

# CULTURES OF LEARNING IN INDONESIA: ENACTING THE HE LANGUAGE CURRICULUM

Thesis submitted for the degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy  
at the University of Leicester

by  
Priscilla Maria Assis Hornay  
School of Education  
University of Leicester

July 2020

## **ABSTRACT**

Cultures of Learning in Indonesia: enacting the HE language curriculum

by Priscilla Maria Assis Hornay

Learners have different preferences and approaches when it comes to language learning. It is believed that these views have cultural origins. This study aims to identify these origins by determining the students' 'cultures of learning' (Cortazzi and Jin, 1996). Although several studies have been carried out on Chinese students' cultures of learning, this study focuses on Indonesian students' cultures of learning and their teachers' perceptions of their cultures of learning and investigates the effect on students' agency and teachers' development of methods of language teaching. This study sets out to answer the following research questions: (1) What are students' cultures of learning? (2) What are teachers' perceptions of students' cultures of learning? (3) How do cultures of learning affect students' learning practices? and (4) How do teachers' perceptions of students' cultures of learning affect the enactment of the curriculum? The study used a qualitative method to capture the voices of participants, students and teachers involved in English foreign language classes at five Indonesian universities. To create trustworthy outcomes for the study, a triangulation of methods was employed for the collection of the data, including likert scale questionnaires involving 127 students, 26 unstructured classroom observations (1hr-3hr), and 21 teachers' and 30 students' semi-structured interviews (approximately 20-40min). The main findings of this study are presented in four parts. The first part discusses how students' approaches to learning are shaped by an educational-transmitted culture. The second part shows what beliefs teachers have about students' cultures of learning. Teachers' role in affiliating with the students in the classroom influenced their choices of features that influenced their practices, and how they involved students in the decision-making process. Part three of the findings outlines students' preferred cultures of learning. It was found that they mostly prefer to be 'followers', although they showed general attitudes towards certain teaching and learning methods in the classroom where a range of different approaches to learning were found likely to be more or less effective. Part four discusses teachers' current practices where there is room for students to be involved; however, the teachers may not understand that they can use students' characters and wants; they are currently not aware that this is a part of students' cultures of learning. What emerges from this current study is the importance of TESOL professionals recognising the importance of involving students' voices from their cultures of learning when planning and delivering their courses and lessons.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

Throughout the writing of this thesis, I have received a great deal of support and guidance of many wonderful individuals. I would like to extend my sincere thanks to all of them.

I consider myself fortunate to have had the opportunity to pursue a PhD degree with the guidance of my supervisor, Dr. Hugh Busher. It was only due to his valuable feedbacks, cheerful enthusiasm, and ever-friendly nature that I was able to complete this thesis. Thank you!

I'm deeply thankful to the examiners, Dr. Jim King and Professor Martin Cortazzi, for their encouragement, insightful comments, and productive rectification toward this study.

I would like to thank the authorities and participants of my research from Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta, Universitas Kristen Indonesia, Universitas Katolik Atmajaya Jakarta, Universitas Negeri Jakarta, and Universitas Katolik Widya Mandira in Indonesia for their warm welcome, their time, and for sharing their valuable experiences so willingly.

I sincerely thank LPDP, the Indonesian government, , and the University of Leicester for providing me with the opportunity to embark on this journey.

My heartfelt thanks to my family; Papa, Mama, Tiel, Jason, Fenella, Letitia, and Kai, for the prayers and constant encouragement throughout my research period. I love you all dearly.

Above all, thanks be to God the Great Almighty, the author of knowledge and wisdom, for His countless love and blessing

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT .....	ii
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	iii
LIST OF TABLES .....	vii
LIST OF FIGURES .....	viii
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION .....	1
1.1. The Background and Purpose of the Study .....	1
1.2. Context of the Current Study .....	5
1.2.1. Indonesia .....	5
1.2.1. Indonesian Education System .....	8
1.2.1.1. Primary and Secondary Education .....	8
1.2.2.2. Tertiary Education.....	9
1.2.2. Current Conditions of Indonesian Higher Education .....	10
1.3. Significance of the Study and the Research Questions .....	12
1.4. Procedures of the Study .....	13
1.5. Structure of the Thesis .....	14
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW .....	17
2.1. Culture and Cultures of Learning.....	17
2.1.1. Culture.....	17
2.1.2. Indonesian Social Culture .....	19
2.1.2.1. The Primordial Indonesian Culture .....	19
2.1.2.2. Indian Culture.....	22
2.1.2.3. Islamic Culture .....	24
2.1.2.4. Modern Culture .....	25
2.1.3. Concept of Cultures of Learning .....	28
2.1.3.1. Attitudes Towards Learning.....	29
2.1.3.2. Good Teacher and Good Student .....	30
2.1.3.3. Teacher-Student Relationship .....	32
2.1.3.4. Asking Questions and Losing Face .....	33
2.1.3.5. Textbook .....	34
2.2. Teacher Perception.....	38
2.2.1. Teacher Belief .....	38
2.2.2. Power in the Classroom .....	41

