plans as follows:

I develop a new syllabus and lesson plans based on children's interests noting the topics of the former syllabus. So basically, I evaluate the former syllabus and lesson plans as I go through them. The topics and activities that are not interesting to children are replaced with the new ones which are likely to interest children (T6-S4, personal communication, March 3, 2012).

The theme "integrating children's interests into EFL learning" is substantiated by participants' practices as shown in observation data. Samples of participants' lesson plans and text books gathered before or after classroom observations contained learning

topics and materials (e.g., fruit, animals, etc.) and kinds of planned language activities (such as games, action songs, and many more) that were related to the everyday experiences and activities of children. Interviews and classroom observations revealed that the participants attempted to incorporate children’s interests in learning in a variety of ways such as by providing children with topics and activities they saw as relevant to children’s experience. Such strategies were seen in the descriptions of their practices. Table 9.1 below provides samples of topics and language activities drawn from participants’ practices that are likely to interest primary school students as they are all related to children’s experiences.

Table 9.1 Topics and Learning Activities Observed

Participants Observed	Topics	Language activities
T1-S1	Fruit and vegetables (observation, March 29, 2012)	Word-games, songs
T2-S2	Shapes (observation, April 19, 2012)	Games, Drawing, songs
T3-S2	A weekend with grandma (observation, April 26, 2012)	Story-telling and songs
T4-S3	Questioning and prepositions (observation, April 25, 2012)	Dialogues, games, songs
T5-S3	Playing soccer (observation, April 20, 2012)	Interviewing, reporting,
T6-S4	Telling dates (observation, April 12, 2012)	Dialogues, songs
T7-S5	Prepositions dealing with geographical positions (observation, April 5, 2012)	Drawing, reporting, songs
T8-S5	The Present Continues Tense (observation, April 13, 2012)	Role-paly, demonstrating, songs
T11-S7	Fruits (observation, March 31, 2012)	Chants, songs, games
T12-S8	Tropical fruits (observation, April 23, 2012)	Chants, songs and yoga using electronic module
T13-S9	Which one? (observation, April 27, 2012)	Role-play, songs

Note. The table above shows topics, language functions as well as a variety of language activities the eleven observed participants used during the observations.

The theme “integrating children’s interests into EFL learning” links to the theme “primary school students have a variety of interests” discussed in Section 7.3. As such, the participants’ views and their practices in syllabus design and language activity development matched their views of children. The participants considered that the interests of children were important in designing an EFL syllabus to achieve learning objectives that they and children wanted to attain. This finding indicated that secondary-trained EFL teachers possessed an element of EFL teaching knowledge required to teach English to primary school students. Their views of children and their practices as indicated by their approach to syllabus design and language activities development were

consistent with communicative competence-based teaching proposed by language experts such as (Nunan, 1998).

This finding is consistent with the discussion of children's interests in the field of language teaching presented in the literature review. For example, Halliwell (1992) argued that children come to school with a built-in set of interests; thus it is essential to recognise and consider this aspect in the process of curriculum design, material development and selection of teaching strategies. Children's interests determine their attention span and achievement in learning EFL language (Brown, 2001). Moreover, research has continuously shown that incorporating students' interests into learning materials and activities enhances students' intrinsic motivation to learn L2. It has been argued that once children find L2 learning interesting and enjoyable, they tend to continue to learn the language voluntarily (Dörnyei, 2001). In general teaching, Darling-Hammond, Bransford, et al. (2005) have also highlighted that the child's interest is the foundation of an engaging syllabus that will provide meaningful learning to children.

In addition, the interviews revealed that the participants evaluated and improved their syllabi every semester based on their notes about topics and language activities in their relation to children's interests. As discussed, they stated that they noted which topics and activities were interesting to children and they would replace the topics and the activities which were not or less interesting to children with those which were likely to interest them more. Such practice reflects a characteristic of professional practice of effective teachers. Effective teachers have a strong motivation to improve teaching efficacy; they evaluate their syllabi and learning activities based on children's interests to enhance engaging and meaningful learning for their students (Darling-Hammond, Bransford, et al., 2005).

Participants' views of the need to incorporate children's interest into their pedagogy in primary schools differed from EFL practice at the secondary school level as noted in Chapter 2. At the secondary school level, EFL teachers in Indonesia prefer to use teaching syllabi, materials and activities which may enhance learning in order to help students pass the final national examination (Lie, 2007). The teaching often relies on prescribed textbooks; teaching materials, content, and activities that are not flexible enough to accommodate students' interests. The focus is to equip students with skills that will help them achieve maximum marks for graduation (Lie, 2007).

This finding of “incorporating children’s interests into EFL learning” differed from previous research evidence about primary schools. Earlier researchers argued that EFL teachers at the primary level were incapable of accommodating children’s interests into their pedagogy. For example, Suyanto (2004) argued that EFL practice in primary schools was too similar to that at the secondary level. She highlighted several issues such as the incompetence of teachers to design EFL lessons according to children’s needs and interests. She claimed that EFL teaching in primary schools was carried out through the teaching of course books available in the market; teachers followed the methodology of the course books, and many teaching materials in those course books did not match children’s needs, interests and experience; and EFL teachers in primary schools did not seem to have sufficient knowledge to facilitate effective EFL teaching to students of primary school age; they were not able to accommodate a variety of children’s interests into language activities. In another study, Febriyanthi (2004) also revealed similar evidence suggesting that EFL teachers in primary schools were not sufficiently creative in their teaching of English to children; their pedagogy just followed the course book syllabi; they were not able to make any effort to improvise on the syllabi or the course books they used because they did not have sufficient EFL teaching knowledge to work with students of primary schools (Zein, 2012).

The theme that follows outlines the kinds of syllabi the participants prepared for EFL classroom teaching.

9.2.2 Using topic-based and functional syllabi

The theme of “topic-based and language function-based syllabus” is in line with the theme discussed in Section 8.3, Chapter 8, in which all of the participants stated that the ultimate goal of EFL teaching to children of primary schools was oral language competence. Based on such a goal, they developed their EFL syllabi taking into account children’s interests as has been discussed in Section 9.2.1 above, and made the syllabi meaningful for children. Further, they developed syllabi to suit children’s cognitive and social-emotional development (McKay, 2006) adopting the topic-based and functional-based syllabi that are relevant to theories of language syllabus development for teaching L2 to students of primary schools (Nunan, 2009).

Participants’ syllabi comprised seven elements related to language competency, following the guidelines of Indonesian 2006 EFL Curriculum. These included basic competency in the four language skills (listening-speaking, and reading-writing);

competency standard; description of learning materials and learning activities; achievement indicators; assessment strategies; time allocation; and references (Mendiknas, 2006).

The theme “using topic-based and functional syllabi” describes participants’ views of EFL syllabus development for teaching English to students of primary schools. The participants did not explicitly mention the kind of syllabus that they actually used in their practice. Rather the finding was evident in the samples of their EFL syllabi that they developed based on the guidelines for the Indonesian EFL curriculum and the syllabi attached to their course books. The analyses of these documents and samples of their lesson plans revealed that all participants used two types of EFL syllabi for their practice: a topic-based syllabus for grades 1-3 (as also seen in Table 9.1 above) and a functional syllabus for grades 4-6. The topic-based syllabus contained topics or themes relevant to children’s everyday experience and interests such as *My Classroom*, and *At Home*, while the functional syllabus contained language functions which are needed by children to be used in their everyday activities. Table 9.2 below provides samples of topics and language functions extracted from the course books that most of participants used for students’ practices, “Let’s Make Friends with English” (Sugeng & Pulungan, 2007).

Table 9.2 Samples of Contents of the Participants’ Syllabi

Book 1 - Grade 1	Book 3 - Grade 3	Book 4 - Grade 4	Book 5 - Grade 5
Me and You (p. 1)	The English class (p. 1)	How do you spell it? (p. 11)	When were your born? (p. 29)
My Family (p. 11)	My House (p. 11)	Nice to meet you (p. 29)	What does she look like? (p. 69)
My Friends (p. 21)	Pets (p. 21)	What is your number? (p. 39)	She has a pointed nose (p. 79)
At Home (p. 29)	My Things (p. 31)	What colour is your bag? (p. 49)	I feel happy (p. 87)
My Classroom (p. 51)	Things in the House (p. 61)	Close the door please? (p. 81)	How many brothers do you have (p. 97)

This finding is consistent with a theory of syllabus design in the literature review (see Chapter 4). It has been argued that a topic-based syllabus that organises learning materials and activities around particular topics or themes suit lower grade students (Brinton, 2003). The syllabus of this kind is relevant to the way children learn language in that they explore authentic topics or things or events around them first, before they expand to learn language functions that are more specific for use in communication activities (Brinton, 2003). Language researchers such as Peregoy and Boyle (2008)

argued that a topic-based syllabus is appropriate for teaching children language, particularly for lower graders. Using topic-based teaching, EFL teachers are able to accommodate a variety of children's interests, yet remained focused on language learning objectives. It also has been argued that a topic-based syllabus can guide EFL teachers and children to achieve the goal of EFL learning in primary schools to develop communicative competence (Brown, 2001).

Brown (2001) discussed principles of foreign language teaching in primary schools relevant to the topic-based instruction such as "automaticity", "meaningful learning", "intrinsic motivation", and "communicative competence" (p. 55). Automaticity is similar to language acquisition processes in which learners absorb language through language use, not focusing very much on language form. Automaticity is relevant to the concept of topic-based-syllabi because these syllabi centre on topics or themes rather than partial language form. Topic-based syllabi encourage meaningful learning leading to long-term retention learning. Furthermore, meaningful learning contributes to significant impacts on children's intrinsic motivation (Brown, 2001). Brown (2001) further argued that topic-based instruction enhances communication skills because it utilises "automaticity" instead of form analysis or drills. Topic-based teaching allows language teachers to integrate authentic social interactions and issues into the classroom while working on improving their students' language competence. Topic-based instruction provides children with the opportunity to practise authentic language that they can recall later in situations in which they have to utilise their language skills to communicate meaningfully.

The functional syllabus the participants prepared for upper graders is relevant to Wilkins' functional notional syllabus (1976). According to Finochiaro and Brumfit (1983), a functional notional-syllabus has several advantages. For example, it puts oral language as the core syllabus; it prepares contextual language activities; it emphasises real-world language for everyday lessons; it acknowledges that the speaker should have an objective for talking; and it empowers a spiral curriculum to be used (Finochiaro & Brumfit, 1983).

The participants' practice of syllabus development may have been derived from relevant courses they undertook during the secondary EFL teacher education program. As described in Chapter 2, the curriculum of secondary EFL teacher education programs in Indonesia allocated 14 credits for EFL teaching theories and practices to

equip prospective EFL teachers for teaching English to secondary school students. Included in these 14 credits was a course called “Teaching English as Foreign Language” (TEFL) which provides curriculum theories and syllabus designs proposed by language professionals as underpinning different methods or approaches to second or foreign language teaching (See Table 2.4, Chapter 2). The materials about communicative competence-based methods in language teaching such as CLT, the curriculum and text book development that the participants gained during undertaking such courses may have contributed to their views of syllabus design they used in primary schools.

The participants’ views of syllabus design may have also been influenced by their experience or from workshop materials provided by “Kelompok Kerja Guru” (KKG) (Mendikbud, 2010b). As has been noted in Chapter 8, the majority of the participants stated that they were requested to attend monthly KKG workshops to improve their professional understanding of current practice and issues in EFL teaching such as syllabus design, lesson planning, and assessing students’ progress in EFL learning. Participants’ views of syllabus design could also be influenced by their views about children as discussed in Chapter 7, in which all of the participants stated that they studied students’ interests to make EFL teaching appealing to them, and they seemed to believe that students of primary schools like thematic materials.

9.2.3 Involving physical movements into EFL activities

The theme “involving physical movement into EFL activities” describes another view of the participants in preparing learning materials and types of language activities which they thought appropriate for children in learning the target language. The view emerged from interviews and classroom observations.

For example, T4-S3 stated:

I prepare learning materials and activities that involve physical movements of children in using the target language authentically; it is most likely similar to “learning by doing” (T4-S3, personal communication, April 2, 2012).

Other participants such as T9-S6 similarly stated:

I always prepare learning materials and activities that involve children’s physical activities, because I found that children like to move during the lessons. So I

attempt to modify some of the learning activities in the course book in order to incorporate children’s physical movements (T9-S6, personal communication, April 16, 2012).

Finally, T10-S6 stated as follows:

I create EFL learning activities that make them move physically. For example I always use games, action songs and TPR [*total physical responses*] as all primary children love actions and songs. Sometimes my activities deviate from those in the lesson plan. So I need to be creative and innovative all the time (T10-S6, personal communication, April 17, 2012).

Table 9.3 Samples of Physical Activities in the Participants’ Teaching

Participants Observed	Topics	Language activities
T1-S1	Fruits and vegetables (observation, March 29, 2012)	Word-games, songs
T2-S2	Shapes (observation, April 19, 2012)	Games, Drawing, action songs
T3-S2	A weekend with grandma (observation, April 26, 2012)	Story-telling and songs
T4-S3	Questioning and prepositions (observation, April 25, 2012)	Dialogues, games, action songs
T5-S3	Playing soccer (observation, April 20, 2012)	Moving Interviewing, reporting,
T6-S4	Telling dates (observation, April 12, 2012)	Dialogues, songs
T7-S5	Prepositions dealing with geographical positions (observation, April 5, 2012)	Drawing, reporting, songs
T8-S5	The Present Continues Tense (observation, April 13, 2012)	Role-paly, demonstrating, action songs
T11-S7	Fruits (observation, March 31, 2012)	Chants, action songs, games
T12-S8	Tropical fruits (observation, April 23, 2012)	Chants, action songs and yoga using electronic module
T13-S9	Which one? (observation, April 27, 2012)	Role-play, songs

Note. The table above shows topics and a variety of language activities involving the eleven participants of the research used during the observations.

The participants’ view of the importance of involving children’s physical activities in language learning was evident in their teaching. The eleven participants observed showed that they all involved children’s physical movements in their lessons. They used physical activities such as action songs, guessing games, moving interviews, total physical response, and simple yoga as seen in Table 9.3 above. They used such activities almost in every stage of their teaching, in pre-learning, core-learning or post-learning.

Participants' teaching strategy of incorporating physical movements in lessons is relevant to children's needs and characteristics as discussed by Brumfit, Pincas, and Broughton (2003). These authors believed that primary school students are more interested in what they can do with a thing rather than what the thing is; and that children like language learning activities that involve physical actions or movements such as holding, dropping, throwing, colouring, hiding, and exploring. Therefore, meaningful EFL syllabi, learning materials and activities for primary school students should involve actions or activities that are related to children's physical movements because such syllabi, learning materials and activities will be effective in gradually developing children's vocabulary in relation to the immediate natural surroundings (Brumfit, Pincas, & Broughton, 2003).

The involvement of physical movement in language learning activities as shown in participants' practices is consistent with an element of pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) in the field of language teaching (Richards, 2011). Such a strategy suggests they had developed PCK for EFL teaching knowledge in that they blended a their knowledge of children and their development in social contexts, content knowledge, and specific EFL teaching methods to carry out productive EFL practice in primary classrooms. Such PCK in language teaching is likely to make EFL teaching in classrooms comprehensible, interesting, motivating and meaningful to children. This strategy can be associated with Krashen's (1983) comprehensible input hypothesis as elaborated by Gibbons (2009). As has been argued, children require certain conditions to acquire communicative competence in informal learning situations. The use of physical movement activities such as the participants used, can make the formal EFL learning in classrooms develop into a more informal or relaxed setting that frees children from learning anxiety (Krashen, 1985b). As such, children can absorb communicative competence without conscious effort, not worrying about grammar and vocabulary (Krashen, 1985b). Moreover, language experts have argued that physical language activities have several advantages for children; one of which is that such activities allow children to correct and practise language use consolidating that usage in the long-term memory (Kirsch, 2012). Using such activities in primary schools will make EFL learning becomes engaging, understandable and effective for children.

Participants' practice of involving students' physical movements in their language teaching may have been influenced by the EFL teaching knowledge they learned through TEFL courses during secondary EFL teacher education programs.

During the TEFL course, prospective EFL teachers are introduced to a variety of teaching strategies to make language learning in the classroom interesting to secondary school students. These strategies may include using physical activities such as action songs, dramas, and role-plays. The participants could also have learned to involve students' physical activities in their teaching from KKG workshop materials (Mendikbud, 2010b) as discussed in the previous theme. This finding suggests that the participants attempted to make EFL teaching more child-centred, informal, active, anxiety-free, and meaningful than a formal teacher-centred one. Similar to the finding discussed in 9.2.1 above, this finding differs from the evidence of previous research as discussed by researchers such as Febriyanti (2004) and Suyanto (2004).

9.2.4 Making EFL activities meaningful to children

The theme “making EFL activities meaningful to children” is related to all of the themes discussed above. It describes the view of the participants in creating language learning activities for primary school students. The participants stated that they attempted to create EFL learning activities meaningful to their students so that they could learn English communicatively.

In his comment on the teaching of grammar to children, T10-S6 stated, “I teach children language functions through a variety of meaningful activities that they can use immediately” (T10-S6, personal communication, April 17, 2012). Similarly, T8-S5 stated, “I use several strategies that are interesting to children and learning activities that are related to their experiences and need to make the EFL learning meaningful to them” (T8-S5, personal communication, April 7, 2012). T3-S2 commented on meaningful language activities in a broader sense as follows:

The EFL learning activities should be meaningful to children to motivate them to achieve the oral language competence that we aim for. To children, meaningful is something useful to them. They will think EFL lessons are meaningful when they can speak English or when they can join English speech contests. Children are proud when they can speak English; they like to be different. When they can speak English they feel something, so they will develop positive images about EFL lessons. They will feel that the English program is useful and meaningful to them because it makes them different from other children who cannot speak English (T3-S2, personal communication, April 19, 2012).

Participants' views of making EFL learning activities meaningful to children were substantiated in their classroom practices. Samples of topics and language activities (in Table, 8.2 in Chapter 8, Table 9.1 and Table 9.2 above) extracted from participants' lessons and course books were all related to children's interests and experience leading to meaningful EFL learning activities that they prepared for children. The participants understood that they had to design language learning activities that were useful in order to make them meaningful to children. Therefore, they focused on helping students learn the language that they could use immediately in their daily routines in order to make students proud of themselves.

The theme "making EFL activities meaningful to children" is also related to the participants' views of the curriculum goals discussed in Section 8.2, Chapter 8, in which the majority of the participants stated that the ultimate goal of EFL learning in primary schools was to focus on students' ability to speak English to make them proud of their English lessons. This theme is closely related to research findings on learning motivation. Darling-Hammond, Bransford, and LePage (2005) argued that meaningful learning is related to effective and motivated learning; effective teaching begins with the syllabus design and learning activity development that are meaningful to children and with teaching that is engaging and motivating.

It has been argued in the literature that meaningful learning activities for EFL teaching can be designed by making connections between the new language and the language the children already know (Gibbons, 2009). Meaningful learning activities make learning the new language easier for children, and the results of such learning will last longer as the new input merges with prior knowledge to form an inseparable unity in the children's memory (Ausubel, 1963). Meaningful language learning is the opposite of rote language learning that emphasises memorising aspects of language without connection to what children already know. Meaningful EFL learning activities revolve around thematic materials which are meaningful and related to learners, which then provide them with a better opportunity to acquire language input in a more natural way.

As has been noted in the previous themes, meaningful EFL learning activities enhance children's intrinsic motivation (Brown, 2001). Gibbons (2002, 2009) discussed how meaningful activities for EFL learning can be designed through different methods such as incorporating the learner's mother tongue into the activities; using visuals such as pictures, diagrams, and graphic outlines; drawing on previous experiences or

learning; using demonstrations and experiences, songs, gestures or mime, symbols, interactive dynamic multimedia texts; and expressing ideas in different ways.

9.2.5 Teaching new language inputs playfully

Teaching language playfully is an effective strategy to teach a foreign language to young children (Read, 2006). The assumption behind this strategy is that children like to play with almost everything (Read, 2006).

The theme “teaching language input playfully” emerged from interviews with the participants. Such a strategy was also substantiated in their classroom practice. Seven of the participants opined that language inputs can be effectively introduced to children through playful activities. For example, T1-S1 commented, “I begin with teaching vocabulary because I see children can pick up words more quickly than secondary school students. I use word games a lot as children like to play while learning” (T1-S1, personal communication, March 29, 2012). T3-S2 stated:

We start the EFL program with lessons of vocabulary that are related to topics of children’s world so that they can learn those words while playing. For lower grades, we use a lot of word games, spelling games, chants or songs, colourful pictures, and TPR to make the lesson playfully. For upper graders we use a lot of role-plays, short dialogues, and guessing games and the like (T3-S2, personal communication, April 19, 2012).

Similarly, T2-S2 stated:

For lower graders, we focus on teaching vocabulary through action songs, word games, spelling games, and pictures, to prepare them to talk about topics familiar to them. After they have learned some words, then we guide them to construct short sentences related to topics that interest them. For upper graders encourage children to practise more speaking using words and basic tenses they are already familiar with, for example, talking about everyday routines, homes and schools; the ultimate goal is oral competency (T2-S2, personal communication, April 9, 2012).

T2-S2 commented, “Children need playful learning such as playing games and singing songs to learn English in a relaxing way” (T2-S2, personal communication, April 9, 2012). T12-S8 said, “I use many songs and play many games with children in

my teaching” (T12-S8, personal communication, April 16, 2012). T13-S9 stated, “Beside the activities in the text book, I also use songs and play games with children” (T13-S9, personal communication, April 27, 2012), and T11-S7 stated:

I make chants by myself containing words that they have learned and new ones that I want them to learn. So the purpose of singing songs is to retain those words in their memory as well as to introduce the new ones (T11-S7, personal communication, March 31, 2012).

Similarly, T4-S3 stated:

We create and use simple English chants or songs for children to learn. For example, when we wanted to teach children about Islamic clothes, we created simple English songs containing types of Islamic clothing. We sing the song with children while dancing, clapping, pointing, hopping and so on, or we show them colourful pictures of clothes and so on. Songs make children happier because all children like singing (T4-S3, personal communication, April 2, 2012).

The theme “teaching language inputs playfully” was observed in participants’ classroom practices, as also has been noted in Table 9.1. Table 9.1 shows that all the eleven participants observed used playful strategies such as singing songs, playing games, involving physical activities to allow learning the target language playfully to children. Beside chants, games, and pictures, some participants such as T13-S9, T5-S3 and T8-S5 also used role-plays.

The theme “teaching language inputs playfully” is relevant to professional knowledge of language teaching strategies which contends that songs or chants, games, pictures, and role-plays can serve two purposes in language teaching: first, to present the new language; and second, to create a relaxing and enjoyable classroom atmosphere for students to learn language in a more natural way. Some participants stated that they created simple songs because they did not have relevant songs in their course books related to the language input. They stated that relevant songs were not always available in the resources. For example, T4-S3 stated that she had to create chants or simple songs to teach the vocabulary related to Islamic cultural values. Likewise, T11-S7 mentioned that she created songs for teaching vocabulary to children.

The participants' view about using playful teaching strategies shows an element of their pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). Using playful teaching strategies, EFL teachers can make EFL learning more comprehensible and enjoyable (Rixon, 1991). Such a strategy makes EFL learning not only easier and more understandable, but also more interesting, motivating and meaningful for children (Brumfit, 1991). Participants' playful pedagogy is also related to their view of content knowledge and curriculum goals. As discussed in Chapter 8, all of the participants stated that they had learned more than sufficient content knowledge necessary for teaching children as they were initially prepared to teach English to secondary school students. Their knowledge of English made it easy for them to create playful strategies to present target language to children. This theme "teaching language input playfully" demonstrated an amalgamation of participants' content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, knowledge of curriculum goals, and knowledge of children as language learners that formed a set of strategies to create playful language activities to teach the target language to primary school students in a more natural way.

9.2.6 Teaching grammar inductively

The theme "teaching grammar inductively" describes participants' views about how they taught language form to primary school students. Four participants described their views related to how English sentence structures could be taught to children in primary schools. T10-S6 viewed the teaching of grammar to children in primary schools as follows:

Many asked me during the KKG workshops about how to teach grammar to children. First, I emphasised to them that explicit grammar teaching is the task of secondary school EFL teachers. I believe that we don't need to teach grammar to children explicitly, but we need to show them contextual sentences or demonstrate to them how grammar works within contexts. The knowledge of basic grammar of course is required for children because there is no meaning without grammar, and language is grammar. Second, explain to them that what we need in primary schools is to provide children with practical activities that contain grammar points that they will use immediately for everyday communication activities (T10-S6, personal communication, April 17, 2012).

Slightly different from Joshua's comment, T7-S5 viewed the teaching of grammar to students of primary schools as follows:

Many teachers said to me that we don't need to teach grammar to children in primary school; just encourage them to speak English. So I asked them, "How about the final examination?" There are always some grammar items in the final summative test, so I think children need some knowledge of English grammar too. But I know that we should teach grammar in a different way from how we learned it because I know children cannot learn language from rules. For example, yesterday before you came to observe my class, I taught the *Simple Past Tense* to the other grade five classes. What I did was, first I introduced to the students how to use the *Simple Past Tense* through authentic actions. I asked the children a few questions about their routine religious practice, because they are all Muslims so they know the context of daily practices in Islam. For example, "Did you pray *Isha* last night?", "Did you pray *Shubuh* this morning", "and "Did you say *salam* to your teachers when you come across to them this morning?" And followed by common questions asking students, such as "Did you have breakfast this morning?" "What did you eat for breakfast this morning?" and so on. So through such demonstrations and authentic examples within the context that is familiar to children, they could pick up grammar quickly. But if we explain the rule of the language to children as our teachers used to teach us grammar, it could be really, really hard for children to learn English (T7-S5, personal communication, April 7, 2012).

Likewise, T4-S3 viewed the teaching of grammar to primary school students as follows:

Now in primary schools we also introduce language forms to students beginning from grade four; but we don't teach language rules explicitly because children will not be able to grasp them through explicit teaching. So what we do, is we demonstrate the use of the targeted form in contexts and we involve children directly in the demonstrations of use of that targeted form in authentic situations, in which the meaning of the concept of the form is embedded. We don't require the children to tell us the rule; we just need to know that they use the language accurately without being able to tell us its rules (T4-S3, personal communication, April 2, 2012).

Finally, T9-S6 described her strategy to teach children grammar as follows:

At this school, grade four children start to learn the *Present Continuous Tense*. So, we demonstrate the use of the tense to them. We involve them in real actions in using the tense. We know they cannot learn abstract rules of the tense. So we engage them in a number of demonstrations and actions in using the rule. We don't explain rules explicitly to children like how EFL teachers in the secondary schools do using a traditional way of grammar teaching (T9-S6, personal communication, April 16, 2012).

Participants' views of grammar teaching as they are described above contain several points. First, all of the participants seemed to be aware that grammar knowledge was an important issue in language teaching. Such awareness was seen during the classroom observations too. All lessons observed contained elements of grammar as seen in Table 9.4 below.

Table 9.4 Learning Activities Observed Related Grammar Teaching

Names of Activities	Grammar Points
"Let's listen and repeat" (Sugeng & Pulungan, 2007, p. 2)	It is a chair. It is a bag, ... A chair, a bed, a bookshelf, ...
Let's say it (Sugeng & Pulungan, 2007, p. 55)	I have a book. I do not have a pencil sharpener.
"Let's learn about it" (Sugeng & Pulungan, 2007, p. 4)	Hello, my name is Jane. What is your name? Your name is ...
"Let's learn about it" (Sugeng & Pulungan, 2007, p. 24)	I have a cat. Bono has a rabbit. Moni has a tortoise.
"Let's learn about it" (Sugeng & Pulungan, 2007, p. 12)	Can you spell your name, please? How do you spell your name?
"Let's learn about it" (Sugeng & Pulungan, 2007, p. 51)	It is a brown chair. It is a blue window.
"Let's learn about it" (Sugeng & Pulungan, 2007, p. 2)	What time is it? It is nine o'clock. It is a quarter past two.
"Let's learn about it" (Sugeng & Pulungan, 2007, p. 30)	When were you born? I was born in December. What month is it this month? What month was it last month?

Note. The names of learning activities in the table above are taken from various levels of the course books "Let's Make Friends with English" (Sugeng & Pulungan, 2007) of different level that were used by the participants for students' grammar exercises.

Table 9.4 above provides examples of activities extracted from the course book of the participants that implicitly contained the teaching of grammatical points, e.g., the Present Continuous Tense to grade four children. Most of the participants used "Let's Make Friends with English" (Sugeng & Pulungan, 2007) for grammar practices for students.

Second, all of the participants showed a view of grammar teaching to primary school students, which was based on their perceptions of children's characteristics, for example, children could not learn language through rules, and therefore the teaching of English to children should not focus on the teaching of rules. Third, based on their understanding, they taught children English grammar inductively using a set of strategies that could make grammar points comprehensible to children, e.g., through demonstrations, contextual examples involving children doing authentic activities in using the targeted grammar points. The analysis of participants' course books (Table 8.2, Chapter 8) noted that all learning activities (e.g., Table 9.4 above) provided students with inductive teaching of grammar. These activities contained grammatical items presented through different tasks, e.g., making short dialogues, reading short texts, performing question and answers, doing contextual language games, and so forth. The course books and the 11 lessons observed did not teach rules of the English grammar explicitly.

The theme "teaching grammar inductively" is another approach of the participants related to the EFL teaching knowledge that they used in their practice. Similar to themes discussed previously, it reflects participants' pedagogical content knowledge of EFL teaching, which amalgamates knowledge of language and curriculum goals, knowledge of children and specific strategies for presenting language form to primary school students.

The strategies for teaching grammar to young students in the field of foreign language has been long debated. Some language experts supported the exclusion of grammar teaching (Prabhu, 1987), while others argued for the explicit teaching of grammar (Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Nassaji, 2000). Research has verified the value of focusing on form instruction (Lightbown, 1991; White, 1991). On the other hand, some experts have argued against combining form-focused teaching with communicative activities believing these are separate approaches; they believe that turning learners' mind to form during meaning-making can result in a negative impact (Lightbown, 1998; Lessow-Hurley, 2009). However, many contemporary language experts have argued against this separation, because form should not be taught in isolation. Language learning requires context (Larsen-Freeman, 2014). Students "pay more attention to target forms, and the forms become more memorable, if students learn them in context" (Nassaji, 2000, p. 245). This stance is similar to the one the participants discussed above. They seemed to believe in the importance of grammar but the way to teach it

should be appropriate to children's experience and characteristics. Therefore, they attempted to teach grammar meaningfully through contextual "structured input" activities (Lee & VanPattern, 2003). Structured input is a language teaching strategy that directs students' awareness to the target language through a diversity of arranged inputs during the learning process. The concept of such activities is based on a view of how students encode language form through meaningful comprehensible contexts (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011; Larsen-Freeman, 2014).

9.2.7 Incorporating cultural values into EFL learning

Teachers' ability to incorporate cultural values into classroom teaching is an important element of teaching knowledge to achieve meaningful education for diverse learners (Banks et al., 2005). In the current study, four of the participants articulated their views about the importance of integrating cultural values into EFL teaching syllabi and learning materials to preserve and promote important cultural values of Indonesia. T5-S3 commented:

We integrate basic Islamic values such as honesty, peace, cleanliness, discipline, environmental awareness, mutual cooperation and many more into our EFL learning materials. Such values are included in the Indonesian national identities (T5-S3, personal communication, April 2, 2012).

Similarly, T4-S3 stated:

One of the important advantages of an integrated Islamic school is that it can integrate Islamic values into the school syllabus. If I want to teach Islamic clothes in English, I can include the role of clothing in the Islamic tradition while referring to some relevant verses of the Quran or the traditions of the Prophet. So I can teach children English and verses and the traditions of the Prophet. This is important to pass on Islamic values to a young generation (T4-S3, personal communication, April 2, 2012).

Likewise, T7-S5 commented on integrating Islamic values into syllabus as follows:

We develop our own EFL syllabus that suits the school's vision and goals; one of these is to promote Islamic traditions through all subject matter including English. The EFL syllabus should incorporate the school vision and mission; and children's needs and interests (T7-S5, personal communication, April 7, 2012).

The theme “incorporating cultural values into EFL learning” was substantiated during classroom observations. All classes were observed to begin their EFL lessons with religious prayers translated from Arabic into the English version. The participants and all students recited this prayer together before EFL lessons. The aim of the prayers seemed to establish a belief in children that knowledge is important for living. Through learning prayers, the participants guided children to pray to be endowed with knowledge useful for their lives.

In the Indonesian context, the importance of incorporating cultural values into EFL lessons was discussed by Lie (2007). Lie (2007) believed that the development of EFL teaching materials and activities in Indonesia need to consider the diversity of Indonesian students and values to support cultural development and to preserve the endangered traditions of Indonesia across the country. For this reason, Lie (2007) conducted a study, in which she examined a variety of English course books that were used by EFL teachers throughout Indonesia. She found that most of the course books for secondary students did not reflect the important values of the Indonesian culture. She argued that the incorporation Indonesian culture into English lessons could increase the authenticity of the learning materials. In agreement with Lie (2007), Zein (2012) suggested that the LPTKs that offer the EFL teacher education programs in Indonesia need to provide prospective EFL teachers with the awareness of cultural values that need to be incorporated into EFL teaching materials. The view of the participants described above contradicts Lie’s findings but support Lies’ and Zein’s idea about promoting cultural values in EFL teaching in Indonesia.

9.2.8 Three stages of teaching

Interviews and classroom observations revealed that all participants divided their classroom practice into three stages: *pre-activity*, *core-activity* and *post-activity* as described in Figure 9.1. The theme “three stages of teaching” was discussed during the interviews and was substantiated during the classroom observations.

T6-S4 stated “My practice consists of three stages: pre-activities, core activities, and post activities” (T6-S4, personal communication, March 3, 2012). Other participants such as T12-S8 described, “I always divide my teaching into three stages” (T12-S8, personal communication, April 16, 2012).

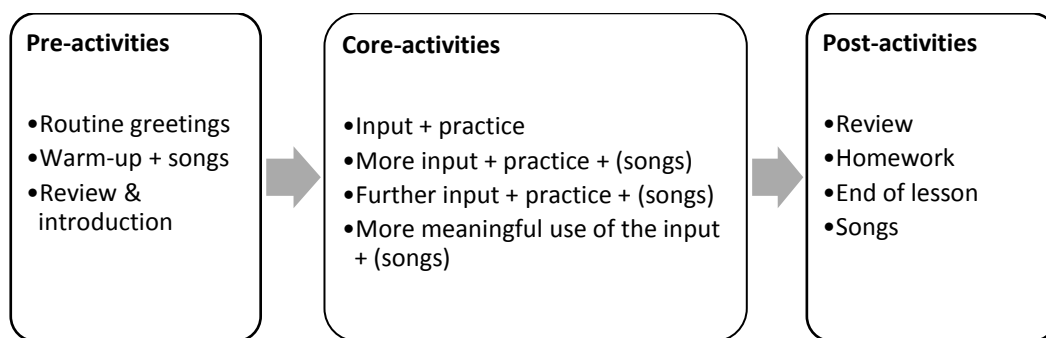


Figure 9.1 Stages of Participants' Lesson Presentation

Note. Songs in brackets are optional

Similarly, T2-S2 described her practice as follows:

In pre-learning activities, we usually sing a song and review vocabulary of the last lesson, and brainstorming about the materials. In core-activities, we use the activities relevant and interesting to children compiled from resources such as the Internet plus those in the course-book. Our English course-book contains a lot of oral language activities. In this school, children are encouraged to use English (in pairs or in groups) talking about topics that will facilitate them to speak or use English for everyday communication. We create materials linking to the students' course-book; we also use a great number of materials and activities downloaded from the Internet. In post-activities, children' progress is evaluated focusing on their oral competence development (T2-S2, personal communication, April 9, 2012).

The classroom observations showed that all EFL lessons had a clear beginning phase, pre-activity; a substantial middle phase, core-activities; and a brief ending phase, post-activity. The chronological order of activities in each stage as shown in the boxes above was repeated in all participants' classes. In the pre-activity, a lesson was most often typified by formulaic routine greetings from the teacher to the whole class followed by some warming up activities composed of daily exchanges, routine questions, a game or total physical response (TPR) activity to prepare children to hear and speak English. This stage could also include a review of the previous lesson linked to the new lesson. It could also include questions and answers as well as questions used to elicit conversation using the new language inputs and functions the participants intended to teach. This section could also show examples of what children would learn in this lesson.

The core-activity was the central part of the participants' teaching; it consisted of one to three cycles of new language input and practice in which the participants broke down the learning tasks into smaller steps, often leading to a stage of personalisation – opportunities for children to use what they have learned, however limited, to express things that were more personal and meaningful. During this stage the participants included specific activities they had planned and attached handouts related to them. The participants included up to five practice activities for lower graders and nine activities for upper graders, sequencing them from the most to the least structured, slowly giving children more independence. During the last stage of the core-activity, participants encouraged children to experiment with the new language, for example to discuss things about themselves, their activities or particular topic using their own information but focusing on the target language that was taught in the presentation in the previous activities. The participants included in their plans what they would ask children to do and how they monitored children's progress, encouraged and provided feedback as needed in their use of the target language. The songs in brackets were optional. Some participants sang a song with students in between activities, but others only sang one song at each stage.

The nature of the participants' core activity was similar to ESA (Harmer, 2010) as described in Figure 4.8 in Chapter 4. All participants divided their core activities into three stages: "Engage", "Study" and "Activate" as proposed by Harmer (2010, p. 51). ESA is a blend of ideas and elements of principles of language teaching such as the Audiolingual Method, CLT, and the Genre-Based Approach. ESA recognises the value of language exposure through comprehensible input as proposed by Krashen (1985a) while believing that explicit exposure to language forms is useful in facilitating language learning as discussed by many experts such as White (1991), and Lightbown and Spada (2013). In addition to believing in comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985b), form; and the students' need for language exposure (Cameron, 2007), this approach considers the importance of learning motivation (Dörnyei, 2001), opportunity for language use, and various interests of students (Harmer, 2010).

The "Engage" stage established a context in which the new language is understood and used by students as they started to instinctively build their understanding of the new input (Harmer, 2010). Students engaged with the new language through demonstration, songs, or games. Participants reported that the most engaging teaching had the following features: "meaningful, memorable and realistic

examples; logical connection; relevant context; clear models; sufficient meaningful repetition; briefness and recycling” (Brumfit et al., 2003, p. 169).

The “Study” stage was split into two sections, controlled and free practices. In the controlled practice, children were encouraged to undertake mechanical production, repeating the target language (Harmer, 2010). The element of grammar was included in this section, presented inductively through a variety of practices that were engaging and meaningful (Harmer, 2010). In the freer practice stage, children decided how the target element was used and could be required to manipulate the form being studied.

The “Activate” stage had children use the target element of language as freely and communicatively as they could (Harmer, 2010). At this stage children seemed to be encouraged to use all and any language form which was appropriate for a given situation or topic. During the activate stage, the participants seemed to direct children towards promoting a considerable degree of confidence and motivation. T3-S2 stated:

So the first job of the EFL teacher in primary schools is to build up and maintain the children’s confidence and motivation to use the target language. An effective way to do this, is to engage children in doing meaningful activities; engage them in free practice that talks about topics they are interested in, for example international soccer games as most of them love soccer (T3-S2, personal communication, April 19, 2012).

The participants seemed to make the language practice challenging to children, but still within their reach. Moreover, T3-S2 said:

So, we EFL teachers need to promote their motivation to speak English by any means. The learning process during practice is challenging to them. But if we only follow activities from the textbooks, they get bored quickly and the learning becomes dull. Therefore, I need to encourage them to talk in English, for example, to discuss light, challenging topics within their prior knowledge (T3-S2, personal communication, April 19, 2012).

Classroom observations showed that the participants made a smooth transition from the engagement to activation stage by involving children in individual practice, pair-work or group-work. As such, the practice moved towards production. In short, in the activation stage, the participants let children use the language input that they had

learned as freely as possible. The participants created a situation requiring the language that was introduced in the previous stages. Such a situation resulted in the students “producing” more personalised language. Some examples of effective activating activities that the participants used included situational discussions, problem-solving, narratives, descriptions, quizzes and games.

The post-activity of a lesson was signalled by a review of work covered, homework assignments and/or an informal assessment of children’s learning from the lesson. Before assigning homework or giving a small assessment activity, participants discussed or recapped with children what they had learned from the lesson. In some lessons observed, this would be followed by a game that used the new language item. All of the participants observed closed their lessons with an enjoyable activity such as singing a song involving children in physical activity.

A fundamental reason behind these three stages of teaching is likely to be the regulation of the Indonesian Minister of Education number 41/2007 organising the process standards of teaching in primary and secondary educational levels in Indonesia (Mendiknas, 2007b). In this regulation, it is mandated that the instructional process taking place in classrooms should be divided into three stages: pre-learning activity, core-learning activity, and post-learning activity (Mendiknas, 2007b). This procedure applies to the teaching of all subject matters including English (Mendiknas, 2008). Thus, all EFL teachers should abide by these steps in their practice in presenting new language input to their students. Regarding the three stages of pedagogy, the government encouraged primary schools teachers to establish monthly KKG workshops (see also Chapter 8) to improve their teaching skills such as in developing syllabus, making lesson plans and creating engaging learning activities for students (Mendikbud, 2010b; Mendiknas, 2008).

The three stages of teaching approach is similar to “Presentation, Practise, and Production” (3Ps) approach (Ur, 1996), which has been critiqued from by language experts such as Willis and Willis (1996), Skehan (1998) and White (1998) for being inconsistent with language acquisition research. The critiques argued that the 3Ps approach focused more on form rather than on meaning. Skehan (1998) contended that once students turn their minds towards form, it is difficult for them to pay attention to the message being communicated; they may think that the production of particular form

is a priority, and their achievement is evaluated in terms of the capacity to produce such form (Skehan, 1998).

In Indonesia, at the university level, EFL educators always encourage preservice EFL teachers to develop teaching approaches that suit students in particular contexts. For this purpose, the secondary EFL teacher program through TEFL courses provide general theories of EFL teaching knowledge or approaches to language teaching that encourage flexibility for EFL teachers to develop themselves or interpret these theoretical approaches into practices that suit EFL learning goals and contexts. In other words, EFL teacher educators in Indonesia do not support only one approach such as 3Ps. It is timely, perhaps, for the government policy which emphasises the use of the 3Ps approach to EFL teaching to be reviewed.

9.2.9 Immersing children in language use

The theme “immersing children in language use” describes the view of the participants enveloping children in language use through using a variety of learning activities in each lesson. The participants discussed this theme during the interviews and it was clearly evident during the classroom observations.

During classroom observations, it was observed that the participants in each lesson used four types of interactive language learning activities to immerse children in language practices in classrooms; they are “whole class-work”, “pair-work”, “group-work”, and “individual-work”. As seen in Table 9.5 below, all participants used whole class-work in their teaching in combination with pair-work, group-work and individual-work. Classroom observations noted that almost half of the classroom learning time (30 minutes) was used by the participants for whole-class-work activities with children. The type of whole-class-work used by these participants was different from the whole-class-work used in the traditional teaching in which the teacher transmits knowledge to learners, spending most of the class time instructing, questioning and/or explaining. Learners in such classes are seen as receiving knowledge through memorisation, repetition, and imitation.

Table 9.5 Types of Classroom Activities Observed

Participants observed	Whole Class	Pair Work	Group Work	Individual Work	Grades
T1-S1, observation, March 29, 2012	Yes	No	Yes	No	1
T2-S2, observation, April 19, 2012	Yes	Yes	No	No	4
T3-S2, observation, April 26, 2012	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	5
T4-S3, observation, April 25, 2012	Yes	No	Yes	No	3
T5-S3, observation, April 20, 2012	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	6
T6-S4, observation, April 12, 2012	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	4
T7-S5, observation, April 5, 2012	Yes	No	No	Yes	5
T8-S5, observation, April 13, 2012	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	4
T11-S7, observation, March 31, 2012	Yes	No	Yes	No	1
T12-S8, observation, April 23, 2012	Yes	No	No	Yes	1
T13-S9, observation, April 27, 2012	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	3

Note. T12-S8 used an ICT language program in her teaching.

The whole class-work observed in the this study indicated some features of communicative competence-based instruction, in which children participated more in whole-class activities with the teacher acting as a guide or as a facilitator (Richards & Rodgers, 2003; Savignon, 2002). Based on the classroom observation notes as shown in Table 9.4 above, the whole-classwork the participants used in their practices consisted of a variety of language activities. Types of the whole-class-work activities included teachers presenting and demonstrating language inputs in contextual situations (T-SS); questions and answers of various parties (QA); role plays (RP); games (competitions); TPR activities; individual/pair/group presentations (PT); action songs (AS); word recognition activities (WR); choral/group repetitions (CR) following the teacher or reading aloud together; writing activities (WA), spelling activities (SA); and listening to the teacher's dictation (LD). Thus, the whole-class-work in this study refers activities led by the participants, participated in by individual pupils, in pairs or groups, and the whole class; but attended to by the whole class, although different participants used a different combination of these activities. Most of these activities focused on encouraging children to use the target language for oral communication purposes. Table 9.6 below summarises types of the activities of the whole-class-work of the eleven classes observed.

Table 9.6 Types of Whole Class Activities in the Participants' Lessons

Participants	Types of Whole-Class Work Activities									
	T-SS	QA	RP	Games	TPR	PT	AS	WR	CR	LD
T1-S1	√	√	-	√	-	√		√	√	√
T2-S2	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
T3-S2	√	√		√	-	√	√	√	√	√
T4-S3	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
T5-S3	√	√	√	√	√	√		√	√	√
T6-S4	√	√	√	-	-	√	√	√	√	-
T7-S5	√	√	-	-	-	√		-	√	-
T8-S5	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	-
T11-S6	√	√		√	√		√	√	√	√
T12-S8	√	√	√	√	√		√	√	√	√
T13-S9	√	√	√	-	-	√	-	-	√	-

Note. √ indicates the use of the activity by the participants.

The theme “immersing children in language use” is consistent with the theme discussed in Section 8.3, Chapter 8 in which the participants stated that they used most of the teaching time to provide children with oral language practice to help them acquire communicative competence in a more natural way with activities as described in Figure 9.2 below. With various activities in the whole-class-work plus pair-work and/or group-work, all centring on communicative practice, it was possible that the participants would spend more than half of the teaching time (around 30 minutes) allocated to children acquiring oral communicative competence rather than other language skills such as reading and writing.

Classroom observations revealed that nine participants used either pair-work or group-work or both in their teaching (see Table 9.5). Five of the eleven participants observed used pair-work activity for maximising opportunities for children to practise what was taught following the teacher’s modelling. At the surface level, it seemed that children were simply required to repeat what was demonstrated, but at the deeper level, the activity involved a cognitive transformation of knowledge and skills from understanding of new language input to production – a cognitively demanding task for a language learner to experience using another language to express meaning. It involved developing both concepts of knowledge and skills of the new language and ways of interaction (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011).