2.3. Student Agency .....	43
2.3.1. Language Learning.....	44
2.3.2. The Student-centred Learning and Communicative Language Teaching .....	49
2.3.3. Learner's Voice .....	51
2.4. Teacher Pedagogical Practices .....	54
2.4.1. Language Curriculum.....	55
2.4.2. Language Teaching .....	59
2.5. Chapter Summary .....	62
<b>CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY .....</b>	<b>63</b>
3.1. The Interpretivist Paradigm.....	63
3.2. Research Epistemology .....	65
3.2.1. Triangulation, Credibility, Transferability, and Reliability .....	65
3.2.2. Sampling .....	70
3.2.3. Piloting .....	73
3.2.4. Ethics.....	75
3.3. Research Design.....	77
3.4. Data Collection and Data Analysis .....	79
3.4.1. Questionnaire .....	80
3.4.2. Observation .....	83
3.4.3. Interview .....	85
3.4.4. Teacher Reflection .....	89
3.5. Chapter Summary .....	90
<b>CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS.....</b>	<b>91</b>
Demographic Analysis.....	93
Part I: The Indonesian Cultures of Learning.....	97
4.1.1. Learning English .....	98
4.1.2. Good Teacher.....	101
4.1.3. Good Student.....	101
4.1.4. Teacher and Student Relationship.....	102
4.1.5. Asking Questions .....	103
4.1.6. Textbook .....	105
Summary of Part I.....	105
Part II: Teachers' Perception of Students Cultures of Learning .....	106
4.2.1. Teacher Affiliation .....	106
4.2.1.1. Teacher's Acceptance of Students' Learning Cultures .....	107
4.2.1.2. Teacher's Involvement in Students Learning.....	110

4.2.1.3. Respect in Teacher Student Relationship.....	112
4.2.2. Barriers to Effective Teaching .....	114
4.2.2.1. Misconception of a Competent Learner .....	115
4.2.2.2. Students Characteristics .....	116
Summary of Part II.....	118
Part III: The Effect of Cultures of Learning on Students’ Classroom Learning .....	119
4.3.1 Managing Classroom and Students Preferences .....	119
4.3.1.1. Teacher’s Pedagogic Control .....	119
4.3.1.2. Students’ Preferences .....	121
4.3.2. Classroom Discussions.....	124
4.3.3. Power Point Presentations.....	126
4.3.4. Barriers of Effective Learning.....	128
4.3.4.1. Teacher Issues .....	129
4.3.4.2. Students Issues .....	130
Summary of Part III .....	132
Part IV: The Effect of Teachers’ Perception on Their Pedagogical Practices .....	133
4.4.1. Teachers Actual Views on Students’ Cultures of Learning .....	133
4.4.1.1. Knowledge Acquisition.....	134
4.4.1.2. Learning as a Social Activity .....	135
4.4.1.3. Autodidact Learning.....	136
4.4.2. Teachers’ Responses to Students’ Cultures of Learning .....	138
4.4.2.1. Factors Influencing Teachers Practice .....	138
4.4.2.2. Teacher-directed Approach and Multiple Teaching Methods.....	143
4.4.2.3. Students Involvement: Challenges and Teacher’s Current Effort.....	147
Summary of Part IV .....	151
4.5. Chapter Summary .....	151
<b>CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF CULTURES OF LEARNING AND THE PEDAGOGY OF ENGLISH EDUCATION CURRICULUM ENACTMENT.....</b>	<b>153</b>
5.1. What are students’ cultures of learning? .....	153
5.2. What are teachers’ perceptions of students’ cultures of learning? .....	158
5.3. How do cultures of learning affect students’ classroom practices of learning? .....	161
5.4. How do teachers’ perception of students’ cultures of learning affect their pedagogical practices?.....	165
5.5. Chapter Summary .....	171
<b>CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION, CONTRIBUTION AND REFLECTION .....</b>	<b>173</b>
6.1. The Research Findings.....	173