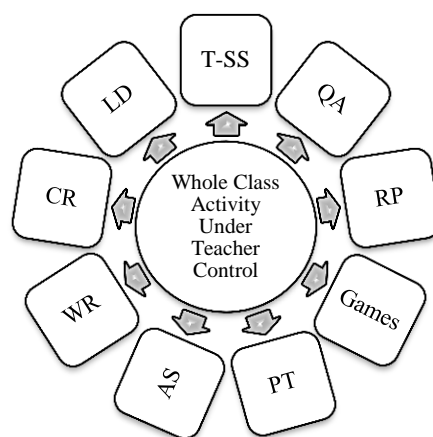


Figure 9.2 Interactions in Whole Class Activities

Note. QA (question and answer); RP (role plays); TPR (total physical responses); activities; PT (individual/pair/group presentations); AS (action songs); WR (word recognition activities); CR (choral/group repetitions); WA (writing activities); SA (spelling activities); and LD (listening to the teacher's dictation)

In addition to pair-work activity, four participants also employed group-work. A common group-work task observed was asking children to create simple dialogues as part of the preparation of a role play such as a borrowing activity. Other activities were a collaborative writing task based on a given picture; practising a dialogue following the teacher's modelling; and walking around the classroom interviewing peers about certain topics. Observations highlighted that in the group-work tasks, there was more space for children to be creative, interactive, and cooperative compared with those in pair-work (Larsen-Freeman, 2014).

Some participants had already arranged their physical classroom settings for children to work in groups such as T4-S3, T5-S3 and T1-S1, however, T11-S7 also utilised group-work particularly when she played a guessing game with children although she always had children sit in lines and rows. T2-S2, T3-S2, T6-S4, T8-S5 and T13-S9 utilised pair-work rather than group-work as their classroom settings were always setup for this kind of activity. Classroom observations revealed that seating arrangements seemed to affect to a great extent how the participants organised classroom activities and the patterns of classroom interaction.

This theme is relevant to kinds of language activities discussed in the EFL teaching literature. Research has shown that students participating in pair-work and group-work are much more active because they are engaged in conversations with their peers exchanging information, practising new forms more than just listening to their

teacher explaining (Gardner, 1982). Such activities benefit children in several ways, for example, they increase the opportunities for children to speak English in the classroom (Gardner, 1985), and therefore, pair-work and group-work are important activities for children in learning EFL (Gonzalez, 2000). This is important for Indonesian schools as EFL lessons usually only take place once or twice a week.

The theme “immersing children in language use” is also relevant to children’s characteristics. Vygotsky (1997) argued that while students are interacting with one and another (such as in pair-work or group-work) they are constructing new knowledge, learning new information and concepts, and improving their cognitive capacity. It also has been argued that primary school students enjoy team work activities such as games, which only can be done in groups (DeHart et al., 2004; McKay, 2006). Research has shown that peers teach children quite effectively, thus a peer-group is an important developmental setting for children; peers provide unique learning experiences; and peers challenge children to develop interaction language skills (DeHart et al., 2004). Thus, both pair-work and group work are central to EFL classroom teaching as they provide learners with the opportunity to work with peers collaboratively rather than individually, and most importantly more capable learners may work with the ones who find it challenging to accomplish the task on their own.

Brumfit et al. (2003) also asserted that both pair-work and group-work activities are the most effective strategies of classroom EFL teaching to integrate aspects of communicative learning and everyday social interactions in an anxiety free atmosphere. Furthermore, such activities promote communication practice among language learners. Nunan (1992) argued that group and pair work used for classroom language activities originated from cooperative learning theory. Lightbown and Spada (2013) argued, “learning language in group work activities is filled with questions and responses and many more occasions where learners take the initiative to speak spontaneously” (p.124); “Group work motivates the students to use the target language for different purposes such as disagreeing, requesting, and clarifying” (p.124). Lightbown and Spada (2013) moreover pointed out that pair and group activities are integral to L2/FL teaching as “the focus not only on the understanding of the structural elements of the target language, but also on the role of the social interaction and language use in learning the language” (p. 124). Hence, many language experts have emphasised the value of such activities in enhancing language learners’ confidence and their self-esteem.

9.2.10 Summary

This section has addressed several themes related to participants' views of EFL teaching knowledge in designing EFL syllabus, and preparing EFL learning materials and activities appropriate for helping children learn English effectively. Interviews and classroom observations revealed that the participants seemed to centre their practice on children's needs, interests and experience. Their practice, to great extent, seemed to be related to their views of children, views of curriculum goals, views of strategies for teaching language to children as outlined in Chapter 4. They blended these views to form a set of pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) to teach primary school students English in a more centred-child approach.

In the current study, participants' views and practices as analysed through their words and transcriptions of classroom teaching as well as their teaching documents differed from research evidence described in previous research as addressed in Chapter 2. For example, a study by Astika (1996) revealed that EFL teaching in primary schools was teacher-centred; more than half of the learning hour was taken by teachers to explain the lesson, to ask questions, to give instructions and drills. Similarly, Agustina, Rahayu, and Murti (1997) revealed that EFL teachers in primary schools did not use English during the class hours; and language skills were presented separately as in the traditional teaching. Febriyanthi (2004) also reported that EFL teachers in primary schools were not creative; their teaching procedure followed the list of activities as presented in the course books; no attempt was made to adapt the activities in the course books. Finally, Suyanto (2004) reported that EFL practice in primary schools was too similar to that at the secondary level in which EFL teachers followed the methodology of the course books, which emphasised reading skills and grammar analysis to help students pass the national exam. In addition many teaching materials in these course books did not match children's needs, interests and experience. In conclusion, although secondary-trained EFL teachers participated in the current study were not specifically trained for teaching English to children of primary school age, they seemed to have acquired strong PCK that enabled them to teach EFL to children in classrooms in a more child-centred way. However, the participants of the current study, as explained in the methodology chapter, were selected by the authority from schools that were ranked "A" according to the Indonesian standard. Other EFL teachers working in lower ranking schools may practise differently.

9.3 Developing Positive Teacher-Child Relationships

The next three themes are concerned with the views of the participants about developing positive relationships with children in order to create a motivating classroom atmosphere to encourage them in EFL learning. All participants believed that a warm relationship between the teacher and children was central to effective EFL teaching in primary schools. The three themes emerged from the interviews and were also substantiated during the classroom observations.

9.3.1 Becoming another parent to children

The theme “becoming another parent to children” describes the view of the participants about the importance of a warm relationship between the teacher and their students. Interviews revealed that all of the participants aimed to develop a warm relationship with children using a variety of approaches. One of these that they stated was that they took care of students as they took care of their own children.

T2-S2 stated, “at this school, besides being a teacher, I am also another parent to children” (T2-S2, personal communication, April 9, 2012); T6-S4 stated, “I help children like I help my own children, I am just like another parent to them” (T6-S4, personal communication, March 3, 2012); T12-S8 stated, “When relationship between an EFL teacher and students is like parents to their children, primary school students will enjoy EFL learning, and the classroom teaching will run successfully” (T12-S8, personal communication, April 16, 2012). T9-S6 discussed her friendship with primary school students almost everywhere in responses to the interview. The following excerpt describes her emotional relationship with children.

I am their teacher and another parent to them. I am here for them to complain, to share emotions and feelings. I listen to them as I listen to my own children. I give them a hug. If I meet them a public place for example, they will come to me and kiss my hands, and sometimes children want more than just kissing hands; they want me to touch their heads and hug them. When I arrive at school on Monday morning, they will run to me and say, “Teacher, I miss you so much”. They say it to me only after one day off. This kind of relationship is very important to primary school students. We make this school a home for them, so they can learn things conveniently (T9-S6, personal communication, April 16, 2012).

The finding was also substantiated in the classroom practices of the participants. All of the eleven teachers observed showed an affectionate relationship with their students. The affectionate relationship was clearly visible during the teaching process. All spoke to their students with great tenderness. The classroom atmosphere looked very comfortable and harmonious. Teachers paid careful attention to each student. Teachers addressed their students using a tone of sympathy and enjoyment. Students acted very respectfully towards their teachers. All students shook hands with their teachers and kissed their teachers' hands before leaving the room to move to other teachers.

Several studies that discussed the importance of a positive warm relationship between the teacher and students were reviewed in Chapter 4. It seemed that teacher-child relationships in this study was related to the Indonesian cultural values, for example, students kissed their teachers' hands before they leaved the classroom. In Indonesia to kiss parents' hands before leaving the house is an important practice in the family. This value is practised at schools as in Indonesia a teacher is viewed as another parent to students. This view could be rooted in the Islamic tradition, which is the religion of the majority of Indonesian people.

As discussed in Chapter 2, the philosophy of the Indonesian educational system is influenced by Islamic norms and traditions. In Islam, a child has three parents; the first who begot him/her, the second who fostered him/her, and the third who educated him/her (the teacher), and the last is the best of all (Ghazali, 1993). Thus, the teacher needs to treat students as his/her own children. The norm not only applies to teachers but also to children as students; students should respect their teachers as they do to their own parents. Such a norm is an important belief in the state philosophy, Pancasila (Salam, 1998).

9.3.2 Emotionally engaging children

The theme "emotionally engaging children" is related to the one discussed above. The theme describes the view of the participants regarding the positive effect of a warm relationship between the participants and their students. As discussed in section 9.3.1, the participants stated that a positive relationship between the teacher and children is central to successful EFL teaching in primary schools because such a relationship "opens the hearts" of students to study EFL lessons effectively. T2-S2 stated "If the teacher-child relationship is positive, children will be happy and they will

enjoy every EFL lesson, ‘the eyes of their hearts’ will open to learn; if their hearts are open, they will learn any lesson effectively’. Similarly, T9-S6 expressed, “The warm relationship between me and the children makes them happy so that their ‘hearts are open’ to learn EFL with me” (T9-S6, personal communication, April 16, 2012). Finally, T10-S6 stated as follows:

When they are happy with us because there is a close relationship between us and them, they will greet us before we greet them. If this sign is visible, it means we have won “their hearts” which is the key to a success in teaching; they will listen to us attentively in the classroom, and EFL learning will run smoothly (T10-S6, personal communication, April 17, 2012).

Specific research investigating a teacher-child relationship in the field of EFL teaching in primary schools is rare; however, there are several relevant research studies in teaching general subjects. As discussed in Chapter 4, several studies revealed that a positive teacher-child relationship is a key resource for children (e.g., Jerome et al., 2009); a warm teacher-child relationship plays a significant role in children’s learning (Jerome et al., 2009; Ostrosky & Jung, 2013); it contributes to excellent achievement and children’s positive interactions in schools (see Birch & Ladd, 1997; Jerome et al., 2009; Ostrosky & Jung, 2013). The teacher–child closeness predicts positive work habits and fewer internalised and externalised problems in schools (Baker, 2006; Birch & Ladd, 1997). Further, positive teacher-child relationships play a significant role in the advancement of children’s second language competency in primary schools (Pianta, 1999). A more recent study by O’Connor and McCartney (2007) suggested that an excellent teacher–child relationship promotes children’s academic achievement.

9.3.3 Acting like an actor

The theme “acting like an actor” describes the view of the participants to gain students’ attention required for successful EFL teaching. The theme emerged from interviews and was substantiated in classroom practices. T10-S6 commented that EFL teachers in primary schools should think and act like an actor. Actors always think and do something interesting to attract the attention of their audience; in the same way, EFL teachers of primary schools always need to be creative and think about how to gain full attention of students and EFL learning takes place effectively. T10-S6 commented as follows:

One of the important things is that EFL teachers of primary schools should be able to act for children just like an actor act for the audience ... the teacher is an actor; he/she has to be innovative and creative in presenting himself as a fun personality in front of children in the classroom. We have to act like an actor, for example, I have to act in front of the class to draw their attention to me and then to the lesson so that I can make sure that they are learning something (T10-S6, personal communication, April 17, 2012).

Table 9.6 Actions Participants Used to Attract Children’s Attention

Participants Observed	Types of Actions
(T1-S1, observation, March 29, 2012)	clapping hands
(T2-S2, observation, April 19, 2012)	Singing, pantomime, counting backwards
(T3-S2, observation, April 26, 2012)	Singing and clapping hands
(T4-S3, observation, April 25, 2012)	Singing, dancing, and counting backwards
(T5-S3, observation, April 20, 2012)	clapping hands
(T6-S4, observation, April 12, 2012)	Singing, dancing and counting backwards
(T7-S5, observation, April 5, 2012)	clapping hands and counting backwards
(T8-S5, observation, April 13, 2012)	Singing, calling children’s names with comical intonation
(T11-S7, observation, March 31, 2012)	Singing, pointing to the mouth, counting backwards, pantomime
(T12-S8, observation, April 23, 2012)	Singing, dancing, counting backwards and clapping hands
(T13-S9, observation, April 27, 2012)	Singing and clapping hands

In the interviews, the theme “acting like an actor” was only discussed by one of the participants, but it was noted in classroom practices. Many participants did act like an actor, to some extent, to please students or to gain their full attention, particularly at the beginning of the lesson or at the transition of an activity to another activity. It was noted that the participants often used body language such as pointing at their mouths to stop children from talking or from doing unexpected things; calling children’s names with a comical intonation; counting backwards to warn children to stop doing tasks, particularly during games; drawing in the air for children to guess things or words; and pantomime. Table 9.6 above provides kinds of physical actions the observed participants normally used to draw students’ attention during the lessons.

The theme “acting like an actor” was similar to a teaching strategy detailed by Tauber and Mester (2007) and discussed in the literature review. These authors argued that teaching is acting; they believed that when teachers are in the classroom they take

on a different sense of management and enthusiasm; it is important to acknowledge this change in themselves (Tauber & Mester, 2007). They argued that teachers and performers share a few similar features such as entertaining, meaningful, stimulating, and enlightening. Like performers, effective teachers always use actions such as physical movements and interactions, props and visuals, their senses of humour, and surprises to achieve their purposes (Tauber & Mester, 2007). In this study, it was revealed that all of the observed participants used actions that could interest children to attract their attention, particularly when they needed students to listen to them to understand important instructions for doing activities such as games or competitions.

9.3.4 Summary

In summary, the secondary-trained EFL teachers who participated in this study seemed to have established a warm positive relationship with their students and showed that they loved them and were interested in them as human beings. They seemed to be sincere, friendly, approachable, curious, caring and humorous with their students. Such associated characteristics led them to be respected by the children. Their statements above indicated that they seemed to believe that a warm relationship with children was central to the success of EFL teaching program in primary schools. All of the participants prioritised this aspect to support their teaching strategies. Interviews and classroom observations showed that they seemed to love their students as they love their own children, and children too seemed to love them as they love their own parents. Research studies showed that teachers with such qualities will be keen to put aside their time after school and offer assistance to children or parents who require them (Black & Howard-Jones, 2000). They will take part in school-wide committees and activities, and they will show a strong commitment to achieve the school goals (Stronge, 2007; and Celik, Saritas & Catalbas, 2013).

9.4 Assessing Children's Progress

This section describes the view of the participants concerning their approach to assessing children's progress in EFL learning. Data related to this section are derived from interviews and classroom observations. Interviews revealed that all participants used formative and summative assessment to collect information on children's language learning progress. However, only seven of the eleven participants observed were seen to conduct assessment activities during the observations.

9.4.1 Using formative and summative assessment

This theme describes general assessment strategies that the participants used to assess children's progress in learning EFL. The following are participants' comments related to this theme.

T1-S1 stated, "I observe children when they are doing language activities in every lesson. By so doing, I can see who is making progress in using the target language. I also administer written tests, midterm and end of semester" (T1-S1, personal communication, March 29, 2012). Similarly, other participants such as T6-S4 stated as follows:

I give children tasks at the end of every lesson that can inform the progress they make every week. I also administer a formative test after completing a topic; and then we have midterm and end of semester tests. Children's scores taken from weekly progress tests, midterm test, and end of semester tests are taken into account their final grades (T6-S4, personal communication, March 3, 2012).

T10-S6 stated, "I use formative tests to assess children's progress using both oral and written tasks after they complete a topic. The components assessed include listening-speaking and reading-writing, and vocabulary" (T10-S6, personal communication, April 17, 2012).

The theme "using formative and summative assessment" is relevant to EFL teaching literature discussed in Chapter 4. Formative assessment to assess children's progress in learning EFL has been widely used in primary schools as it is viewed appropriate for young language learners' characteristics. Formative assessment provides ongoing feedback about children's progress and the effectiveness of instruction (O'Neil, 1992); it helps teachers calibrate their teaching in order to address individual difference. Communicative competence-based methodology emphasises formative assessment "with more use of descriptive records of learner development in language and learning which [track] language development along with other curricular abilities" (Rea-Dickins & Rixon, 1997, p. 151). Most importantly, formative assessment reduces the level of anxiety caused by an emphasis on linguistic accuracy and increases children's confidence (Shaaban, 2001).

Other participants used an integrated assessment technique. For example, T5-S3 commented:

I use two strategies to assess children's progress. First, I use a classwork observation "pro forma" to record the individual progress a child makes in acquiring oral and written language when they are doing lesson activities. Second, I also use written tests; there are formative tasks (at the end of the lesson) and summative tests such as midterm and end of semester tests. So I am integrating spoken and written language tests to assess children's progress in EFL learning (T5-S3, personal communication, April 2, 2012).

T8-S5 commented as follows:

I use two strategies, observation and written tasks to assess children's progress in learning EFL. Observation is used to assess children's progress in listening-speaking; I assess their oral language progress when they are doing language activities during the free practice. A written task is to measure children's progress in reading-writing. I give them tasks when they complete one topic. Besides, I also administer summative tests using samples of the exercises in the student's course-book. I also use a dictation in which I read aloud words, phrases or short sentences, and children copy them in their workbooks (T8-S5, personal communication, April 7, 2012).

Observations revealed that the participants used group-work or individual-work strategies in their assessment. The kinds of assessment task varied as seen in Table 9.7 below. Three participants emphasised oral competence (T2-S2, T4-S3, T8-S5), other participants emphasised both oral and written production (T1-S1, T3-S2, T5-S3, and T6-S4).

The above theme is relevant to a strategy of language assessment proposed by CLT advocates in order to assess students' progress in the target language noted in Chapter 4. Many language experts have argued that assessing language skills separately may be justified for assessment purposes, but often it does not reflect real-life language use. All language skills are integrated in real life and rarely used in isolation. For this reason, language skills are better assessed in an integrated way. Assessing integrated skills allows for techniques that simulate real-life situations and monitor children's

ability to cope in situations where they have to draw on more than one language skills (Ioannou-Georgiou & Pavlou, 2004).

Table 9.7 Kinds of Assessment Activities Observed

Participants/ Observation Dates	Kinds of Assessment Activities Observed
T1-S1/March 29, 2012	Group-work (making English sentences from the learned vocabulary, first oral and then written)
T2-S2/April 19, 2012	Group-work (constructing a shape from the learned shapes and reporting)
T3-S2/April 26, 2012	Individual-work (constructing a simple text from a modelling text, and reporting)
T4-S3/April 25, 2012	Group-work (asking questions to other group based on the provided flashcards)
T5-S3/April 20, 2012	Individual-work (spelling competitions based on teachers' reading/dictation of a simple text)
T6-S4/April 12, 2012	Group-work (word games: constructing words from letters provided by the teacher on the board, oral and written)
T7-S5/April 5, 2012	No assessment was seen during the observation.
T8-S5/April 13, 2012	Individual-work (matching teacher's statements with appropriate pictures provided in the course book)
T11-S7/March 31, 2012	No assessment was seen during the observation.
T12-S8/April 23, 2012	No assessment was seen during the observation.
T13-S9/April 27, 2012	No assessment was seen during the observation.

McKay (2006) suggested that EFL teachers need to integrate the assessment of oral language (listening-speaking) and written language (reading-writing). Moreover, McKay (2006) suggested that the scope for oral language skills should cover different genres such as giving an account of what happened (recount); arguing two sides of an issue (debate); describing a significant incident (anecdote); telling someone how to do something (procedure); describing a person or a place (description); finding out information from someone (interview); maintaining relationships (casual conversation); working out what to do (planning) (McKay, 2006); and the scope of oral and written language ability test should cover organisational knowledge (grammatical knowledge, textual knowledge), pragmatic knowledge (functional knowledge and sociolinguistic knowledge) (McKay, 2006). In addition, to assessing the four language skills in the integrated method, McKay (2006) suggested assessment of children's vocabulary development, which can be done either in an embedded way during the assessment of reading-writing, or in a separate test. However, "since children are learning how to read for meaning", children's vocabulary assessment makes sense in the context of their reading (p. 231).

In the interviews, two participants (T3-S2 and T4-S3) emphasised oral skill assessment over written form. T3-S2 stated:

I believe oral competence determines children's progress as a whole in EFL learning. Thus, I prioritise oral competence in my assessment. I assess it by observing children doing final work or performance in speaking during the lesson. In addition, I also administer written tests, midterm and end of semester tests, but I consider their progress in oral competence is the key indicator of their progress. If they fail the written exams, then I will only report their grade based on their progress in oral competence. So to me a written exam is only secondary data of children's progress. Amazingly, I found that children who are good at oral language are also good at other written language skills (T3-S2, personal communication, April 19, 2012).

Another participant, T4-S3 stated similarly as follows:

In my opinion, language is spoken, so children's progress needs to demonstrate the ability to communicate in the spoken form rather than in the written form. So my assessment emphasises speaking skills. According to me, it is not quite right to assess children's progress only through written test (T4-S3, personal communication, April 2, 2012).

This belief is in line with a tenet of communicative competence theory discussed in Chapter 4, which views language learning as learning to use the target language for oral communication. For this reason Nunan (2009) stated "... that assessment should be matched to teaching; ... what is taught should be tested" (p.136). He further argued that communicative language teaching requires communicative language testing; "learners should be asked to perform an activity that simulates communicative use of the target language outside the testing situation" (p. 137). Therefore, the assessment of learners' achievement in acquiring the target language should be as relevant as possible to the language usage in real life situations. In other words, language assessments should be based largely on oral and aural tasks.

T3-S2 stated that children who were competent enough in spoken form would be also competent in other language skills such as reading and writing. This idea is discussed by McKay (2006) who stated that children's oral competence mirrors their writing skills. Therefore, it is important to put an emphasis on the assessment of oral

language of primary school students rather than their progress in written form. However, to assess speaking progress of children is always challenging. An oral test is time-consuming; it is less efficient compared to paper tests. Moreover, an oral language test requires clear descriptors that can appropriately distinguish the level of language proficiency of the test takers. It needs a number of reliable examiners to provide stable scoring, which often requires a great deal of practice. Therefore, as discussed in Chapter 4, in order to assess children's progress in EFL learning, multiple tools should be used. In order to do this, EFL teachers may use portfolio assessment, self-assessment, peer-assessment, role-play, take-home tasks, observation and so on (Ioannou-Georgiou & Pavlou, 2004).

Participants' various approaches to assessing children's language in this study may be influenced by the status of EFL teaching in primary schools. As explained in Chapter 1, EFL teaching in primary schools is a local content which is not included in the national examination. In other words, the exclusion of English in the national examination at the level of primary education may encourage EFL teachers to be more creative in their teaching including in deciding to choose approaches to assessment.

9.5 Summary

This chapter has discussed findings that addressed research sub-question five of the current study, "How do secondary-trained EFL teachers teach English to students of primary schools in classrooms?" Themes related to responses to this question emerged from the data gained through interviews and classroom observations. The data analyses revealed that the views of the study participants regarding EFL teaching knowledge reflected contemporary approaches to teach English to children. Their practice seemed to be influenced by their views of children and knowledge of content and curriculum goals as addressed in Chapter 8. Data analyses showed that the ways they developed EFL syllabi, lesson plans, learning materials and language activities to teach children the English language, to some extent, reflected a child-centred approach rather than a teacher-centred approach. Their views and practices centred on helping children acquire English as a foreign language for oral communication purposes. This finding differs from the findings reported in the previous EFL research both in primary and in secondary schools in Indonesia where EFL teaching focused on improving students' ability to understand written language and grammar to be successful on the national examination (Lie, 2007).

All of the participants taught English to primary school students using a variety of teaching strategies associated with communicative task-based methods. Their teaching activities engaged students in a variety of communicative tasks such as dialogues, games, singing songs, language competitions, completing short texts, listening to simple texts, or reading short texts, reporting, story-telling, and asking and answering questions.

Their teaching emphasised oral competence. They always encouraged primary students to use the language as much as they could in order to familiarise them with the language use. If children made errors in their practice, the participants would correct them, but they would not spend time discussing the reasons for the error or the underlying grammatical rules. At the upper grade level (grades 4, 5, 6) when introducing certain English sentence structures (such as the Present Continuous Tense and the Past Tense), some participants used the “focus on form” strategy, in which the teaching unit began with communicative tasks, which also involved the study of a written text. During the course of the task or later, specific grammatical points growing out of either the tasks or texts were focused on. The materials provided ready-made awareness-raising tasks or exercises that helped children to understand and master the target forms and meanings. After a limited amount of time spent on such focused study, children’s attention was drawn back to the content and communicative purpose of the original task.

All of the participants divided each of their EFL lessons into three stages: pre-learning, core-learning and post-learning stages. This approach is modification of the 3Ps method or ESA method rooted in the competence-based approach developed by language teaching experts such as Ur (1996), Harmer (2010) and others. Using this approach, the participants presented language input to primary students. However, as discussed in Chapter 4, this approach is not the only way to teach EFL to learners. In fact the approach has been criticised by few language experts such as Willis and Willis (1996), White (1998) and Skehan (1998) for being inconsistent with language acquisition research, arguing that the approach does not mirror how children learn language naturally.

The findings that described the views of the participants in the current study differed from research evidence discussed in previous studies as reported by researchers such as Astika (1996); Agustina, Rahayu, and Murti (1997); Febriyanthi (2004); and

Suyanto (2004). All of these researchers revealed that EFL teaching in primary schools was teacher-centred, and was too similar to that at the secondary level in which EFL teachers only followed the methodology of the course books. In contrast, the finding of the current study showed that all participants used various approaches to EFL teaching, regardless they were chosen from higher performing schools.

In addition, this chapter has addressed a number of key themes related to the views of the participants about classroom management that was based on a warm teacher-child relationship. This strategy was used by the participants to support their teaching strategies so that EFL teaching in classrooms could be undertaken productively. Finally, the chapter addressed participants' views about assessment strategies. All of the participants used multiple assessment methods combining formative and summative methods to assess children's progress in learning EFL. Some participants emphasised oral language assessment over written assessment as they believed that oral language competency mirrors the major components of language proficiency for oral communication purposes during primary schooling.

CHAPTER 10 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

10.1 Introduction

This chapter provides conclusions from this study including recommendations for EFL teacher education institutions, and identifies areas for future research. The current study has investigated the phenomenon of secondary-trained of EFL teachers teaching English in primary schools in Indonesia. The motivational factors that led these teachers to the EFL teaching profession and the EFL teaching knowledge they used to teach English to students of primary schools have been analysed thematically using an interpretive phenomenological approach. The analyses were based on the participants' accounts of their experiences collected through semi-structured interviews, classroom observations and artefacts related to their practice such as copies of their EFL syllabi, lesson plans, and course books. During data analyses, there were some themes, which emerged from both interviews and classroom observations. Such themes were presented and analysed with support from quotes of participants' words and evidence from classroom observations. In addition, there were also a few themes which emerged only from either interviews or observations, therefore, they were analysed based on the relevant source of research data, either interviews or evidence from classroom observations.

It is relevant to keep in mind that this research was a small scale study that was designed to provide an in-depth understanding of a small sample of participants, the thirteen secondary-trained EFL teachers involved in the teaching of English to students of primary school age. A more extensive study involving a larger number of secondary-trained EFL teachers teaching English to children in primary schools in Indonesia may not produce the same findings and conclusions. Regardless of these limitations, the findings and recommendations from the current study can form the basis for the development of EFL teacher education programs or EFL teacher professionalism and for future research.

10.2 Conclusions from the Study

In this section conclusions from the chapters that shared the results of the research are provided. They are organised around the overarching research questions, which were the basis for the study. As such, the conclusions are provided in three smaller sections: participants' motivational factors that led them to the EFL teaching and to work in primary schools; participants' views of children as language learners;

participants' views of content knowledge and curriculum goals; and participants' views of EFL teaching knowledge that they used in teaching English to children.

10.2.1 Participants' motivational factors that led them to the EFL teaching and to teach English in primary schools

In Chapter 6 the motivational factors of the participants to study a secondary EFL teacher education program or to become secondary-trained EFL teachers, and to work in primary schools instead of in secondary schools after completing the study program were discussed. The chapter addressed study's sub-research questions one and two, "What motivational factors led secondary-trained EFL teachers to enter the EFL teaching profession in Indonesia?" and "What motivational factors led the secondary-trained EFL teachers to work in primary schools?"

The data analyses revealed that the motivational factors that led the participants to the secondary EFL teacher education programs or in other words, to choose the EFL teaching profession were multifaceted. The motivational factors, which led participants to select secondary EFL teaching profession were interrelated with those that led them to work in primary schools instead of in secondary schools. The findings suggested that the motivational factors that led the participants to enter both the secondary EFL teaching profession and to teach English to children in primary schools tended to be extrinsic and altruistic rather than intrinsic. However, in some of the participants, these factors were mixed to form multifaceted motivational factors.

The extrinsic motivational factors that led the participants to the EFL teacher education program were related to their awareness of the increasing role of English language globally. These participants expressed the view that that English proficiency offers several benefits for those wanting to be a professional in this globalising world. They stated that individuals who speak English are better able to access job opportunities as they saw that newly graduated EFL teachers were able to begin a career immediately after they completed the secondary EFL teacher education program.

Before entering the secondary EFL teacher education program, the majority of the participants of the current study considered the teaching profession as a fallback career; and in addition some of them stated that their entering the EFL teacher education program was to please their parents. This motivational factor has been seen by researchers as altruistic (Kyriacou & Benmansour, 1999). The participants who initially

entered the EFL teaching as a fallback career or to please parents, linked their career path to Indonesian cultural values, such as Islamic tradition, the religion of the majority of people of Indonesia. They stated that their career has been written by God, and because of this belief they seemed to accept the EFL teaching profession wholeheartedly. Similarly, those who wanted to please their parents also related their career path to the Indonesian Islamic tradition, believing that to obey and to please parents as well as to take their advice was one of the noble behaviours, which would bring blessings to their lives; and perhaps because assisted by this belief, these participants' extrinsic motivation transformed into an intrinsic motivation after they entered the EFL teaching profession.

The finding of this study, in terms of motivational factors, does not support the outcomes of previous research that argued that people who select teaching as a fallback career are often associated with the low retention rate in the teaching profession. In contrast, in this study, those participants who entered the teaching profession as a fallback career stated that they wished to remain in the teaching profession until they reached retirement. In addition, this finding suggests that an individual's motivational factors to choose teaching may change after they enter the profession.

The motivational factors that led the participants to work in primary schools, instead of in secondary schools, were difficult to distinguish from motivational factors that led them to enter the secondary EFL teacher education programs. However, three major motivational factors revealed in the interviews were related to this topic. They included "a need for a quick job"; "liking to work with primary children"; and "needed by the school". The first motivational factor is extrinsic, the second is intrinsic, and the third factor can be classified as altruistic. Of these three factors, extrinsic factors dominated. Like those motivational factors that led these participants to enter the secondary EFL teacher education program, these factors were interacted with each other, meaning that one participant seemed to be influenced by more than one motivational factor in coming to teach English in primary schools rather than in secondary schools.

The idea of teaching as a fallback career received some confirmation from the study. Some participants of the study chose to undertake EFL teacher education programs due to their failure to enter targeted universities to study their desired programs. Perhaps, that is why it has become a common public perception in Indonesia

that teaching programs generally set lower entrance standards than other study programs such as technology, accounting or management. Such a perception may also arise because in Indonesia the university entrance test materials include tests of academic ability, basic thinking skills, (maths and language), science and social science, and the majority of study programs usually set higher entrance standards than that of EFL teacher education program (Rumongso, 2013). However, the opinion that only those with low scores enter teaching is debatable; this study found that many of the participants, even though they failed the entrance test to get into their desired study programs, had gained good results in secondary school. This finding may suggest that more needs to be done to make the public aware of the entrance characteristics of teachers.

10.2.2 Participants' views of students of primary schools as language learners

In Chapter 7, participants' views about students of primary schools and the implications of these views to EFL teaching in primary classrooms were discussed. The chapter addressed research question three of the current study, "How do secondary-trained EFL teachers view primary school students as language learners?" As shown in Table 10.1 below, the participants articulated several important characteristics of primary school age children during interviews with them. Two of the characteristics (lugu and respect for teachers) are related to Indonesian cultural values, particularly to Islamic views of children. The other six are related to participants' views of language teaching or EFL teaching more specifically.

Table 10.1 *Characteristics of Primary School Students Discussed by the Participants*

Primary school students:
are "lugu"
have a variety of interests
learn English from meaning and words, not from rules
need to feel happy to learn EFL effectively
are curious to learn English
are respectful for teachers
are active English users
have a short attention span

Some of the children's characteristics discussed by the participants above are consistent with the expected characteristics of a child's cognitive development as seen in Table 10.2 below. For example, the participants stated that "Children have a variety

of interests”, “Children are curious to learn English”, “Children are active English users”, “Children learn English from meaning and words, not from rules”, and “Children have a short attention span”. Some of the characteristics in Table 10.2 (such as “Children learn from direct experience”, “Children are more interested in the process rather in product”, “Children learn more by doing than listening”, “Children enjoy organised games”, “Children like action and humour” and, “Children think from hands-on practice”) were addressed by the participants implicitly when they described strategies for teaching children English. They stated that they taught children language inputs playfully, for example, through games, role-plays, action songs, and involving children in physical activities in using the language authentically in contexts.

Table 10.2 Characteristics of Children’s Cognitive Development

	Children of Lower Grades (1-3)	Children of Upper Grades (4-6)
Characteristics of Child Cognitive Development	Curious	Have an increased attention span
	Generalise from own experience	Eager to try new things (curious)
	More interested in the process than in the product	Have different interests
	Learning to sort and categorise	View things in absolutes
	Can handle only one operation at a time	Beginning to think symbolically
	Learn from direct experience	Able to remember and concentrate well
	Learn more by doing than by listening	Develop reasoning skills
	Enjoy organised games	Creative
	Like action stories and enjoy humours	May start reading novels
	Think from hands-on practice	Interested in facts and true stories
	Think from hands-on practice	

Note. Summarised from Table 4.3 in the literature review chapter

Similarly, in terms of the socio-emotional characteristics of primary school children, the participants were able to address a number of relevant characteristics as listed in Table 10.3 below. Some participants mentioned that children are sensitive and they need to feel happy to learn effectively. These are related to “egocentric” or “seeking for a sense of security”. Children are motivated to perform well is related to the theme “Children are curious to learn English”. That “children need guidance to stay on tasks” was also discussed. For example, T1-S1 stated that “Children are young learners; they need attention, care, guidance from the teacher to learn” (T1-S1, personal communication, March 29, 2012).

Children’s characteristics in terms of their physical development as listed in Table 10.4 below were not discussed by the participants in details. However, most

participants stated that they involved physical movements in their teaching (as discussed in Chapter 9) and all of them were observed to involve physical movements in their practices or learning activities that they provided for students. This could suggest that (although they did not discuss these physical characteristics in the interviews), it does not mean that they were not aware of such characteristics.

Table 10.3 Characteristics of Children’s Socio-Emotional Development

	Children of Lower Grades	Children of Upper Grades
Characteristics of Child Socio-emotional Development	Focus on self	Still need guidance to stay on tasks
	Able to have empathy	Prefer same sex groups
	Increasingly aware of peer opinions	Focus on rules and fairness
	Interested in other families and how they function	Loyal to a group or club
	Egocentric	Beginning to use reasoning skills
	Seek for a sense of security	Prefer to work cooperatively, not independently
	Motivated to perform well	Admire and copy older youth behaviours
	Need guidance to stay on tasks	Do not like being compared to others
	Sensitive to a failure and criticism	Beginning to express emotions by using words
	Recognise rules and rituals as important	Look for similarities between self and peers
	May act in order to avoid punishments	Still look to adults for approvals
	Can become discouraged easily	

Note. Summarised from Table 4.3 in the literature review chapter

All the children’s characteristics listed in the three Tables 10.2, 10.3, and 10.4, have implications for teaching. A child’s cognitive characteristics development informs teachers that they should plan activities that focus on the process more than the product; teachers should provide children with opportunities to use their senses to make things more concrete or allow them to explore their world through a variety of activities (DeHart, Sroufe, & Cooper, 2004). Such strategies were observed to a great extent in participants’ practices.

The characteristics related to children’s socio-emotional development inform teachers to provide primary school students with more positive encouragement rather than negative criticism; EFL teachers should provide children with activities in which everyone is viewed as a winner. Teachers also need to involve children in groups to give them a sense of belonging and security, and children need open discussion about fears (Curtain & Dahlberg, 2010).

Physical characteristics of children provide information for the teacher to provide primary school students with opportunities for active play, allowing them to move their bodies. Teachers need to aid children to practise their developing skills and advance them. Teachers also need to keep fine motor skill activities short because children tire quickly (Brumfit, 1991).

Table 10.4 Characteristics of Child’s Physical Development

	Children of Lower Grades	Children of Upper Grades
Characteristics of Child Physical development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Have better coordination skills Are growing in skills and abilities Enjoy testing muscle strength, skills, and coordination Like physical movements Feel tired quickly, but recovered rapidly 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Have boundless energy Increase in strength, balance and coordination Improve in small motor coordination Girls are maturing at a faster rate than boys.

Note. Summarised from Table 4.3, literature review chapter

This finding suggests that these participants were able to articulate many distinctive aspects of children; however, secondary-trained EFL teachers may require more specific knowledge about the development of primary school age children if they are to teach English to children at the primary level more successfully. It might be argued that these participants were highly motivated teachers of primary school children at good schools. Perhaps they understood children well; other secondary-trained EFL teachers may not. This finding may serve as the basis for further research on this area in order to improve the curriculum of EFL teacher education programs in Indonesia as well as to improve the efficacy of the EFL teaching program in primary schools.

10.2.3 Participants’ views of content knowledge and curriculum goals

Chapter 8 addressed the views of participants about the content knowledge and curriculum goals of EFL teaching in primary schools in which sub-research question four of the current study was addressed, “How do secondary-trained EFL teachers view content knowledge and the curriculum goals of EFL teaching in primary schools?” Interviews revealed that all participants stated that their content knowledge including grammar and vocabulary, and their language proficiency exceeded the level required by EFL teachers to teach children English in primary schools; they stated that they had learned an advanced level of linguistic knowledge (English grammar and vocabulary) and language proficiency during the secondary EFL teacher education programs in relevant LPTKs. This finding was substantiated by the classroom observation data that

showed the participants' ability to use the English as the language of instruction during the teaching process. This finding suggests that the content knowledge of the secondary-trained EFL teachers working in primary schools meet the competency standard for content knowledge required by EFL teachers to teach English effectively as a second or foreign language to students as proposed by Richards (2011).

This finding suggests that the value of setting high standards of language knowledge. It could be argued that teachers planning to teach English in primary schools might not need as high standards as for secondary. But these teachers without specialised pedagogical knowledge for primary children were able to teach in "A" graded schools. As noted earlier, while this study was not concerned with judging their effectiveness, they were satisfied teachers who enjoyed their work and recommended as examples for others.

The participants' views of the curriculum goals were relevant to the overall goal of the EFL teaching in primary schools as outlined in the Indonesian national curriculum in which the teaching of communicative competence of children is emphasised. Their views of curriculum goals were also aligned with the concept of curriculum proposed by educational experts such as Darling-Hammond, Bransford, et al., (2005). Their views of curriculum consisted of: formal curriculum (topics or concepts to be taught); "enacted curriculum" (activities, materials, and assignments that teachers create as well as the interactions with students); and "hidden curriculum" (the underlying goals and perceptions schools and teachers hold for students) (p. 170). Participants' views of the curriculum goals matched the views of EFL teaching as discussed by language experts such as Brumfit (1991), Roberts (1998), Tarone and Allwright (2005), McKay (2006), Cameron (2007), and Harmer (2010). In conclusion, all of the participants possessed sufficient EFL content knowledge and sufficient understanding of curriculum goals to be described as knowledgeable professionals in their fields despite not being formally trained for it. The results of this research may not be applicable or generalisable to primary school teachers in other regions in Indonesia as the nine schools where the participants taught were selected by the local authority; all of these schools were high performing schools with the accreditation "A" among primary schools in Jambi city, which suggests that they are a distinctive group. This finding, however, can be used as the basis for future research on content knowledge and understanding of the curriculum goals of EFL teachers of primary schools in other regions of Indonesia.

10.2.4 Participants' views of EFL teaching knowledge they used to teach primary school students English

The findings that addressed sub-research question five of the current study, “How do secondary-trained EFL teachers teach primary school students English?” were discussed in Chapter 9. The thirteen participants involved in the study described the way they approached EFL teaching to primary school students. The thirteen themes emerging from interviews and descriptions of classroom teaching described the practices of the participants.

The findings showed that the participants used contemporary language teaching strategies to teach children EFL. Their practices were influenced by their views of children, and their views of EFL curriculum goals that have been described above. The ways they enacted EFL syllabi, lesson plans, learning materials and language activities developed from their views of children's needs and interests. They focused on helping children learn elements of oral language competence. The findings indicated that the participants taught English to children using a variety of communicative language teaching strategies (e.g., games, songs, role-plays, interviewing, reporting, story-telling) to encourage children to complete various language tasks communicatively including making simple dialogues, completing sentences or short texts, listening to simple texts, reading short texts, and many more. Such strategies are supported by communicative language teaching theories in general and theme or task-based instruction of language teaching (Nunan, 2009) in particular, as discussed in the literature review. This finding differed from findings about EFL in primary schools reported in previous research in other regions of Indonesia which described that EFL practice in primary schools focused on teaching written language and grammar.

All participants divided their lessons into three stages: pre-learning, core-learning and post-learning. They had been instructed to use this approach as it was obligatory under the rule of professional teaching imposed in a regulation of the Indonesian Minister of Education number 41/2007 concerning the process standards for teaching at the primary and secondary educational levels (Mendiknas, 2007b). As has been noted in the literature, in the field of EFL teaching, this approach seemed to be a modification of the 3Ps approach to teaching English grammar rooted in a competence-based method developed by language teaching experts such as Ur (1996), and Harmer (2010). This approach is only one way of presenting language input to students.

Therefore, the government policy that obliges EFL teachers to use this approach only could impact on teachers' capacity for innovation in EFL teaching approaches in Indonesia.

In addition, in Chapter 9, a number of key themes related to the views of the participants concerning classroom management, which emphasised the importance of warm positive teacher-child relationships to enhance the efficacy of EFL learning in the classroom were discussed. The participants' discussion of this theme indicated that this view was connected to the Indonesian religious values, especially those Islam, which is the religion of the majority of Indonesian people. The participants believed that a warm positive teacher-child relationship is central to the success of EFL teaching in primary schools.

Finally, participants' views of assessment strategies were addressed. All participants used multiple assessment methods, a combination of formative and summative tests to assess children's progress in EFL learning. Some participants emphasised speaking skills rather than writing skills in their assessment as they believed that oral communicative competence is the ultimate goal EFL teaching programs in primary schools, and students' oral competence reflects the major component of language proficiency for oral communication purposes during primary schooling. This finding contradicts EFL practice at the secondary level, which emphasises reading skills and knowledge of grammar (Lie, 2007).

10.3 Recommendations for EFL Teaching and Future Research

This section provides recommendations for EFL teaching and for future research in Indonesia. The recommendations for EFL teaching include implications for EFL teacher recruitment and for policy changes in the EFL teacher education program. The recommendations for future research identify areas that need to be investigated to further research in relation to the results of this study.

10.3.1 Recommendations for EFL teaching

The findings on motivational factors of the current study suggest that not all prospective EFL teachers enrolling in the EFL teacher education program possess an initial intention of becoming EFL teachers, which may impact on their commitment to their teaching profession. Therefore, improved recruitment practices into EFL teacher education programs in Indonesia should consider the impact of motivational factors

during the recruitment process. Nevertheless, some participants in this study who had entered the EFL teacher education program, even though EFL teaching was not their first choice career, did change their motivation and commitment to the profession after further exposure to teaching practice. This signifies that initial thinking about being an EFL teacher may change over time, and it is for EFL teacher educators in LPTKs and the government to find strategies to ensure that pre-service teachers remain motivated to continue in their roles.

The government of Indonesia may consider employing motivated EFL teacher candidates with a preconceived commitment to EFL teaching and attracting these teachers with better conditions. An improved selection process in which prospective EFL teachers who have previously expressed their interests in such a role, would guarantee more suitable teachers. Further research would be required to identify reasons for leaving the profession. An attempt to systematically assess changes in motivational factors of prospective EFL teachers before, during and after a university study would challenge EFL teacher educators to analyse convincingly whether the training process does or does not transform motivational factors of EFL student teachers. EFL teacher educators also need to support prospective EFL teachers to guide them through the complex realities of becoming an EFL teacher.

The findings that described participants' motivational factors to work in primary schools rather in secondary schools may have direct implications for the EFL teacher education program in Indonesia. Many participants stated that they decided to work in primary schools after they understood the context of the EFL teaching profession at both levels. These findings suggest that there are prospective EFL teachers enrolling at the secondary EFL teacher education program who will want to specialise in teaching English to younger learners rather than secondary students. These findings suggest that motivational factors of prospective EFL teachers that influence them in making decisions about the level of education at which they want to work need to be identified before and after they complete the program. This will enable EFL teacher educators to design a better curriculum to prepare more qualified EFL teachers.

As has been noted above, the participants of the current study discussed several important characteristics of children in relation to primary school students. However, many of characteristics of child development that may have significant implications for effective EFL teaching in primary schools were not highlighted by the participants in

the interviews. Several participants stated that the most important knowledge that primary school teachers require, is the knowledge of children to enable them to help students learn English in primary schools. For example, T2-S2 stated, “EFL teachers must learn characteristics of primary school students so that they know the best way to help them learn” (T2-S2, personal communication, April 9, 2012). T4-S3 suggested, “Based on my experience, EFL teachers for primary schools must be creative and innovative; they must be specifically educated to teach primary school students, they cannot teach like secondary EFL teachers” (T4-S3, personal communication, April 2, 2012).

These findings suggest that the curriculum of EFL teacher education programs in Indonesia needs to provide prospective EFL teachers with sufficient knowledge of learners that will enable them to work effectively at the specific level of education in Indonesia. This may suggest redesigning the structure and contents of the curriculum of EFL teachers in Indonesia. Currently, the curriculum is governed by the national guidelines from the Directorate General of Higher Education of Indonesia, the Decision of the Minister of National Education of Republic of Indonesia Number 045/U/2002. As has been argued, the present curriculum of secondary EFL teacher education programs in Indonesia does not provide specific knowledge of learners and EFL teaching knowledge for prospective teachers that will enable them to work both in primary schools and secondary schools.