6.2. The Contribution of the Study.....	175
6.3. Reflection of the Study.....	176
6.4. Suggestion for further Studies.....	178
APPENDICES .....	179
Appendix A: Hofstede's Cultural Dimension .....	179
Appendix B: Participant Information Sheet.....	182
Appendix C: Consent Form .....	186
Appendix D: Letter of Permission to Conduct Research .....	187
Appendix E: Questionnaire for Students.....	188
Appendix F: SPSS Output of Tabular Analysis Sample .....	193
Appendix G: Observation Note Sheet.....	195
Appendix H: Interview Form for Teachers and Students .....	196
Appendix I: Sample of NVIVO Coding.....	198
Appendix J: Demographic Analysis.....	201
Appendix K: SPSS Output Of T-Test of Two Universities Sample .....	204
Appendix L: Teacher Reflection.....	206
Bibliography .....	220

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1. Research question and the questionnaire .....	81
Table 3.2. Research Questions and Notes in an Observation Form .....	84
Table 3.3. Research Questions and the Interview Questions.....	86
Table 4.1. Summary of Major Themes and Sub-Themes .....	92
Table 4.2. Institution Profiles .....	93
Table 4.3. Students Views in Learning .....	98
Table 4.4. Learning Preferences .....	99
Table 4.5. Challenges in Learning English.....	99
Table 4.6. Summary of Approaches to Learning English Skills .....	100
Table 4.7. Good Teacher.....	101
Table 4.8. Good Student .....	102
Table 4.9. Teacher Student Relationship .....	103
Table 4.10. Not Asking Questions.....	103
Table 4.11. Asking Questions.....	104
Table 4.12. The Use of Textbook .....	105



## **LIST OF FIGURES**

Figure 2.1. Teacher Interpersonal Circle (Wubbels et al., 2006).....	43
Figure 2.2. Knud Illeris' Three Dimensions of Learning (Illeris 2007, p.26).....	48
Figure 2.3. The Indonesian Characteristics of Student-centred Learning (DIKTI, 2016).....	50
Figure 5.1. Cultures of Learning in TESOL Context.....	169

## **CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION**

Learners have different views, beliefs, expectations and approaches when it comes to language learning. Researchers believed that these views have cultural origins. Although several studies have been carried out on Chinese students' cultures of learning, this study focuses on Indonesian students' cultures of learning at five universities in Indonesia and, their teachers' perception of cultures of learning and investigates the effect on students' agency and teachers' development of methods of language teaching that empower teachers and give students voices in developing their own language learning.

### **1.1. The Background and Purpose of the Study**

The background of conducting this study is based on my personal interest in understanding the different characteristics of learners' ways of learning in a multicultural context. I myself was raised in a diverse culture and language society. I'm an East Timorese of Portuguese decent. Being born under the Indonesian occupation of East Timor, I am able to speak Indonesian language, Tetum and East Timorese Portuguese. I lived in New Zealand for three years when I was eight years old, therefore, English has also become one of my second languages. I decided to become an English teacher when I pursued my study in Indonesia in 2003 until 2007 majoring in English Education. I did my Masters in TESOL and Applied Linguistics in Australia from 2012 to 2013. As an English education teacher for seven years at a tertiary education institution in Indonesia who has experienced learning abroad in East Timor, Indonesia, New Zealand, Australia, and currently in the United Kingdom, I have come to consider the importance of understanding the models of values that teachers and students expect from one another that might determine successful learning. The 'Westernization' and 'Asianization' of cultures in the context of education, have increased my attention to literature discussing the stereotypes of Asian learners and the issues they face when exposed to a multicultural classroom situation.

Indonesia, as a culturally diverse country in Asia, having a variety of ethnicities and cultures, has been excluded from investigation. Although, the social psychologist Hofstede, in his work on cultural dimension (1986) has categorized Indonesia within

Asian society being high on power distance and low on uncertainty avoidance, high on collectivism, and low on femininity, the research is left culturally questionable (see chapter 2, section 2.1.2).