The course that provides the discussion of knowledge of learners in the curriculum of EFL teacher education, which is the basis of the EFL teaching knowledge, is only allocated two credits. The course is a general course, which is not specifically designed for teaching a second or foreign language. The course is taught by lecturers of a “Program Ilmu Kependidikan” (the School of Education) who may not be familiar with the specific knowledge required by prospective EFL teachers. It would be more effective if prospective EFL teachers were taught by EFL lecturers of the EFL teacher education program who understand general and specific EFL teaching knowledge, e.g., characteristics of language learners and their social development related to foreign language learning. Thus, this course needs to be redesigned in order to meet the need of prospective EFL teachers to teach English at different levels of education in Indonesia. In other words, prospective EFL teachers who choose to work at the secondary or primary level need to acquire relevant and specific knowledge of learners appropriate to their work with targeted students.

Similarly, the courses that deal with the EFL teaching knowledge included in the MKB group courses as discussed in Chapter 2 (including TEFL, EFL Assessment, EFL Curriculum, EFL Course Book Evaluation and Research in Language Teaching) also seem to need restructuring with sufficient credits. Contemporarily, these courses are designed for teaching English to secondary students and adult learners. As such, they have limited content or materials relevant to knowledge of EFL teaching required by prospective EFL teachers to teach English to young learners such as students of primary schools.

This finding may suggest that LPTKs in Indonesia may wish to offer a specific primary-trained EFL teacher education program for Indonesian primary schools, in addition to the secondary one. Such a program would allow prospective EFL teachers to learn appropriate and sufficient pedagogical knowledge to support teaching children English in primary schools. Although this study showed that the secondary-trained EFL teachers (as the research participants are) were able to work effectively with primary children, the teaching of English to young learners could be even more effective when carried out by the EFL teachers who are specifically prepared for this specific task, especially in areas where professional development programs are not available to support the ongoing learning of the teachers.

The need for establishing a specific course for teaching English to primary school students is supported by theories of teaching English to young learners as discussed in the literature. The characteristics of the knowledge base for teaching EFL to young learners are different from that for teaching English to secondary school students. The literature review has indicated that the three important elements that form the EFL teaching knowledge (knowledge of learners and their development in social contexts, content knowledge and curriculum goals, and strategies) for teaching English to primary school students are different from those required teaching secondary students. A thorough understanding of these areas of knowledge is required as it is central to successful EFL teaching in primary schools. Such a program would fit with the effective teaching framework proposed by Darling-Hammond and Bransford et al., (2005). Theoretically, the course for teaching English to primary school students should consist of several units such as “language awareness (basic concepts and terminology used in EFL teaching for describing form and meaning in language, language use, language skills and sub-skills; and language description and syllabus design for teaching EFL to young learners); the learner, the teacher and the teaching-learning context;

planning for effective teaching of young learners English; classroom management and teaching skills for teaching English to young learners; resources and materials for teaching English to young learners; and professional development for teachers of English to young learners” (Cambridge, 2015, p. 6). Further research would be relevant to address the type and effectiveness of specific teacher education courses for primary EFL teachers.

Another reason that necessitates the establishment of a separate primary-trained EFL teacher program is the large number of primary schools in Indonesia which may be planning to introduce English into their school curriculum; current statistics show that the number of primary schools in Indonesia has reached 144,567. This figure greatly outnumbers the number of secondary schools (36,516) (Kemenkokesra, 2014). In addition, the number of private language schools that offer English courses to young learners in major cities in Indonesia has continued to increase because parents are increasingly aware of the importance of English proficiency for their children’s education and choice of profession (Chodijah, 2008).

The findings of the current study also suggest that a professional development program for secondary-trained EFL teachers who are teaching English in primary schools is needed. The majority of the participants stated that they needed training on a regular basis to improve their EFL teaching skills. For example, T2-S2 stated “EFL teachers of primary schools need more training after completing the secondary EFL teacher programs; we need more skills and experience to handle this job” (T2-S2, personal communication, April 9, 2012). Similarly, T4-S3 stated, “primary school EFL teachers need appropriate practical knowledge which is ready to be implemented in their practices with primary students; we did not learn that practical knowledge sufficiently during the EFL teacher education program” (T4-S3, personal communication, April 2, 2012).

Currently, professional development for primary school EFL teachers is conducted through KKG activities such as workshops. The KKG organisation aims to facilitate efforts to improve pedagogical knowledge, insights, abilities and teaching skills of primary school teachers in order to improve the quality of learning activities and use of resources and potential of schools, which in turn can improve the quality of learning as a whole (Baedhowi, 2010). The participants of the study stated that they regularly attended the KKG activities such as workshops on syllabus development and

lesson planning. KKG programs include discussions of learning problems; developing semester syllabi and lesson plans; curriculum analyses, preparing reports of students' learning outcomes; creating learning materials; attending training related to the mastery of teaching materials that support the teaching performance; examining the materials and the stabilisation of school assessments (Baedhowi, 2010). It was probably from these activities the participants learned the three stages of teaching which shares characteristics with the 3Ps approach.

As discussed in Chapter 9, all of the participants divided their teaching into three stages resembling the 3Ps approach. According to the literature review in Chapter 4, the 3Ps approach is only one way to teach language. It has been critiqued by language experts as it is not consistent with the way children acquire language (Skehan, 1998). Thus, EFL teachers of primary schools should not be trained to teach using this approach only; rather they should be encouraged to improve their EFL teaching knowledge based on how children actually learn language. Thus, the regulation of Minister of Education of Indonesia number 41/2007 concerning the process standards of teaching in primary and secondary educational levels (Mendiknas, 2007b) should allow teachers to be creative and innovative based on the needs and characteristics of learners.

Finally, the government of Indonesia may wish to keep EFL teaching program in primary schools optional. This status will keep English in primary schools excluded from the national examination, which will allow EFL teachers to focus on teaching children oral communicative competence rather than merely language knowledge. This status also will allow EFL teachers to be creative and innovative to improve their potential and efficacy. The finding of this research has shown to some extent that the participants have been innovative in their practice because they were not directed to help their students pass the national examination, which always centres on written form.

10.3.2 Recommendations for future research

The findings of the current study revealed a relationship between the motivational factors that led the participants to EFL teaching in primary schools and the future professional plans of the participants. Therefore, in future research, the relationship among the motivational factors and the retention or commitment of EFL teachers to stay in the teaching profession may need to be investigated using larger samples and perhaps comprising teachers from diverse teaching subjects.

The views of the participants of the EFL teaching knowledge they used in their practices differed from the previous research evidence discussed in Chapter 2. This may suggest that the views and practices of EFL teaching in primary schools in Indonesia vary, perhaps depending on the context of the region, school policies as well as the level of school accreditation. Thus, what contributed to the difference between the participants' views of EFL teaching knowledge and their practices and those identified in the previous research findings in primary schools, needs further qualitative and quantitative research. Such research may disclose how Indonesian EFL teachers construct EFL teaching knowledge after completing an EFL teacher education program. Insights in this area would inform curriculum development of EFL teacher education in Indonesia and improve EFL teaching at the primary school level. The results of the current study may serve as the basis for such research.

Qualitative research investigating how Indonesian children experience cognitive, physical, socio-emotional and linguistic development may also be needed because such development is linked to social cultural interactions (Vygotsky, 1978). Indonesian culture differs in many ways from western culture where child development research has been conducted. Such research is essential in order to develop appropriate teaching knowledge for working with Indonesian students, not only in the field of language teaching, but also in other subjects. Indonesian educators are challenged to develop appropriate pedagogy based on research of Indonesian child-development.

And finally, Indonesian EFL researchers need to publish their research findings so that they can be accessed by other EFL researchers in Indonesia. In this case, Indonesian government will need to establish accessible and affordable journals for Indonesian researchers. One challenge of conducting my study has been the issue of the paucity of Indonesian journal articles that are accessible through the Internet from which I could explore information research in the Indonesian context relevant to my topic. There might be similar topics which have been investigated in other regions in Indonesia, but as they were not accessible, I could not benefit from them.

10.3.3 Concluding remarks

This chapter has provided conclusions of this study, recommendations for EFL teacher education institutions, and identified areas for future research. In addition to the recommendations made above, there are important lessons that can be learned from the design, process of data collection and analyses, and the results of this research in

general. From its onset, the progress of this research project has gone smoothly, without any significant obstacle. The only difficulty has been accessing research results from Indonesian researchers related to the topic of this research study.

This study, which has used a phenomenological approach to collect and analyse its qualitative data will be beneficial to the Indonesian context, especially for improving EFL teaching strategies to spearhead EFL teaching and EFL teacher education. By analysing qualitative data such as teacher experience (interviews and evidence from classroom observations) findings seem to be meaningful and convincing. The analyses of the participants' experience which they gained through practices in the field revealed the educational context of Indonesia. The results of this research will benefit education policy makers in Indonesia, both at the LPTK level as the educator and provider of educational personnel, as well as at the level of the Department of Education and Culture of Indonesia that employs teachers for the implementation of EFL program for Indonesian students. Information about effective practices carried out by teachers, based on the authentic contexts, is important for educational policy makers such as LPTKs and Department of Education and Culture in formulating educational policy, to suit the conditions and situation of Indonesia. For example, the results of this study have revealed important issues related to the motivational factors and EFL teaching knowledge of EFL teachers.

As an insider researcher, this research has been invaluable for my professional development as a teacher educator. From the onset of my involvement in this project, through to its conclusion, I have learned many things. The constructivism paradigm and interpretive phenomenological approach used to analyse this teacher's experience-based data research, have improved my understanding of the philosophical constructs of reality. Thematic data analysis theories and practice, used in this study have deepened my knowledge of the diversity of socio-educational research, gaining insights into the motivational factors affecting the Indonesian people in choosing a career in education; these are complex and interconnected. From both a personal and professional perspective, this has been new and compelling knowledge. Understanding how secondary-trained EFL teachers teach English to students at the primary school level has been empowering for me both as an insider researcher and as a teacher educator. All of this information is beneficial to advancing the EFL program at the primary level in Jambi province. Finally, I hope the results of this study can be useful for other

stakeholders to extend their knowledge in this field, both in Indonesia and in other countries.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: The Interview Guideline Questions

- 1) Group 1 questions: Could you tell me how did you become an English teacher?
 - In what university they undertook the EFL teacher education program
 - What brought them to select the secondary EFL teacher education program
 - What have brought them to teach English in primary schools? How did it happen?
 - How long they have been teaching English in primary schools?
 - 2) Group 2 questions: Could you tell me how do you view primary school students as language learners?
 - The relationship between their teaching knowledge and skills that they learned during the EFL teacher education program to your daily practice
 - How their teaching knowledge and English proficiency that they learned during the teacher education program helped them for teaching children English
 - How their experience of teaching English to secondary students helped them in teaching children English
 - Differences between secondary students and primary school children in learning language
 - How they view children learn language
 - Language teaching theories they have learned for teaching English to children
 - 3) Group 3 questions: Could you tell me how do you approach EFL teaching in primary schools?
 - The purpose of teaching English to children in primary schools
 - The role of content knowledge
 - Developing lesson plans, syllabus and language teaching materials and activities
 - Lessons they have learned from experience in the teaching of English to children
 - 4) Group 4 questions: How do you describe challenges of teaching children English in primary schools?
 - How they enjoy about the teaching of English to young learners
 - Supports they need for their practice
 - Plans for the future
- Group 5 questions: How would you describe implications of your experience for improving EFL teacher education programs or EFL teaching in Indonesia?
- Important components of knowledge for teaching primary children English

Appendix 1: Classroom Observation Format

School :
Grade :
Date :
Participant observed :
Topic :
Duration :

Introduction:

Description of pre-learning:

Description of core-learning activities:

Description of post-learning activities:

Elements of language proficiency observed during classroom teaching (Richards, 2011)

comprehend texts accurately;	
provide good language models;	
maintain use of the target language in the classroom	
maintain fluent use of the target;	
give explanations and instructions in the target language;	
provide examples of words and grammatical structures and give accurate explanations;	
use appropriate classroom language;	
select target-language resources (e.g., newspapers, magazines, the internet);	
monitor his or her own speech and writing for accuracy;	
give correct feedback on learner language;	
provide input at an appropriate level of difficulty	

The form was adapted from Gay's (2012)

Appendix 2: Curriculum of EFL Teacher Education, State University of Malang

GROUPS/NAMES OF COURSES	CREDITS	GROUPS/NAMES OF COURSES	CREDITS
I. MPK GROUP	8	5. RESEARCH COMPONENTS	6
Religion education, (e.g., Islam, Protestant, Catholic)	2	Introduction to Research Methods	2
Indonesian language for academic	2	Research Statistics	2
Pancasila education	2	Research Methods in ELT	2
Civic education	2	6. ELECTIVE COURSES	14
II. MKK GROUP	12	Discourse Analysis	2
Philosophy of science	2	Applied Linguistics	2
Introduction to education	3	Pragmatics	2
Learners' development	3	Translation I	2
Teaching and learning (general)	4	Translation II	2
III. MKB GROUP	114	Stylistics	2
1. ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS	62	British/American/Australian Studies	2
Intensive Course	12	Greek Mythologies	2
Literal Listening	2	Ethno linguistics	2
Interpretive Listening	2	Gender and Language	2
Critical Listening	2	Creative Writing	2
Speaking for Everyday Communication	2	Semiotics	2
Speaking for Group Activities	2	Post-colonial Studies	2
Speaking for Formal Setting	2	Gender and Literature	2
Literal Reading	4	Film Studies	2
Interpretative and Affective Reading	4	Asian Studies	2
Critical Reading	4	Deconstruction	2
Paragraph Writing	4	Journalism	2
Essay Writing	4	Editing	2
Argumentative Writing	4	Second Language Acquisition	2
Basic English Grammar	4	English for Specific Purposes I	2
Complex English Grammar	4	English for Specific Purposes II	4
Extensive Reading: Folk and Fairy Tales	2	English for Young Learners	4
Extensive Reading: Short Stories and Abridged Novels	2	Instructional Media & Activities in Language Teaching	2
Extensive Reading: Novels and Periodicals	2	Instructional Materials Development	4
2. ENGLISH LINGUISTICS	8	Classroom Management	2
Introduction to Linguistics	2	Gender and ELT	2
English Phonology	2	Introduction to Business English	2
English Morphology	2	Translation & Interpretation	4
English Syntax	2	Fieldwork in Translation	2
3. ENGLISH LITERATURE	10	IV. MPB GROUP	8
Introduction to Literature	2	Thesis Proposal Seminar	2
Basic Prosaic Studies	2	Degree Thesis (equivalent to a BA)	6
Basic Poetic Studies	2	V. MBB GROUP	4
Basic Dramatic Studies	2	Supervised teaching practice	4
Cross-Cultural Understanding	2	TOTAL	146
4. ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING	14		
Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)	4		
Language Learning Assessment	2		
Language Assessment Development	2		
English Curriculum	4		
Course-book Evaluation	2		

Appendix 2: Curriculum of EFL Teacher Education, UPI

GROUPS/NAMES OF COURSES	CREDITS	GROUPS/NAMES OF COURSES	CREDITS
MATA KULIAH UMUM		MATA KULIAH KEAHLIAN PRODI	
Religion Education, (e.g., Islam, Protestant, Catholic)	2	Functional Grammar	2
Indonesian language	2	Language Acquisition	2
Civic Education	2	Intercultural Communication	2
Environmental Education	2	Discourse Analysis	2
Physical & Sport Education	2	Statistics In Language Education	2
Religious Seminar	2	Teaching English To Young Learners	2
Community Service Program	2	Skripsi (minor thesis)	6
MATA KULIAH PROFESI		MATA KULIAH PERLUASAN DAN PENDALAMAN	
Foundation of Education	2	Conference Interpreting	4
Educational Counselling	2	English for Business	3
Learners' Development	3	English for Office Administration	2
Curriculum and Teaching	3	English for Science And Technology	2
Educational Management	2	English for Teaching Young Learners	4
MATA KULIAH KEAHLIAN		Theories of Translating	2
English Language Teaching (ELT)	4	Theories of Interpreting	2
Evaluation in ELT	2	MATA KULIAH KEMAMPUAN TAMBAHAN	2
Lesson Plan Design	2	Listening for General Communication	4
Research Methods in ELT	2	Reading for General Communication	4
MATA KULIAH LATIHAN PROFESI	2	Speaking for General Communication	4
Professional Development Program	2	Writing for General Communication	4
Language and Arts Appreciation	2	Mata Kuliah Pilihan	
Entrepreneurship	2	Research Project	2
MATA KULIAH KEAHLIAN PRODI	4	Seminar ELT	2
Foundation of English Grammar	2	Innovative on ELT	2
Foundation of Literature	2		
Foundation of Translating And Interpreting	2		
Foundation of ESP	2		
Listening For General Communication	4		
Reading For General Communication	4		
Speaking For General Communication	4		
Writing For General Communication	4		
Translating	2		
Interpreting	2		
Communicative English Grammar	4		
Phonetics and Phonology	2		
Morphosyntax	2		
Exploring Poetry	2		
Exploring Prose	2		
Exploring Drama	2		
ESP Course Design	3		
Listening in Professional Contexts	2		
Reading in Professional Contexts	2		
Speaking in Professional Contexts			
Writing in Professional Contexts	2		
Listening for Academic Purposes	2		
Reading for Academic Purposes	2		
Speaking for Academic Purposes	2		
Writing for Academic Purposes	2		
Language in Society	2		
			144

Source: UPI (2013)

Appendix 2: Curriculum of EFL Teacher Education, UNJA

NAMES OF COURSES	CREDITS	NAMES OF COURSES	CREDITS
Religion Education	3	Interpreting	
Civic Education	3	Journalism	2
Introduction to Education	3	Supervised Teaching Practice	4
Listening for General Purposes	3	Research Proposal and Seminar	2
Speaking for General Purposes	3	Community Service Program	4
Reading for General Purposes	3	Thesis (minor)	6
Grammar 1	3	TOTAL	148
Vocabulary	2		
Indonesian Language	3		
Social Science and Basic Culture	3		
Learner's Development	3		
Listening for Professional Context	3		
Speaking for Professional Context	3		
Speaking for Professional Context	3		
Paragraph Writing	3		
Grammar 2	3		
Basic Science	2		
Teaching and Learning	3		
Listening for Academic Purposes	3		
Speaking for Academic Purposes	3		
Reading for Academic Purposes	3		
Essay Writing	3		
Grammar 3	3		
Introduction to Linguistics	2		
Introduction to Literature	2		
Academic Writing	3		
English Phonology	2		
English Morphology	2		
English Syntax	2		
English Semantics	2		
Prose	2		
TEFL 1	2		
Second Language Acquisition	2		
Poetry	2		
Curriculum of EFL	2		
Educational Profession	2		
Sociolinguistics	2		
Discourse Analysis	2		
Drama	2		
TEFL 2	4		
Material Design and Development	3		
English for Specific Purposes	2		
Translation	2		
Language Testing	3		
Cross-cultural Understanding	2		
Research Methodology	4		
Statistics for Education	2		
Teaching English for Young Learners	2		
Literacy Criticism	2		
Technology-Enhanced Language Learning	2		

Source: UNJA (2014)

Appendix 3: Human Research Ethics Committee Approval



Human Research Ethics Committee
Committee Approval Form

Principal Investigator/Supervisor: Josephine Ryan Melbourne Campus
Co-Investigators: Melbourne Campus
Student Researcher: Syahrial Syahrial Melbourne Campus

Ethics approval has been granted for the following project:
Teaching English to young learners in Indonesia
for the period: 22/03/2012-31/05/2012
Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) Register Number: 2012 41V

Special Condition/s of Approval

Prior to commencement of your research, the following permissions are required to be submitted to the ACU HREC:

The following standard conditions as stipulated in the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Research Involving Humans (2007) apply:

(i) that Principal Investigators / Supervisors provide, on the form supplied by the Human Research Ethics Committee, annual reports on matters such as:

- security of records
- compliance with approved consent procedures and documentation
- compliance with special conditions, and


(ii) that researchers report to the HREC immediately any matter that might affect the ethical acceptability of the protocol, such as:

- proposed changes to the protocol
- unforeseen circumstances or events
- adverse effects on participants

The HREC will conduct an audit each year of all projects deemed to be of more than low risk. There will also be random audits of a sample of projects considered to be of negligible risk and low risk on all campuses each year.

Within one month of the conclusion of the project, researchers are required to complete a Final Report Form and submit it to the local Research Services Officer.

If the project continues for more than one year, researchers are required to complete an Annual Progress Report Form and submit it to the local Research Services Officer within one month of the anniversary date of the ethics approval.

Signed:  Date: 22/03/2012.....
(Research Services Officer, Melbourne Campus)

Appendix 4: Samples of Interview and observation Data

Zaharani (pseudonym): T4-S3

Saya kuliah di FKIP UNJA jurusan pendidikan bahasa Inggris. Awalnya saya tidak tahu kalau program studi bahasa Inggris di FKIP itu untuk para calon guru. Saya dulu dari sma jadi dulu pilihan pertama saya jurusan ekonomi dan pilihan ke 2 bahasa Inggris, kenapa saya memilih bahasa Inggris karena sewaktu saya belajar di SMEA itu saya pernah kursus bahasa Inggris, jadi saya tertarik mengambil jurusan ekonomi dan Jurusan bahasa Inggris. Jadi saya lulus ujian masuk perguruan tinggi dengan pilihan kedua saya waktu itu, saya diterima di Unja untuk pilihan kedua. Terus saya tidak tahu kalau itu untuk menjadi guru.

Sewaktu di SMEA dulu saya ditawarkan di IKIP Padang; siapa yang mau menjadi siswa undangan? Tidak ada di antara kami yang mau kuliah di IKIP karena kami tahu IKIP itu mendidik calon guru, kami tidak mau; kami mau jadi pengusaha. Tidak ada minat, tidak pernah terpikir mau jadi guru, belum ada waktu itu, terus pas sudah lulus ujian masuk, oh ternyata jurusan Bahasa Inggris itu adalah bahasa Inggris untuk pendidikan guru. Pada awalnya susah juga untuk menyesuaikan, tapi lama kelamaan akhirnya enjoy juga pak. Jadi saya memang tidak tahu kalau jurusan Bahasa Inggris itu untuk pendidikan guru, Cuma karena bunyinya keren 'bahasa Inggris'.

Jadi awal-awalnya belum nampak untuk apa belajar bahasa Inggris itu, belum nampak. Sudah beberapa semester, sudah dikasih tahu, kalau FKIP adalah untuk menjadi guru untuk mengajar, baru saya mulai paham.

Saya enjoy, saya senang saja pak, ternyata saya punya ada bakat terpendam untuk ngajar, apalagi setelah saya mengajar private, oh ternyata enak juga mengajar yah, jadi sebelumnya masih kabur kalo ternyata itu untuk guru.

Saya tidak tidak tahu berbahasa Inggris, masih samar-samar pak, juga karena dasar bahasa Inggris saya tidak begitu mendalam, tapi saya lihat teman-teman dari awal sudah bagus nian bahasa Inggrisnya, ada perasaan saya, kira-kira bisa tidak saya ini, ternyata Insya Allah bias, di cobakan.

Saya kuliah lima setengah tahun pak, belum ujian skripsi, belum lulus, terus saya melamar di sini, belum wisuda, jadi sebelum wisuda saya sudah mengajjar di sini.

Saya pernah mengajar SMP, pernah pak, tahun kemarin saya mengajar SMP. Tahun pertama saya menjadi wali kelas, tahun kedua mengajar SMP, sewaktu mengajar di SMP inilah saya temukan ada susah dan ada gampang mengajar di SMP, selain dari lingkungan anak SMP juga faktor materinya juga. Saya mengajar di SMP selama satu tahun. SMP Nurul Ilmi. Jadi saya sudah menjadi guru selama tiga tahun sampai sekarang. (8.43)

(kenapa bisa pindah dari SMP ke SD)

Waallah hualam saya juga tidak tahu waktu itu, pas tahun ajaran baru sewaktu pembagian tugas dan pembagian jam saya mengajar SD, saya juga tidak bertanya juga kenapa saya ditempatkan di SD dan saya tidak menanyakan juga, kemren itu saya ingin di SMP dulu, saya ingin mendalami, kan saya sudah punya pengalaman mengajar 1 tahun, itu pingin untuk kedepannya, tapi mungkin ada pertimbangan lain bagi yayasan, karena ada guru yang berhenti dan pindah, jadi guru untuk SD kurang, dan juga ada guru baru yang di tempatkan di SMP dan dipindahkan ke SD. Ya, yayasan yang memindahkan.

(dulu praktek mengajar di mana, coba ceritakan pengalaman mengajar di SMP)

Saya dulu PPL, di SMP 17. Waktu PPL di SMP 17 saya turun langsung mengajar bisa dihitung, paling hanya 3 kali dikasih kesempatan oleh guru pamong, saya lebih banyak melihat guru pamong mengajar, mengamati. Rasanya saya belum dapat ilmu waktu PPL, belum ada ilmu yang didapat waktu itu, belum terbayang bagaimana cara mengajar. Saya melaksanakan PPL selama 3 bulan, rasanya tidak maksimal waktu itu PPL, tidak ada arahan, kami lebih banyak dudu-duduk aja

(apa relevansi ilmu yang didapat diperguruan tinggi dengan pekerjaan sekarang).

Kayaknya tidak ado rasanhya, karena di SD itu berbeda dengan mata kuliah di perguruan tinggi. Pada kuliah banyak sekali mata kuliah, tapi paling-paling yang terpakai hanya seperti mata kuliah pronunciation, membaca; kalau ilmu mengajar saya paham setelah saya mengajar. Jadi sedikit sekali, memang sedikit sekali relevansinya yang saya rasakan.

Kalau akan mau mengajar langsung baru saya belajar bagaimana cara mengajar, metode apa yang akan dipakai, nah waktu kuliah dulu ini sedikit sekali dipelajari. (12.49).

Jadi ilmu yang saya dapat di perkuliahan rasanya kurang membantu, malahan saya mendapat ilmu mengajar lebih banyak di sini, kalau di sini ada seminar-seminar, pelatihan dari situlah saya menambah keahlian mengajar itu, kalau dari perkuliahan itu sangat kurang rasanya, minim sekali. Di sekolah ini sering diadakan pelatihan, bagaimana cara mengajar, buar RPP, metode mengajar, dari sinilah saya banyak tahu.

Narasumbernya sering dari Jakarta, diundang datang kesini, biasanya program itu dalam satu tahun tiga kali. Namun program itu masih secara umum, bukan hanya untuk pembelajaran bahasa Inggris, jadi untuk semua mata pelajaran, klasikal.

(apakah ilmu yang didapat sewaktu mngajar di SMP membantu anda mengajar di SD)

Jadi pembelajaran di SMP beda suasana dengan di SD; iklim pembelajarannya lain, kalau di SMP, mungkin kita banyak menerangkan, tapi kalau di SD kita tidak bisa menerangkan, jadi kita lebih banyak menggunakan benda, learning by doing, kalau kita banyak bicara, menerangkan, nanti anaknya tidak enjoy.

Jadi lebih jelasnya, di SD kita lebih banyak menggunakan learning by doing, kalau di SMP, kita punya banyak texts, wacana, kemuidian di jelaskan, tapi kalau di SD harus langsung dilakukan oleh anak, acting. Jadi ilmu mengajar di SMP itu tidak bermanfaat langsung untuk mengajar di SD.

(coba terangkan sedikit perbedaan karakter anak SMP dengan SD)

Kalau menurut saya perbedaan kedua grup belajar ini yaitu bukan pada susahny pencapaian materi, tetapi pada situasi kelas. Maksud saya ada kelas di SMP itu yang sangat susah diatur, jadi sangat susah untuk menyampaikan materi, saya jadi tidak enjoy mengajar, kelasnya susah diatur, suasana kelas yang sulit. Kalau materi pelajaran tidak susah. Jadi suasana kelas di SMP lebih ribet rasanya ketimbang di SD, karena mereka mungkin lagi masa puber, atau bagaiman gitu.

Kalau di SD tidaklah sesusah di SMP, kelas masih bisa di kendalikan dengan kata-kata (peringatan), tidak seperti di SMP kalau kita peringatkan kita kadang-kadang dilawannya,

mereka sering mengerutu di belakang, kadang kita diajaknya berkelahi, jadi bagaimana mau mengajar, kalau keadaan seperti itu. Jadi itu sangat beda iklim pembelajarannya.

(kalau menurut pengamatan ibu bagaimana anak-anak belajar)

Kalo saya perhatikan, anak-anak itu lebih enjoy kalau kita mengajar secara langsung, learning by doing, mereka lebih senang, apa lagi kalau kita kasih tantangan game, itu mereka akan lebih senang lagi. Tapi kalau kita berceramah, mereka kurang suka. Jadi mereka harus dilibatkan langsung. Jadi seperti sekarang, di SD ada juga kita mengajarkan tense seperti Present continous, maka kalau kita jelaskan mereka tidak paham, karena tidak nyata bagi mereka, abstrak, jadi mereka bingung, maka kita libatkan mereka langsung dalam belajar.

Jangan berimajinasi, jadi langsung, pernah saya mekakai metode ceramah, paling yang mengerti hanya beberapa persen, yang lain bingung, mereka bertanya, apa itu buk, kami tidak mengerti. Kadang saya juga mengeluh, aduh nak kan sudah ibu jelaskan tadi, mereka jawab, tapi kami tidak mengerti bu, kata mereka. Jadi seperti belajar anggota tubuh, maka kami buat lagu tentang bagian-bagian tubuh. Dengan menggunakan lagu itu anak lebih cepat mengerti, lebih cepat mereka mengerti dari pada mereka baca atau menghafal kosa kata satu persatu, seperti head, shoulder, work, cara ini tidak jalan betul. Dengan lagu anak yang paling lemah pun bisa mengerti, mereka dapat paham apak yang dipelajari. Seperti mengajarkan kata kerja, jadi kita usahakan menggunakan kata kerja itu dalam acting, kegiatan-kegiatan, dengan gerakan tubuh, menonton CD dan sebagainya.

(aspek apa yang paling penting dalam mengajar di SD)

Aspek yang paling penting menurut saya kalau mengaja ini yaitu persiapan; itu penting salah satunya dengan RPP jadi terbayang, kita besok mau mengajar apa, terus terbayang juga apa-apa yang harus dipersiapkan. Dulu pernah saya tidak punya RPP selama satu tahun, akhirnya pembelajaran saya mengambang, mengajar apa yang teringat saja, tidak terarah. Kalau kita punya RPP, walau kita kadang menyimpang dari yang kita rencanakan tapi kita sudah punya planning untuk pegangan kita, kita dapat mengulang lagi, yang belum kita selesaikan. Ada teman yang berkata memang, ah untuk apa membuat RPP, nanti tidak dipakai juga, tapi kalau menurut saya RPP adalah aspek penting untuk pegangan, kita sudah tahu apa yang akan kita kerjakan di kelas.

Dulu sering saya tidak membuat RPP, jadi saya sering bingung di dalam kelas, ini bagaimana mengajarkannya, ini membacanya bagaimana ya, seperti itu, akhir-akhirnya kembali lagi ke metode ceramah. Tapi kalau kita punya RPP, walaupun sering juga kita tidak bisa mengajar persis seperti yang telah direncanakan dalam RPP itu, tapi kita sudah tahu garis besarnya apa yang akan kita lakukan di dalam kelas. Kita sudah tahu apa yang akan kita lakukan, apa yang akan dilakukan anak-anak, benda ini mau dibuat bagaimana, seperti itu. Jadi persiapan itu penting, guru memang harus belajar setiap hari.

Selain RPP juga diperlukan ilmu tentang anak-anak, bagai mana karakter anak, bagaimana mereka belajar. 25.29

(menurut ibu bagaimana anak belajar bahasa Asing)

Kecuali yang tadi yang saya terangkan seperti terlibat langsung, saya belum nampak karena sebelum mengulang pelajaran pada saat pembukaan mengajar, saya sering bertanya pada anak-anak “ad abaca buku?”, rata-rata menjawab tidak. Jadi siswa jarang mengulang di rumah kalau

saya perhatikan, buku itu terbuka pas belajar bahasa Inggris di sekolah, jarang siswa, walaupun di kasih pekerjaan rumah, paling berapa persen saja yang mengerjakannya.

Jadi anak-anak belajar bahasa Inggris itu nampaknya dengan terlibat langsung melakukan kegiatan-kegiatan, kalau mengulang di rumah, nampaknya jarang, paling persentasenya kecil, karena beberapa yang saya ajar, kalau saya tanya apakah mereka mengulang atau membaca buku di rumah, rata mereka menjawab tidak. Kecuali mereka yang ikut belajar tambahan dikursus, itu lain, yang ikut kursus nampaknya mempunyai vocabulary lebih banyak. 27:00

(how do you view teaching and learning English as a foreign language, English)

Kalo menurut saya, dengan practice, seperti kosa kata langsung dipraktikkan, tapi itulah kadang-kadang untuk mengajak anak mempraktikkan itu agak sulit, misalnya 'makan'. Kalau menurut saya itulah, bahasa itu kan harus bicara, dipakai supaya tidak lupa, walaupun punya vocabulary yang banyak, ratusan, tapi jarang di pakai, dipraktikkan, jadi tidak ada gunanya, jadi praktek menurut saya adalah kunci dalam belajar bahasa

(apa tujuan belajar bahasa Inggris di SD)

Kalo menurut saya tujuan belajar bahasa Inggris di SD ini adalah tahap pengenalan saja dulu, pengenalan tentang yang berdekatan dengan mereka, yang tidak jauh dari mereka. Kalau buku paket saya lihat cukup sesuai dengan konteks yang berada di sekitar anak. Untuk hal yang lebih jauh belum perlu, yang simple saja dulu, jadi tahap pengenalan menurut saya. 29:39

Kalo untuk sekolah, tujuan belajar bahasa Inggris paling untuk ikut lomba, anak-anak di sini kalau ikut lomba, alhamdulillah dapat prestasi; mungkin tujuan yang lain dari sekolah ini untuk mengikuti perkembangan globalisasi ini, sekolah ingin anak-anaknya juga bisa ikut ketentuan zaman sekarang ini dan situasi. Kalau saya lihat itulah baru tujuan belajar bahasa Inggris di SD sekarang. Jadi Allahualam, kalo di Jambi ini hampir satu SD ini sudah belajar bahasa Inggris, semua bisa, ya karena tuntutan globalisasi tadi. Dari kelas satu sudah belajar bahasa Inggris, belajar computer juga dari kelas satu, itu kurikulum dari pusat GSIT. Bisa jadi ini karena prestise sekolah juga. 31:00.

(apa keuntungan bahasa Inggris bagi anak-anak, bagi sekolah, bagi sekolah)

Untuk sementara ini nampaknya ya sekedar untuk kebanggaan bagi orang tua anak; lihat anak saya bisa berbahasa Inggris gitu, tapi anak sendiri belum paham, mereka belum menyadari keuntungan bahasa Inggris bagi mereka. Mereka sekedar untuk enjoy, kadang kita beri motivasi kenapa kita harus belajar bahasa Inggris. Itulah yang saya lihat untuk sementara ini.

Kalau bagi sekolah mungkin untuk menarik minat agar para orang tua mau memasukkan anak-anak mereka untuk belajar di sini, sekolah di sini. Itulah menurut saya.

Kalau bagi guru seperti saya ini, pelajaran bahasa Inggris di untuk anak SD ini, ya mungkin saya dapat memelihara ilmu bahasa Inggris saya, saya dapat mengulang lagi pelajaran saya yang lalu. Kalau kita mengajar kita otomatis harus belajar lagi kan? Dan juga mungkin sebagai lapangan pekerjaan baru, jadi saya dapat mengabdikan diri, ilmu yang bermanfaat, kalau tidak, mungkin akan banyak juga guru bahasa Inggris menganggur, jadi sebagai lapangan pekerjaan baru juga. 33:16

(umur berapa anak-anak harusnya di kenalkan kepada bahasa asing, Bahasa Inggris)

Kalo menurut saya, sejak anak itu bisa berbicara, karena yang namanya bahasa kana lat komunikasi, ya sejak mereka bisa berbicara. Saya terlambat juga mengajar anak saya bahasa Inggris, anak saya sudah berumur lima tahun, baru saya mulai mengajar bahasa Inggris. Ternyata pada masa golden age itu mereka lebih cepat, walaupun masih campur bahasa Inggris dan bahasa Indonesia, bilingual. Contohnya ayo nak, take a bath, mandi, seperti itu, tapi lama kelamaan jadi lengket di kepala mereka, apa lagi langsung dipraktikkan, seperti itu. Jadi kalau untuk komunikasi menurut saya, tidak mesti menunggu masuk SD dulu dia, tapi masalahnya pula kan tidak semua orang tua mampu berbahasa Inggris. Jadi pada umur 2 tahun atau tiga tahun sudah bisa diperkenalkan, jadi sekarang banyak juga anak yang berumur 3 tahun sudah belajar menghafal al Qur'an, karena masa golden age itu tadi. 36.25.

(adakah teori-teori yang telah dipelajari untuk mengajar bahasa Inggris di SD)

Saya pernah belajar teori belajar, tapi saya tidak ingat, samar-samar dalam ingatan saya.

(apa kelebihan anak-anak belajar bahasa Inggris pada tingkat SD, dari segi apa mereka kuat, kayak itu, atau faktor yang membuat mereka lebih dalam belajar pada masa SD)

Kalau menurut pengamatan saya, motivasi anak. Motivasi mereka lebih. Di dalam kelas kita bisa melihat atau nampak bahwa anak itu belajar tidak punya beban, mereka begitu semangat belajar bahasa Inggris seperti mereka belajar pelajaran lain, tidak terlihat mereka merasa kesulitan, beban, nampak bagi kita dari wajah mereka, kalau mereka belajar itu ikhlas, tidak terpaksa, mereka enjoy, bukan karena nilai atau hal lain.

Kalau di SMP lain mereka sudah tau dengan nilai, skor, jadi mereka cenderung mencari nilai angka. Kadang mereka masuk kelas karena takut dengan gurunya, kalau di SD tidak, mereka masih polos, motivasi yang bersih, dengan motivasi yang tulus, suka ria. Itu nampak dari wajah mereka. Mungkin ada juga mereka yang tidak suka tapi tidak nampak, rata-rata suka dengan bahasa Inggris. 42.00

(apa tantangan mengajar di SD)

Kesulitannya yang saya rasakan yaitu kadang dalam mengelola kelas. Ada anak-anak yang tipenya selalu aktif terus. Juga dari segi mempersiapkan materi ajar, kadang terkendala, apalagi di sini kita dituntut full time. Kadang untuk mencari materi kita kesulitan. Kalau dulu ada internet, jadi kita masih bisa download dari internet, sekarang internet sudah tidak konek lagi, karena ada perubahan system pelayanan dari prividernya, katanya ada yang disempurnakan pelayanannya, jadi diputus dulu.

Jadi kita cari teks, gambar, foto-foto, itulah kendalanya, mempersiapkan media belajar terkadang susah untuk menyediakannya. Untuk mengatasinya kadang saya sharing dengan teman-teman, kalau mereka punya, cari di kamus,. Dulu sewaktu ada internet saya enak, saya cari langsung melalui internet. Misalnya hari ini saya mengajar part of the body, saya tinggal cari di internet, download gambar begitu, sekarang sulit.

Kalau kesulitan dengan anak yang tipe selalu aktif, saya kadang kasih punishment, tapi kadang punishment itu tidak bisa juga jalan, karena anak-anak mempunyai watak yang berbeda-beda. Punishmentnya harus beda-beda pula, kadang anak ini kita kasih punishment, dia malah suka, enjoy, tidak merasa itu punishment, jadi kita harus mencari strategi atau punishment yang cocok untuk anak supaya dia mau belajar. Kalau satu strategi atau punishment tidak mempan maka kita cari strategi yang lain. satu anak bila dikasih punishment ini misalnya, dia sudah nurut, baik hatinya, tapi untuk anak lain tidak bisa, dia tidak hirau. Seperti itu.

Kesulitan yang lain yaitu memadukan pelajaran dengan Islam, menghubungkan materi yang kita ajarkan dengan Islam. Sekolah ini sekolah Islam terpadu, saya sering mengalami kesulitan di situ, panduannya juga kurang, jadi saya belajar sendiri. Seperti belajar tentang pakaian misalnya, maka saya akan cari di dalam al Qur'an surat apa dan ayat berapa yang berkenaan dengan pakaian, fungsi pakaian, tata cara berpakaian di dalam Islam. Saya harus mampu mengaitkan materi pelajaran dengan Islam. Jadi di balik setiap pelajaran itu selalu ada Islamnya, ada keagungan Allahnya. Ini juga kesulitan saya.

(kalau dari segi penilaian, ada kesulitan tidak)

Ya dari segi penilaian, pengukuran kemajuan siswa, masalah yang saya hadapi ialah strategi pengukurannya. Kalau menurut saya, bahasa itu adalah berbicara, jadi yang diukur seharusnya kemajuan berbicara, bukan tertulis, seperti itu. Kalau menurut saya itu tidak sinkron, walaupun itu bahasa berbicara yang dituliskan. Jadi saya ingin ujiannya, misalnya cara mengungkapkan minta izin, minjam sesuatu, memang soalnya ujiannya mungkin bisa seperti "May I borrow ...", tetapi itu tetap saja tertulis, tidak berbicara. Jadi kalau menurut saya itu kurang tepat. Kalau di SMP sudah ada, ada ujian praktek berbicara dan tertulis.

Untuk sementara ini saya buat dua. Setiap akhir kegiatan saya mengadakan semacam kegiatan pengecekan kemajuan siswa. Siswa di buat bergilir untuk mengucapkan atau mempraktekkan apa telah mereka pelajari. Tapi kadang kita harus sabar, karena jumlah anak yang besar dalam kelas, menunggu giliran anak itu berbicara praktek, itu memakan waktu yang banyak, kita bisa bosan, anak juga bisa bosan. Kadang saya buat dua pengukuran, praktek dan tertulis, tapi yang ditonjolkan yang tertulis tadi.

(menurut pengalaman, bagaimana yang lebih efektif mengajar anak-anak bahasa Inggris)

Kalo menurut saya pribadi berdasarkan pengalaman, memang cara yang lebih efektif ya menurut saya, memang belajar learning by doing by a song, by games itu. Kalo metode speak, ceramah itu mungkin untuk beberapa hal mungkin, kalau mengajar bahasa Inggris di SD tidak kena itu. Mungkin metode ceramah untuk pelajaran lain bisa, kalau untuk bahasa Inggris kurang bisa kalau menurut saya. 48:50

(bagaimana ibu mengembangkan silabus dan RPP)

Kadang kalau silabus itu kan awal tahun ajaran itu semua guru buat silabus, jadi setiap bidang studi buat silabus sendiri. Kalau saya kendalanya itu kadang masih bingung juga dengan silabus, kan disuruh bikin sendiri, itu mengambil dari mana, bukunya apa, jadi masih bingung saya dalam membuat silabus. Kalau RPP itu setiap minggu kita bikin, kewajiban tiap minggu bikin. Kalau RPP standard tidak begitu susah membuatnya, tapi yang menjadi masalah ialah ke terpaduannya dengan Islam (ke IT-annya) masih kurang saya. Kalau RPP umum tidak begitulah, keterpaduannya dengan Islam itu yang susah.

(jenis kegiatan apa yang sering dipersiapkan sewaktu membuat RPP)

Pada pre-learning activities, kalau menurut pelatihan dan juga menurut bidang kurikulum, itu biasanya kita pertama mengajak anak atau memotivasi anak dulu, misalnya melalui lagu, lewat cerita, seperti itu. Juga pada pre-learning, misalnya kita mau mengajarkan pakaian, kita buat lagu tentang pakaian, seperti itu, atau kita menampilkan seorang anak untuk contoh, kita minta kelas memperhatikan apa yang dipakai anak itu, kemudian baru kita katakan kepada kelas, jadi hari ini kita akan belajar tentang pakaian. Atau kita bacakan surat tertentu yang berhubungan dengan pakaian, ayat-ayat yang berhubungan dengan pakaian.

Kalau kegiatan utama kita tinggal melanjutkan, misalnya kita menempelkan gambar pakaian sebagai media belajar, terus kita minta anak untuk menyebutkan bagian-bagian pakaian, atau kita dulu guru yang menyebutkan bagian-bagian atau jenis pakaian dari pakaian, kita ulang bacaannya, ucapan, spellingnya.

Terus untuk post-learning kita biasanya mengulang, biasanya ada praktek bicaranya tentang tema, kita tanya anak-anak kesulitan apa yang mereka alami, lalu menyimpulkan dengan menulis atau dengan menceritakan. 52:52

(bagaimana dengan sumber belajar)

Sumber belajar biasanya kita pakai buku paket, kadang laptop yang ada lagunya, kadang gambar, kadang apa yang ada disekitar kita saja.

(strategi menilai kemajuan siswa) 53:58

Kalau sementara ini saya masih pakai written test tadi pak, saya lihat perkembangan si anak itu pak, kalau aspek speaking itu masih jarang atau minim saya gunakan, hanya untuk pengecekan arti dari kata-kata dalam bahasa inggris, saya biasanya menggunakan bilingual, misalnya sebelum masuk kepada pelajaran inti saya menanyakan kepada siswa arti dari sebuah kata benda, misalnya: what is in English kemeja? Maka anak-anak akan menjawab misalnya Shirt mam, seperti itu.

Jadi satu chapter buku itu berisikan empat kali pertemuan, kadang materi itu terutama vocabularynya harus diulang-ulang pada awal pelajaran, kemudian baru di kembangkan, seperti tentang pakaian, setelah anak mempelajari jenis pakaian, kemudian mungkin dikembangkan kepada cara berpakaian, meminjam pakaian, memilih pakaian, dan sebagainya. Jadi intinya itu ya vocabulary tentang pakaian, karena tujuan belajar sering di gariskan seperti ini: misalnya siswa harus mampu menyebutkan sepuluh jenis pakaian. Seperti itu.

(aspek apa yang mempengaruhi penampilan ibu dalam mengajar)

Kalau menurut saya siswa, pak. Perlengkapan juga kadang penting, aspek itu juga.

Kadang kalau saya lihat siswa udah rebut begitu, itu susah untuk di ajarin, sudah tidak ada lagi, akhirnya saya marah. Saya kadang katakan pada siswa, tadi ibu mau mengajar itu dan ini, tapi gara-gara kalian semua jadi batal. Kalau kita masuk kelas dan kita lihat suasana seperti apa begitu, kita kan capek juga kadang, kalau kita lihat kelas tidak kondusif jadinya kita ya lemas juga, tapi kalau siswanya bersemangat maka kitapun akan bersemangat juga. Apalagi kita mengajar sampai pukul 4 sore, jam terakhir lagi. Kalau faktor-faktor lain tidak begitu pengaruhlah, tapi siswa menurut saya.

(Apa yang telah dipelajari dari pengalaman yang selama ini mengajar di SD)

Nah, kalo dalam ilmu mengajar ini, kito mengajar dengan hati, kalau bukan dengan hati, sehebat apapun ilmu mengajarnya, model mengajarnya atau cara mengajarnya, itu tidak akan sinkron, jadi harus dengan hati (kesungguhan hati, tulus), itu yang saya lihat, seperti itu. Memang kita harus mengajar dengan hati. Kan ada guru asal mengajar, itu tidak bisa, karena antara guru dan murid itu akan terasa. Kita akan dapat membedakan antara anak A dan anak B. Anak A misalnya kita mengajar dengan tulus, tapi anak B kita mengajar dengan rasa terpaksa atau tidak enak hati, maka hasilnya akan berbeda. Jadi perasaan hati kepada anak itu berpengaruh kepada hasil belajar

Missalnya seperti sekarang saya mengajar kelas 5A. Di kelas ini suaranya memang ekstra di situ. Dulu saya pernah merasa kesal di situ. Jadi hasilnya beda dengan kelas lain. Jadi antara saya mengajar dengan hati, ikhlas, tidak terpaksa di banding dengan yang lain itu hasilnya beda. Hasil ujiannya jauh beda antara mengajar dengan hati dan dengan terpaksa.

Mengajar dengan rasa terpaksa itu mudah, misalnya, ayo anak-anak, hafalin ini, nanti ibu tanya, begitu mudah, enak kan, mudah. Cuma yang dengan hati tadi, anak itu lama ingatnya. Seperti itu. 01:00

(berapa lama ibu mau berkecimpung dalam pemebelajaran bahasa Inggris di SD)

Kalau saya pribadi, itu saya maunya di SD saja. Nah mungkin untuk yang akan dating, paling-paling keluarga yang pingin kita menjadi guru di mana, begitu. Keluarga mungkin saya mengajar di mana atau mau menjadi PNS, biasanya seperti itu. Jadi itu tergantung kepada keluarga juga. Saya sebenarnya lebih senang di sini, begitu, tapi cita-cita saya ada memang mau jadi guru PNS, walaupun hati saya merasa separuh-separuh begitu. Kalaupun saya diangkat menjadi pegawai Negeri, ya saya maunya di sini, karena saya sudah merasa senang di sini enjoy di SD.

(secara umum bagaimana ibu menyukai pekerjaan ibu sebagai guru di SD)

Saya sangat menyukai pekerjaan saya. Aspek yang paling saya sukai yaitu faktor si anak-anak itu sendiri. Karena setiap hari saya berhubungan dengan anak-anak, kata orang kalau jadi guru itu kita bisa awet muda. Kadang-kadang kalau di ruma saya merasa sumpek, kemudian tiba di sekolah, dengan melihat tingkah anak beribu macam itu, saya jadi lega, sumpek itu hilang. Tapi ini di SD, kalau di SMP lain lagi. Saya melihat wajah anak SD yang polos, saya merasa seperti apa begitu, senang, asyik begitu.

(dari segi aspek apa yang ibu senangi dalam mengajar bahasa inggris kepada anak-anak)

Aspek yang paling saya sukai yaitu aspek si anak itu sendiri. Jadi anak-anak itu yang bikin saya senang, kalau materi belajar itu biasa saja. Apalagi kalau melihat mereka sedang bermain games, seru betul, saya merasa lepas, plong, kadang memang mereka susah di atur, tapi itulah irama mengajar.

(apa tantangan yang ibu hadapi mengajar di SD)

Tantangan mengajar di SD ya, yang pertama ya si anak itu lagi, management kelas. Karena kalau situasi tidak kondusif, itu juga tidak bagus untuk mengajar. Apo lagi dalam suasana rebut seperti itu, tujuan tidak akan tercapai. Sekarang juga dalam membuat lesson plan, ini juga tantangan, bagaimana kita mengepresikan kegiatan belajar atau membuat rencana pembelajaran yang baik, itu juga tantangan. Guru juga harus belajar terus menerus, itu tantangan.

(bagaimana ibu mengatasi tantangan management kelas, anak rebut)

Tantangan management kelas, seperti mengatasi anak rebut; saya biasanya memberi peringatan dulu, atau langsung ke punishment seperti itu. Contohnya saya akan memberikan hitungan kepada anak untuk diam, seperti hi anak-anak (atau nama mereka yang kita targetkan) coba diam, satu, dua, tiga, atau saya kadang dengan memberikan isyarat suara sambil jari telunjuk di rapatkan ke bibir, SSSSSSSSt, biasanya anak sudah mengerti, sehingga mereka akan memperhatikan apa yang di kehendaki guru mereka. Kita harus tegas kepada si anak.

(dukungan apa yang ibu perlukan dalam mengajar di SD)

Pertama saya perlu pelatihan lagi, karena strategi-strategi mengajar saya perlu di tambah terus menerus. Kemudian media pembelajaran, media masih sangat minim. Dari sekian banyak dukungan yang saya perlukan itu, seperti pelatihan saya cuma dapat dari sekolah, kalau dari diknas belum, kalau media ada dikasih oleh diknas, tapi masih minim. Jadi kita harus mengembangkan kreatifitas kita bagaimana membuat media, seperti itu. Sebenarnya kita bisa menggunakan hal-hal yang ada di sekitar kita, sepertinya kita harus kreatif untuk menjadi guru itu sekarang.

Jadi pelatihan baru dari sekolah, bagian kurikulum, dari teman sejawat yang sudah lebih dulu atau lebih berpengalaman mengajar. 01:08:14

(bagaimana rencana karir masa depan)

Kalau rencana saya pribadi saya pingin di sini saja, karena saya sepertinya sudah enjoy di sini dengan situasi dengan keadaan di sini. Terus kalau ada keinginan saya mengajar di tempat lain, itu mungkin dating dari keluarga, dari suami seperti itu. Suami mungkin ingin saya menjadi pegawai negeri. Karena kalau jadi pegawai negeri waktu kerjanya tidak sebanyak di sini, jadi bisa saya bisa mengurus rumah juga, seperti itu. Tapi kalau saya pribadi untuk saat ini, saya suka di sini, walaupun saya mungkin nantinya sudah belajar lagi, S2 atau S3, saya ingin juga sekolah. 1.09.45.

(apa kualifikasi guru di SD)

Kalau menurut saya, kreatif. Guru di SD harus kreatif, inovatif, tidak bisa guru yang tipe lama, seperti guru zaman kita di sekolah dulu, tidak bisa di SD sekarang. Guru SD ini harus belajar terus, pokoknya tiap hari harus belajar, harus menambah ilmu pembelajaran, suka mengembangkan diri dan profesi.

Guru SD harus berkompeten di bidang bahasa Inggris dan ilmu pembelajaran. Guru SD juga punya akhlak baik, karena guru ditiru siswa. Guru di sini contohnya juga harus menggunakan bahasa yang halus dan sopan, bukan seperti bahasa perintah. Contohnya kalau kita minta tolong kita tidak boleh di sini memanggil kau atau kamu kepada anak, kita misalnya panggil, nak bisa ibu minta tolong ambilkan itu?, tidak boleh kita katakan 'nak ambilkan itu! Karena ini, hancurnya Negara ini karena guru juga. Jadi itu perlu, sangat diperlukan guru-guru yang punya akhlak baik, bahkan itu harus diutamakan.

Kalau kualifikasi, kalau sekarang minimal guru harus tamatan S1, karena tantangan mengajar di SD sekarang luarbiasa, lain zaman lain tantangan, begitu.

Jadi kompetensi yang sangat diperlukan itu bagi seorang guru di SD itu yang seperti tadi, mau belajar, kreatif, inovatif, bisa jadi contoh, panutan. 1.13.50.

Jadi calon guru yang masih belajar di perguruan tinggi harus lebih banyak praktek, lebih banyak turun kelapangan, untuk mengalami bagaimana situasi yang sebenarnya, untuk menghadapi yang sesungguhnya, kalau dulu praktek mengajar itu tiga bulan, kalau bisa mungkin 6 bulan.

Sekarang guru-guru itu banyak yang kaget, ini bagaimana ini, karena situasi baru, mereka tidak pengalaman, seperti itu. Itu salah satu yang menyebabkan pembelajaran bahasa Inggris di SD tidak maksimal, karena gurunya. Di samping itu guru juga mengatakan, ini kan masih muatan local, juga guru sering pindah tempat lain di mana mereka mendapat tawaran yang lebih baik, guru tidak terikat satu pekerjaan, mereka tidak pegawai negeri PNS, jadi tidak focus, ini keluhan yang saya dengar juga kemaren sewaktu saya ikut KKG bahasa Inggris.

Jadi para calon guru yang masih di perguruan tinggi juga harus belajar psikologi anak, itu bisa dimasukkan ke dalam kurikulum, kalau dulu saya memang ada belajar itu, tapi tidak itu masih abstrak bagi saya, itu baru teori saja. Namun setelah jadi guru, itu baru terasa, oh iya, ini bagaimana menghadapi anak yang seperti ini. Nah itu perlu di dadalami lagi oleh calon guru, menjiwai si anak, dengan ilmunya, dengan melalui praktek, tidak hanya dengan teori. Jadi guru yang tidak belajar ini dia tidak akan mampu memahami tingkah laku anak di lapangan. Akhirnya guru semacam ini bisa-bisa dia menghardik anak, memarahi anak, karena tidak mengetahui jiwa si anak tadi dan tidak mengetahui cara mengatasinya. Jadi harus seimbang antara teori dan prakteknya di lapangan.

(bagaimana seharusnya LPMP meningkatkan profesi guru bahasa Inggris SD)

LPMP harusnya harus sudah mulai melihat ke SD, walaupun bahasa Inggris di SD masih muatan local, tapi ini akan menjadi dasar bagi mereka di SMP nanti, jadi LPMP harusnya sudah mulai memperhatikan SD, menyediakan anggaran, membuat perencanaan untuk SD. Jadi jangan karena bahasa Inggris di SD cuma muatan local, jadi SD tidak dilirik. Seharusnya mereka harus sudah mulai memperhatikan guru bahasa Inggris di SD.

(apa ciri-ciri program pengembangan profesi guru bahasa Inggris yang baik)

Yang pertama mungkin materi pelatihan harus berhubungan dengan situasi langsung di SD, karena itu akan lebih mengena. Caranya ya guru itu diminta mengemukakan masalah-masalah actual yang mereka hadapi di SD, kemudian dengan berkelompok guru itu mencari jalan pemecahan masalah mereka, mungkin dibimbing oleh ahli atau siapa begitu. Jadi bukan penataran-penataran teori yang susah diaplikasikan oleh seorang guru SD. Jadi guru SD itu perlu ilmu tepat guna, siap cerna begitu.

(apa isu-isu penting untuk pengembangan pembelajaran Bahasa Inggris untuk yang akan datang)

Pertama, gurunya harus guru tetap, PNS misalnya. Karena selama ini guru bahasa Inggris di SD itu tidak tetap, kadang gurunya masih kuliah, mahasiswa. Seperti sekarang ini, kenapa pembelajaran bahasa Inggris itu tidak focus, yak arena tidak ada keterikatan antara guru dengan tugasnya, jadi bahas Inggris di SD itu seperti asal saja, cumin sekedar mengisi muatan local. Jadi ini sangat penting. Memang ada guru-guru yang sungguh-sungguh, tetapi karena tidak ada keterikatan profesi, tidak ada profesi yang jelas, jadi untuk bekerja maksimal betul, ya belum mungkin, itu yang terucap bagi teman-teman kemaren sewaktu saya menghadiri KKG.

Kemudian LPMP harus mengambil perhatian untuk mengembangkan profesi guru SD. Kemudian, perguruan tinggi perlu kayaknya mengembangkan program pendidikan bahasa Inggris SD. Karena seperti saya dulu itu mata kuliah di perguruan tinggi itu sepertinya sedikit sekali berhubungan dengan apa yang saya praktekkan sekarang.

Kemudian kepada sekolah mungkin perlu meningkatkan wawasan pembelajaran guru-guru bahasa Inggrisnya, misalnya dengan studi banding ke luar negeri, melihat langsung bagaimana di luar negeri, oh di sekolah ini seperti ini, seperti ini, ini kan bisa menambah wawasan, untuk perbandingan, untuk sharing. Seperti sekarang saya kan seperti pintar sendiri, kalau dengan teman di sini ya sudah, tapi kan saya tidak punya chanel di luar negeri.

Yang lain lagi, mungkin sekolah dapat menyediakan wadah atau ruangan, atau fasilitas atau seperti self-access center, jadi si anak bisa belajar mandiri, mendengar musik, mengerjakan games, jadi anak bisa lebih enjoy lagi. Jadi saya ingin ada fasilitas seperti itu di sekolah ini.

Zaharani (pseudonym): **T4-S3**

Zaharani was interviewed on Monday, (2/4/2012) from 08.00 to 09.00 a.m. in the library (School 3) Telanaipura, Jambi City, Jambi. She is a permanent EFL teacher with the experience of six years in EFL teaching.

1 Factors that have brought her to work in primary school

I undertook EFL teaching education at the Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Jambi University. At the beginning, I did not really know that EFL teaching course at the Faculty of Teacher Training and Education prepared prospective EFL teachers. I graduated from Upper Secondary School of Economics, so my first choice, when I joined the university entrance test was economic faculty and EFL teaching education was my second choice.

When I was in SMEA, there was an offer to study in IKIP Padang; ‘Who would like to study in The Institute of Teacher Training and Education Padang’. None of us was willing to study in the Teachers' Training College as we knew that such institution educate student teachers. We did not want to be teachers; we wanted to be entrepreneurs. So there was no interest, I never thought that I would be a teacher, and there was no intention at the time.

So when I was studying in SMEA, I had an English course after school hours; I believed English would benefit me for my career as an entrepreneur or an executive, so I was interested in majoring in Economics and English. But I passed the college entrance test with my second choice as I told before. At that time, I was accepted in Jambi University for the second option. Then I did not know if it was to become a teacher.

It was difficult to motivate myself at the beginning; but I tried to convince myself that I am going to be alright. I did not know much English at all as my basic English competence was not strong enough to major in English teaching. I observed my classmates; since the beginning they have been very good at English. I used to ask myself a question “Can I do this?” But finally after trying hard, I obviously could manage to do it. Yes over time, finally, I enjoyed it as well. It turned out that I had a hidden talent of teaching too, especially when I worked part time, in a private English centre, I found out that, oh well, teaching is a fun too. I needed five and half years to finish everything. Before the thesis exam, before graduation, I applied here, so before graduating from university I have been working here.

I worked in junior high school last year. In the first year I was a homeroom teacher; in the second year junior high school I had a teaching problem. The environment was not good and the materials were too difficult. So I worked in junior high school only for one year. So I've been teaching in this school for three years now.

My teaching practice was in junior high 17. My supervisor gave me very little opportunity to teach; I think it was only three times. I had to see her teaching more than me practising teaching- to observe her teaching very much. I did not get enough experience at that time, no knowledge gained. I even cannot imagine how to teach well. I undertook the teaching practice 3 months, I really did not feel satisfied; it was not maximum because there was not satisfying supervision; we were sitting around a lot more than practice teaching.

Becoming English language teachers of young learners

I was not quite sure why I moved to primary school. In the meeting, at the beginning of academic year in which the tasks and duties of teachers were distributed by the school head, I was transferred to teach in primary school from junior high school. I just accepted the task; I did not enquire about that. Actually, I wanted to continue teaching in junior high, I wanted to explore the future; I have had one-year teaching experience already there. But, perhaps

there may be other important considerations for the Foundation, because the former EFL teacher of this primary school resigned from the job, the principal transferred me from my former position at the secondary to primary school here. ...; so it was actually the decision of the school management. Yes, it was the foundation who wanted to move me from secondary school to the primary school level.

The relevance of the knowledge I learned in college to my job now, I think it is very little, because the subject in a primary school are far different from the courses in the college. In college, I learned so many courses related to knowledge about English, but in primary schools, just courses such as pronunciation, vocabulary, speaking, and reading courses, which are useful now. During the secondary EFL teacher education program, I learned advanced courses of English grammar and English proficiency, but at this school, I only teach basic skills of English such as basic vocabulary, pronunciation, simple oral communication skills, basic reading and writing skills

Pedagogical knowledge, I learned most of it from my experience in teaching, from my daily practices. So the relevance is very little. That is what I feel. When I am to teach some materials, I will learn the materials, e.g., how to teach such materials, what method I will use suitable for the materials; and so on. This was discussed very little in college. So the teaching knowledge, which I learned in college, I think, it did not help me that much, instead I learned a lot more of teaching methods here. In this school, we often have workshops and trainings. The workshops helped me improve my instructional skills. But in college, I think it was very little, minimal. This school conducts professional trainings for teachers' development every year; the trainings guide teachers how to teach particular subjects effectively to children of primary schools, e.g., how to develop lesson plans, how to improve teaching strategies for productive classroom teaching. So it is here I learned a lot of teaching knowledge.

The trainers are from Jakarta; they are sent here by the Foundation in Jakarta by which this school is managed or organised. Usually, the programs are held three times a year. The programs are not only for EFL teaching but also for other subjects. So it is just not only for EFL teaching, but all subjects listed in the school curriculum.

Teaching in junior high school is different from that of in primary school. The context is different, the learning atmosphere is different, the students are different, the levels of materials are different, the goals are different, and so these all inform different teaching strategies. For example, in junior high school, we can use lecturing method to explain learning materials, followed by examples and then provide student with exercises that they can work on individuals or groups. Teachers control learning activities while students working on their tasks.

But in primary school, we cannot use lecturing method a lot. Instead, we have to use learning media a lot, involving children directly to work with us in learning. We cannot explain learning materials to children; but we have to act out the lessons through games, performances, drama, plays, stories, songs and so forth. Yes it is really learning through activities. If we explain a lot kids will not enjoy the learning. More specifically, in primary school we encourage children to learn by doing. Learning is done directly by children through acting physically.

So the experience of teaching in junior high school was not directly useful for teaching children in elementary school. In junior high, we have a lot of texts, discourses; we explain a lot.

The class atmosphere is different too. I mean there are classes in junior high which are very hard to set up, so it is very difficult to work in such classes, so I did not enjoy the teaching, it is true. The class atmosphere was difficult. Learning materials are not difficult really. So the atmosphere in the junior class was more complicated compared to that of in primary school;

I think because the students may be experiencing puberty, or so, I don't know. When we give a warning they will not listen, they sometimes challenge us, they often grumble behind us, sometimes they fight us, so how are we going to teach in such situation.

In primary schools, the class atmosphere is not that difficult like in junior high schools. Classes can be controlled only with words (warnings), not like in junior high school. So, it is very different in terms of learning atmosphere. With primary school children, when we give warning, e.g., when we ask them keep quiet, they will listen and obey us, sometimes by using body language, e.g., by clicking your fingers, putting your fingers on your lips, they will understand that we need them to listen to something. So the difference is obvious.

Characteristics of young learners

I observe that kids enjoy learning if we involve them directly in the learning activities; learning by doing. Primary school students' motivation and curiosity to learn English is very high. They look much happier, especially when we use games that challenge them, they will be more pleased. So it is not like transferring knowledge from us to them, no. if we talk, explain something that we want them to learn, transferring information for us to them, through lecturing, they will not like it. The result is going to be very disappointing. So, they should be involved directly in physical activities that contain the learning goals.

Now, in primary schools, we also introduce children English tenses, for example, the Present Continuous Tense. If we just describe it through rule explanations, they will not understand, because it not real to them; it is abstract. So they are confused, then we have to involve them directly in learning experiences that lead them to an understanding of the concept of the tense we are teaching. We do not require them to be able to tell us what the rule is, but we know they can use it correctly without being able to tell us the definition of the rule. They can give examples of sentences in which the tense is used in a real context, so that is it. But I admit it, it is not easy for the teacher and for children. I use hours and hours, trying out activities that really fit children. It is not easy really.

So do not push the kids to use their imagination, but show them directly. I have to also sometimes use lecturing method, only very few of them can catch what really it, the rest of the class are confused, they will ask me ask what is this Mom? We do not understand. Sometimes I complain too, "oh kids", did not I explain it earlier?" They said "but we do not understand Mom".

So, for example when we want them to learn parts of the body in English, we use songs, we create songs for all parts of the body. We sing these songs with them, while showing them pictures of the parts, pointing on the teacher's body parts. With songs no child would leave behind, they all like singing songs. We also use songs to teach vocabulary, e.g., verbs, nouns, adjectives. We use colourful pictures to accompany the songs, they help vocabulary teaching more understandable. We also act out verbs to teach them. Physical movements are really good for children; they love to see moving objects, to act out verbs, to mime and so forth. We also use videos for teaching children, videos containing stories and procedural activities. We use everything that is interesting to children. Thus, EFL teachers need to know what are interesting to children, to know how to use it to improve children's involvement in learning; I also need to know how they like to learn.

How young learners learn English language

Except like what I have discussed earlier, such as direct involvement, I have not seen how children learn exactly really. Because before repeating a lesson, at the start, I often ask the children "have you read the course book?" On average, they answered no. So students

rarely repeat the lesson at home, according to my observations. The textbook is opened only in the school. Rarely children do their homework. Only a few of them, they are very small in number.

So children learn English by involving or engaging them directly in physical activities. Only in few children learn at home. Except those who join an additional course in an English centre beside the school hours. The ones who take extra courses seem to have more vocabulary.

Perspectives of teaching and learning English language

My view of EFL learning is learning it for communication and only through communication practice English can be learned effectively, I believe every language is speaking. But sometimes, to bring children into practice is a difficult job. For example how to teach the verb 'eat' in practice. I mean we always need something to help us to practise. I believe every language is speaking; it has to be used otherwise it is forgotten, so to learn the language is to use it regularly. Although we have many hundreds of vocabulary, but we rarely use them in practice, they are useless. So I think practice is the key to English language learning.

In my opinion, when children start speaking, they can start learning English as their second language, because language is communication tool, so since they start talking. I was late too to teach my own children English, my son is five now, I just started teaching him English.

Apparently, in the golden age, they are faster, although they still mix the language, e.g., English and Indonesian, bilingual. For example, we can say, 'son, let's take a bath, shower', simple expression like this; but over the time, it will stay in his mind. So, just use the language with children for simple communication first. That is my opinion; we do not need to wait until they go school. But the problem is that not all parents can speak English. So at the age of two or three, when children can speak their mother tongue, another language e.g., English can be introduced. Now many 3-year-old children have learned to memorise the Qur'an, because it is the golden age. I did study some theories of language learning in college, but now I do not remember them, but I know, children need to feel happy and secure in the classroom to learn EFL effectively.

The most important aspect of EFL teaching to children, in my opinion, is teaching syllabus; it is very important. From the syllabus we develop lesson plans. With the syllabus we know when to teach what and how. We can plan what we want to teach tomorrow and so forth. We can prepare what we need in our teaching. I had an experience, I had no syllabus and lesson plans. I was confused in the class, how to teach this and that, how to pronounce this and that, like that. Because I had no preparation, I had to use lecturing method. As a result, my teaching was roaming here and there. I taught what I remembered; my teaching had no clear direction where to go.

So if we have the syllabus and lesson plans, although we sometimes deviate from what we plan, we always can review what we do not yet cover. There are friends of mine who say, "What are the lesson plans for, they are of no use, we have the course-book". But in my opinion, a lesson plan is an important aspect to guide the teaching; with a lesson plan, we know what we will be doing with the class. So preparation is important.

In addition to the syllabus and lesson plans, EFL teachers need to know the knowledge of children, e.g., children's characteristics and needs; and how they like to learn. Children need to feel happy and safe to practise to use the language to talk.

Goals of early learning of English language

In my opinion, the purpose of EFL learning in primary schools is to introduce the language. I can see that the course book is quite appropriate to the context around children. The course is simple, so I think the introduction stage. So according to me, the goal of EFL teaching in primary schools is basic oral communication skills to children so that they can speak English for simple communication purposes in daily life.

For the school, EFL teaching is a kind of attraction; it is to attract parents to send their children to study here; that is my opinion. In addition this, EFL teaching is prepared to prepare children for competition. Children of this school join English competition every year. They often win the competition. The school may have other goal, but in general, EFL teaching to children is to prepare them to enter globalisation. The school wants children to get involved in the progressing world. I think that is the main purpose of EFL learning in primary schools now.

I can see parents are very proud of their children who can speak English. So for parents, I think it is a pride. 'Look my children can speak English; it is because I send them to that school'. For children, they do not really understand the benefits for of English yet, except they look happy they can speak another language, they know common function words used in games, phones. We do not really use English that much in our everyday life. So they do not really realize the benefits of English for them yet, I guess. Just to enjoy English usage, but sometimes we motivate them by telling 'why we have to learn English'.

For teachers, like me, EFL teaching in primary schools is benefitting me to be able to maintain my knowledge of English; I can keep on learning English. When we teach we learn automatically, isn't it. In addition, it is a good job. I can devote myself to teach children useful skill. So, it is a job, a new way to employ EFL teachers, otherwise many English teachers are unemployed.

Advantages of early learning of English language

A strength possessed by primary school children in EFL learning is motivation. Based on my observation working with children, I can see that their motivation is high. We can see children learn without burden, they are so motivated to learn English, just as they learn other subjects, they do not seem to face difficulties. We can see from their faces, they learn it with sincerity; they enjoy it, not because the grades, or anything else.

They are different from junior school students who already know of the accomplishments, learning results, so they tend to look for scores, the results of learning. Sometimes students of secondary school enter the classroom only because of fear of the teacher. In primary school, that is not the case, they are plain, clear motivation, their motivation is sincere, and fun. It is apparent from their faces. There maybe some of them who do not like English, but we cannot tell the difference, so on average, they love EFL learning.

Strategies for assessing children's progress

In terms of assessment of student progress, the problem I face is the assessment strategy. In my opinion, language is spoken, so children's progress needs to demonstrate the ability to communicate in the spoken form rather than in the written form. So my assessment emphasises speaking skills. According to me, it is not quite right to assess children's progress only through written test, it does not match. So I want to exams in spoken forms. So according to me it is not quite right to test children's progress only using writing test. In junior high school, students' progress is assessed using two forms speaking and writing.

In the meantime, I create two exams. At the end of each unit, I have some kind of activity for checking children's progress. Children take turn to speak or practice what they have learned.

But, sometimes we have to be patient, because a large number of children in the classroom, the children have to wait to speak or practise; it takes a lot of time, we can get bored, children can get bored too. In addition to this, I give writing test, but the writing one always becomes the first choice when time is limited.

Syllabus and lesson plan development

Each teacher at the beginning of the school year has to make the syllabuses of the subject they are teaching, so each subject has its own syllabus. Based on the syllabus, we make weekly lesson plan; it is our duty each week. A standard lesson plan is not so hard to make, but the problem is with Islam value integration to it. I am not very good at it. So it is the integration of Islamic values that make the plan business rather difficult. For example, if we want to teach clothes in English, we have to include the norms of clothing in Islamic values, probably by referring to relevant verses of the Quran or the sayings of the Prophet. So we have to teach children these verses and the traditions of the Prophet concerning the clothes in Islam too. So, one of the important advantages of an integrated Islamic school is that it can integrate Islamic values into the school syllabus. If I want to teach Islamic clothes in English, I can include the role of clothing in the Islamic tradition while referring to some relevant verses of the Quran or the traditions of the Prophet. So I can teach children English and verses and the traditions of the Prophet. This is important to pass on Islamic values to a young generation

In the pre-learning activities, we first motivate children, for example, we use songs, Islamic stories and the likes. In the core learning activities, we just go on, for example, we use pictures or real cloths as the medium of learning. We continue to discuss names of parts of the cloth, the function of the cloth, types of the cloth. We teach pronunciations, spellings relevant to the materials. In post-learning, we provide children with practices talking about clothes they like, including types, colours, and so forth. We also include some writing exercises about clothing. For example, we ask children to write few sentences about the cloth they like or they don't like with reasons. That is it. It sounds easy to talk but, when you go to practice, it may get very complicated.

Now in primary schools we also introduce language forms to students beginning from grade four; but we don't teach language rules explicitly because children will not be able to grasp them through explicit teaching. So what we do is we demonstrate the use of the targeted form in contexts and we involve children directly in the demonstrations of use of that targeted form in authentic situations, in which the meaning of the concept of the form is embedded. We don't require the children to tell us the rule; we just need to know that they use the language accurately without being able to tell us its rules

Teaching and learning resources

For learning resources, we usually use text-books; we use laptop sometimes, songs, pictures, images, sometimes realia, or things around us. One chapter of the book consists of four sessions, some materials e.g., vocabulary must be repeated at the beginning of every lesson. Vocabulary lessons connect to each other in every unit, so they are not chunks. For example, in this unit, vocabulary lesson deals with nouns about clothing; next unit will deal with verbs about clothes, like that. I prepare learning materials and activities that involve physical movements of children in using the target language authentically; it is most likely similar to "learning by doing". We create and use simple English chants or songs for children to learn. For example, when we wanted to teach children about Islamic clothes, we created simple English songs containing types of Islamic clothing. We sing the song with children while dancing,

clapping, pointing, hopping and so on, or we show them colourful pictures of clothes and so on. Songs make children happier because all children like singing

Lessons learned

The aspect that influences my teaching the most is the children themselves. I know teaching equipment is also important. But sometimes dealing with noisy class can drive you mad. I sometimes say to children, initially I wanted to teach you this and that, but because you were too noisy, everything is gone now. So if we go to a class with uncondusive atmosphere we can get tired very soon. But if children are conducive and excited, we too will be excited. It does not matter if we teach in last hour in the afternoon.

The lesson I learned from the experience of EFL teaching to primary school children is teaching by heart. So we have to work with the heart, if not with the heart, no matter how great our teaching knowledge is or teaching model, pedagogy, it would not work well, so it should incorporate the heart, (heart earnestness and sincerity), that is what I learned. Indeed, we have to teach with the heart. There are teachers who teach without sincerity, it will not work, because, between teachers and children would be no sense of a mutually binding. We can distinguish between class A and class B, for example; we teach class A with sincerity, but class B with a sense of force or uncomfortable mood, then the result will be different. Therefore, the teacher's mood affects the learning outcomes.

For example, as now I teach the Class 5A. In this class the student uproar is extra hard. I used to get upset in there. So the results are different from other classes. So teaching with the heart, and sincerity compared to teaching with the sense of force, upset and so forth brings about different results. The results of the exam will show the difference. Teaching with a sense of force is easy, for example, let the children memorise this, later I will give a test; it is so easy. But only the teaching with hearts will stay longer remaining results in children.

Teaching approach that works for children

Based on my personal experience, an effective way to teach English to children in primary schools is through learning by doing, through songs and games. If we teach primary children English through rules, they will never be successful in learning the language as rules are abstract to them, they will get frustrated instead. Lecturing method may be used for some other lessons, to teach English in primary schools, it does not fit. Lecture method may be used for other subjects, it is not appropriate for the English language teaching.

How I like my job? I really love my job. The factor that I like the most is children. Sometimes when I am at home, I feel bored, but when I go to school and see innocent (lugu) children, I feel so relieved, that stuffy is gone. When I see faces of children, I feel so happy. So, what I like the most is children themselves. Therefore, children make me happy. Especially when I see them playing, it is exiting, I feel so relieved. Sometimes they are hard to be managed, but that is the art and rhythm of teaching.

Challenges of EFL teaching in primary schools

I find it difficult in managing a class sometimes. There are kids who are always active. Preparing teaching materials could be challenging. Sometimes it is difficult to find learning materials that really fit children. If we work fulltime, it is really hard to find to prepare teaching materials as the time for teaching preparation is very limited. There used to be the internet connection here, so we used to download some materials from the Internet. But now there is no more connection for some reason, so it really is difficult for us

to vary our learning materials, we just do not have enough time to create materials by our own selves.

To overcome this problem, sometimes I share learning materials with my friends if they have. In the past, when there was the internet connection, it was easier; I would find direct resources of learning or learning media from the Internet. For example, when I want to teach parts of the body, I just browse through the internet and download beautiful images that are interesting to children.

If I have problems with super active children, I sometimes give punishment, but the punishment does not always work. Because children have different characteristics, punishment should also vary. We often find a punishment is not punishment; it does not work at all as the children who we punish like that punishment. They do not feel that it is a punishment, so we have to find out different strategy or a suitable punishment for different child. If one strategy does not work, then we look for another strategy. Some children change easily with punishment; they behave, but for other children cannot.

Another difficulty that I find is to incorporate EFL teaching into Islamic concern, connecting learning materials to Islamic values is not an easy job. This school is an integrated Islamic school, I often have trouble there, and the guideline is very less as well, so I have to work it alone myself. So behind every lesson, there is always Islamic value, there is the majesty of the God. It is also my difficulty.

I need more training, because my teaching strategies need to be updated continuously. Until now, I only received training from the school, not from the Local Ministry of National Education. Once they provide us with learning media, but it is still limited. So we have to develop our creativity, how to make media. Actually, we can use things around us, but the problem is we do not have enough time sometimes. We must be creative now.

How long will I be teaching in elementary school? Personally I want to be in primary schools. Maybe in future, my family want me to be a teacher of civil servant. Probably my family want me to teach somewhere else, usually something like that. So it depends on the family as well. I am actually happier here, but sometimes I also want to be a civil servant teacher, although I do not feel confirmed to be a teacher of civil servant. Even if I am appointed as a state teacher, I want to remain here, in this school, because I feel happy in this school. Primary school students are lugu, they learn English sincerely; if I see those lugu faces, I feel so happy.

So I have decided to keep on teaching in primary schools, because I enjoy working with children. My plan personally, I want to stay here, because I already enjoy working here with the situation and circumstances here. Then if there is the desire to teach in other places, it probably comes from my family, from my husband. My husband wants me to be a civil servant, because a civil servant does not have working hour as much as in this school; so I can look after my family as well. But, personally for now, I like it here, although I probably will continue my education to the next level e.g., magister degree or doctoral. I want to learn more as well.

Based on my experience, EFL teachers for primary schools must be creative and innovative. They must be specifically educated to teach children, they cannot be like traditional teachers, like teachers of in my schooling time before. English language teachers in primary school must learn continuously; they just have to learn every day to upgrade their knowledge of teaching and have willingness to develop their profession regularly.

Important competencies of English language teachers of young learners

EFL teachers of primary schools must have knowledge of English, knowledge of teaching-learning. EFL teachers in primary schools also should have good morals, because children

imitate teachers. Teachers here have to use polite language, not like commanding language. For example, if we ask for a help, here we must not call 'you' or 'you' to the child. For example, we are calling "Son could you please get me ...?", We should not say, "hey kid, give me that, bring me that!". This country has been ruined because of this bad moral, this country has been destructed because of the teacher as well. So it is necessary, very necessary that EFL teachers have good morals, and it even should be the first condition. What we need is not only academic competencies but also social intelligences. EFL teachers should be creative and innovative; they have to models for good mentality and morality education. Minimum qualification of primary school teachers are now graduates of S1, because the challenges of teaching in primary schools today are extraordinary high, different from the challenges of our day before.

So the teacher candidates who are still studying in colleges should undertake more practices, go down to schools to observe, experience and learn the real learning situation today, learn to deal with the real work of practice. Three months of teaching practice does not seem enough anymore, if possible, it should be made 6 months at least.

So the teacher candidates who are still in college, also had to learn the children psychological development; it can be incorporated into the curriculum of teacher preparation. I learned it before, but not in details, it was abstract to me because it was only in theory. But after working with children I feel it different. Prospective EFL teachers, need in-depth understanding of a child with the heart, with the knowledge, through practice, not only theory. Teachers who have not learned this, they will not be able to understand the child's completely in the field. Eventually this kind of teachers might scold children, because they do not know the inner side of the children, and not knowing how to cope with child's problem. So it should be a balance between theory and practice in the field.

Now, many new EFL teachers feel shocked, how to do this and that, because they face new situations, different from what have not learned. That is why I think EFL teaching in primary schools is not optimal, because of the teacher.

EFL teachers also say that EFL in primary schools is an optional course, thus, EFL teachers often move from place to another place where they got a better offer. EFL teachers are not consistent to one job. They are not civil servants, so they do not focus; I have heard this complaint as yesterday I joined activities of a local workshop of English language teachers (KKG).

Important issues for professional development

This institution should begin now to look at EFL teaching in primary school more seriously, although EFL course is not a compulsory subject in primary schools, but this will be the basis of EFL teaching in secondary schools. So LPMP should have started paying attention to EFL teaching in primary schools, e.g., to provide enough budget, make strategic plans, provide training for primary EFL teachers. So do not ignore it just because it is a local content subject. Primary school EFL teachers need appropriate practical knowledge which is ready to be implemented in their practices with primary students; we did not learn that practical knowledge sufficiently during the EFL teacher education program.

Characteristics of a good EFL teacher professional development program: First, the materials of the training should directly relate to the context of primary school teaching. Perhaps, trainers should ask EFL teachers their actual problems they face in schools, and provide solutions through discussions with them. So instead of talking about theories which are hard to be applied by EFL teachers in a real context, this way might be better. Elementary school EFL teachers need appropriate knowledge which is ready to be utilised in their practices.

Important issues for future development of EFL teaching in primary schools

Important issues for the development of learning English for the future?

First, primary school EFL teachers should be given permanent job, such as civil servants. As EFL teaching in primary schools is not a permanent job, many primary EFL teachers do not undertake their work seriously. There is no binding between teachers and their responsibilities and duties, as result, EFL teaching for them in in primary schools is just like a stepping stone, looking for teaching experience using a vacant job. So this is very important. Indeed, there are few real teachers however, but because there is no binding to the profession and there is no clear profession ahead, they cannot work optimally in primary schools. That came out from friends currently when I attended a KKG discussion. Yesterday I attended a local workshop of EFL teachers held by KKG.

Then LPMP must take care of the profession of EFL teachers in primary schools, and I think universities too have to establish EFL teacher education programs training teachers specifically for primary school context. Because as I know, the courses that I undertook during training in my university had very little to do with what I practise now.

Then school may need to widen awareness or horizons of its EFL teachers, for example by sending them to visit foreign countries, to see directly how expert EFL teachers of primary schools overseas deal with the teaching of English to young learners. I feel OK among local colleagues, but I want to compare myself to international EFL teachers of other countries who teach English as a foreign language too. School should provide teachers with a channel or a link to overseas school teachers too. Additionally, the school should provide a conducive facility such as an EFL self-access-centre with various learning materials, so children can learn independently, e.g., listening to English music, playing games, reading story books, everything that are interesting to children from which they can absorb the language. This way will lead children to learn and enjoy EFL learning even more. So I wish that I have such facility in this school.

Classroom observation field notes

Place : School 3
Individual observed : Zaharani (pseudonym): T4-S3
Date : April 25th, 2012
Duration : 70 minutes

Zaharani diobservasi pada tanggal 25 April tahun 2012, pukul 08:00 sampai 09:00. Zaharani mengajarkan topic “kata tanya WH” kepada murid kelas 3 yang berjumlah 27 orang siswa, SD Nurul Ilmi Telanaipura, Kota Jambi.

Pre-learning:

1. Sewaktu masuk kelas, guru memberi salam kepada siswa dalam Bahasa arab, “Assalamualaikum”. Siswa menjawab salam guru, juga dengan Bahasa arab, “Alaikum salam warah matullah wabarakatuh”. Ini adalah kata-kata salam yang selalu diucapkan oleh seorang Muslim bila bertemu dan berpisah dengan Muslim lainnya, kapan dan di mana saja. Di sekolah salam ini menjadi suatu keharusan. Guru harus membiasakan ucapan ini sesama guru, apalagi dengan siswa, untuk melatih siswa mempunyai akhlak yang Islamic.
2. Selanjutnya guru memberi salam kepada kelas dalam Bahasa inggris “how are you” dan semua murid menjawab dengan baik “I am fine”.
3. Kemudian guru melanjutkan dengan pertanyaan, ‘What are you?’ dan seluruh murid menjawab dengan ‘I am a student of Nurul Ilmi’. Guru bertanya lagi, ‘What day is it today?’, siswa menjawab ‘Today is Wednesday’. Guru meminta kelas untuk mengeja nama hari tersebut, dan siswa melakukan secara bersama, ‘W-e-d-n-e-s-d-a-y’.
4. Setelah itu guru mengajak kelas untuk menyanyikan lagu ‘If You Are Happy and You Know It’, secara bersama-sama.

If You're Happy and You Know It

If you're happy and you know it, clap your hands (clap clap)
If you're happy and you know it, clap your hands (clap clap)
If you're happy and you know it, then your face will surely show it
If you're happy and you know it, clap your hands. (clap clap)

If you're happy and you know it, stomp your feet (stomp stomp)
If you're happy and you know it, stomp your feet (stomp stomp)
If you're happy and you know it, then your face will surely show it
If you're happy and you know it, stomp your feet. (stomp stomp)

If you're happy and you know it, shout "Hurray!" (hoo-ray!)
If you're happy and you know it, shout "Hurray!" (hoo-ray!)
If you're happy and you know it, then your face will surely show it
If you're happy and you know it, shout "Hurray!" (hoo-ray!)

If you're happy and you know it, do all three (clap-clap, stomp-stomp, hoo-ray!)
If you're happy and you know it, do all three (clap-clap, stomp-stomp, hoo-ray!)
If you're happy and you know it, then your face will surely show it
If you're happy and you know it, do all three. (clap-clap, stomp-stomp, hoo-ray!)

While learning:

1. Guru menunjukkan kepada siswa gambar-gambar lokasi atau tempat-tempat umum seperti zoo, library, school, shopping mall, dan lain-lain. Kemudian guru meminta kelas untuk menyebutkan beberapa tempat umum selain yang sudah ditunjukkan oleh guru. Siswa menyebutkan beberapa tempat umum yang mereka ketahui, seperti ‘market’,

football field, dan lain-lain. Guru memperlihatkan kepada siswa beberapa gambar tempat umum lainnya yang menarik dan siswa diminta untuk menyebutkan nama-nama tempat tersebut satu persatu.

2. Setelah memperlihatkan gambar-gambar tempat tersebut, guru mulai memperkenalkan topik pelajaran hari ini, yaitu kata tanya 'where'. Guru menerangkan dengan menggunakan Bahasa Indonesia dan Bahasa Inggris. Guru memberi tahu arti kata tanya 'where' dalam Bahasa Indonesia, yaitu 'di mana' atau 'ke mana'. Kelihatannya, siswa dapat mengerti dengan cepat arti kata ini. Guru menerangkan bahwa kata ini kita gunakan untuk menanyakan tempat.
3. Guru mengambil gambar-gambar tempat yang sudah diperlihatkan kepada siswa sebelumnya dan menempelkan gambar seseorang yang ukurannya lebih kecil dari gambar tempat tersebut. Kemudian guru memperlihatkan gambar tersebut kepada siswa, dan membuat suatu kalimat berdasarkan konteks gambar tersebut. Misalnya, 'Ahmad is in the library'. Guru membaca kalimat ini beberapa kali, dan setelah itu meminta kelas untuk mengulang setelah guru. Ini dilakukan oleh guru dan siswa beberapa kali.
4. Kemudian guru membuat pertanyaan dengan menggunakan kata 'where' berdasarkan kalimat yang sudah ada. Where is Ahmad? Guru menuliskan ini di papan tulis dan meminta siswa untuk membaca bersama-sama, beberapa kali sampai semua siswa mengucapkan setiap kata dengan betul.
5. Kemudian guru meminta kelas untuk menjawab pertanyaan guru 'Where is Ahmad?', sambil memperlihatkan kembali gambar perpustakaan yang sudah ditempel gambar Ahmad. Siswa menjawab dengan baik, 'in the library'. Guru membenarkan jawaban kelas, 'Yes, Ahmad is in the library'. Guru memberi contoh dengan gambar-gambar lain, dan mengganti kata kerja 'is' dengan 'are', menggunakan nama atau objects.
6. Kemudian guru membagi kelas menjadi lima kelompok dan membagikan (gambar-gambar tempat, gambar orang yang sudah ada namanya, gambar benda-benda yang dikenal siswa) kepada setiap group. Siswa diminta membuat kalimat dan pertanyaan berdasarkan gambar-gambar tersebut. Siswa juga diminta membaca kalimat statement dan kalimat bertanya yang sudah mereka buat sesama mereka di dalam group. Guru berkeliling dari satu ke group yang lain untuk memastikan bahwa anak-anak dapat bekerja sama dengan baik dan mengerti apa yang harus mereka kerjakan.
7. Setelah semua group dipastikan mampu membuat kalimat dan pertanyaan menggunakan gambar, guru meminta setiap group membuat dialogues pendek (A:B; A:B; A:B) berdasarkan konteks yang mereka punya. Group yang dapat mengerjakan dengan cepat dan benar akan diberi hadiah. Anak-anak kelihatan bekerja dengan baik. Kelas kelihatan sibuk dan sangat aktif membuat dialogues dan mempraktekkan sesama mereka. Semua group dapat mengerjakan dengan baik, tapi yang pertama menyerahkan tugas mereka kepada guru mendapat nilai plus. Mereka diminta untuk memerankan dialogue yang telah mereka buat dan disaksikan oleh group yang lain.
8. Selanjutnya guru membuat pertanyaan berdasarkan konteks sekolah mereka, dengan menggunakan nama-nama guru mereka, nama tempat seperti perpustakaan, mosque, kantor sekolah dan sebagainya. Siswa dapat menjawab dengan cepat dan tepat.

Post learning;

Guru membagikan flashcards kepada siswa dan siswa, masih di dalam group, diminta memperhatikan flashcards tersebut, membuat pertanyaan-pertanyaan serta jawabannya. Setiap group diberi tahu bahwa mereka akan bertanya kepada group lain dan group tersebut harus menjawab pertanyaan group yang bertanya. Pertanyaan yang sudah ditanyakan oleh group tertentu tidak boleh di ulang oleh group lain. Guru membatasi waktu membaca dan membuat

pertanyaan sehingga tersedia cukup waktu untuk kegiatan tanya jawab antar group. Guru menilai pertanyaan dan jawaban yang diberikan oleh setiap group. Semua group mendapat giliran untuk bertanya dan menjawab pertanyaan. Kegiatan ini kelihatan sangat kompetitif dan seluruh siswa sangat aktif karena mereka ingin lebih dahulu bertanya karena khawatir pertanyaan mereka diambil oleh group lain. Tetapi pada akhirnya semua group mendapat kesempatan untuk bertanya dan menjawab pertanyaan group lain, karena jumlah pertanyaan yang dapat dikembangkan dari teks cukup memadai untuk jumlah group. Sebagian dari flashcards terlampir.

Classroom checklist

Jenis kegiatan belajar yang ditemukan selama observasi

Participants	Types of Whole-Class Work Activities									
	T-SS	QA	RP	Games	TPR	PT	AS	WR	CR	LD
T4-S3	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√

Language proficiency during classroom teaching

Language proficiency components necessary for classroom teaching	Yes	No
comprehend texts accurately;	√	
provide good language models;	√	
maintain use of the target language in the classroom	√	
maintain fluent use of the target;	√	
give explanations and instructions in the target language;	√	
provide examples of words and grammatical structures and give accurate explanations;	√	
use appropriate classroom language;	√	
select target-language resources (e.g., newspapers, magazines, the internet);	√	
monitor his or her own speech and writing for accuracy;	√	
give correct feedback on learner language;	√	
provide input at an appropriate level of difficulty	√	

(Adopted from Richards, 2011, p. 3)