Reflecting on the seven years of my teaching experience, I have arrived at a provisional submission that the concept of cultures of learning proposed by Cortazzi and Jin (1996a) may actually be integrated in the tertiary curriculum of Indonesia since the curriculum reform offers a space for involving students in the pedagogy of curriculum enactment. I learned that the University of Leicester has implemented research on similar topics and may offer a supervisor with the same area of research interest. This then motivated me to come to Leicester to undertake a postgraduate research project focusing on the afore-mentioned issues.

Cultures are dynamic, and multifaceted, and how culture influences an individual is far from clear, however, I expected that this study may lead to an understanding of Indonesian language learners and the validation of their voices.

The reformed Indonesian higher education is currently being implemented an institutional-based curriculum; in which teachers are expected to be responsible for the development of the curriculum by setting learning outcomes, content and assessment for teaching and learning. This responsibility is also challenging English education teachers to change teaching from teacher-centred to student-centred learning. Teachers then need to think and design the necessary procedures in order to accomplish the expected outcomes especially in involving students' needs in the process. Therefore, in designing a course, there is an urge to undergo a process of identifying students' needs which can be used by teachers to find out the best practices to involve students in their own learning.

The 'learner-centred movement in ESL (English as a Second Language)/EFL (English as a Foreign Language)' (Nunan, 1988, p.21) has also become an interesting subject in the quest for cultivating a better education in Indonesia because of the several failures of teachers to improve learners' competence in English language (Madya, 2002; Mattarima and Hamdam, 2011; Larson, 2014; Sulistiyo, 2015). The issue of improving learners' competence in English language then encourages the government to give greater attention to improving the quality of English teacher education.

Focusing on teachers' preparations in the classroom by understanding learners' differences becomes a key factor to the success of the learning process (Mattarima and

Hamdam, 2011, p.102). Therefore, one of the crucial elements in the student-centred approach to learning English is to investigate students' perceptions of their beliefs and needs in order to facilitate learning activities (Nunan, 1988; Choi and Nunan, 2018).

Involving the students in the process of deciding the best practices for their learning can be examined further in teacher's pedagogical practices. Since 'it includes the teacher's subject matter knowledge, the repertoire of techniques and activities that the teacher employs in teaching together with the theories, beliefs, principles, values and ideas which are their sources' (Richards, 2017, p.9). Pedagogy knowledge is closely related to the knowledge of the teaching methods, curriculum, context, and the learner (Harmer, 2003; Brown, 2007; Richards, 2013, 2017). Therefore, the procedures include trying to identify and take into account a multiplicity of affective and cognitive variables which affect learning, such as learners' attitudes, motivation, awareness, personality, wants, expectations, and learning styles (Moore, 2012).

I asserted that identifying students' needs is related to the understanding of their cultures of learning. It is described as "taken for granted expectations, beliefs about what constitutes good learning, about how to teach or learn, whether and how to ask questions, what textbooks are for, and how language teaching relates to broader issues of the nature and purpose of education" (Cortazzi and Jin, 1996a, p.169). When students come from different cultural backgrounds, this may influence their ways of learning because the culture of learning is often influenced by social and "practical constraint factors such as age, ability, gender, language syllabus, exams, materials, and immediate classroom context" (Cortazzi and Jin, 1996a, p.169-170). As Indonesia has a significantly high level of cultural diversity (Mardiana, 2008), it is worth considering contextualizing the educational curriculum according to students' ways of learning, which has a cultural origin.

By researching students' cultures of learning and the effect on their learning and teachers' practices, students and teachers can be benefited in several ways. For the students, it is not necessarily only about understanding their views and preferences in learning but also on how they work together with their teacher and peers in developing, adapting, extending, and adopting different approaches that is effective in their own particular context (Cortazzi and Jin, 2013). This then gives greater space for the validation of students' social identities and cultural voices; from this they can develop other ways

of learning English. In addition, this can be a potential resource for them to identify the challenges and potential resources for their learning development.

In an Indonesian context, students were not given the opportunity to be responsible for their own learning, rather they tended to follow what the teacher directed them to do. Therefore, giving them the chance to voice their views by recognising their cultures of learning, they would be encouraged to become what they believe to be a good learner and to explore what they think of as efficient learning. ‘A culture of learning holds the potential to address both the behaviour problems and academic performance of students’ (Weeks, 2012, p.340).

For teachers, investigating learners’ culture of learning gives a different point of view of learning which perhaps, in their current practices are mainly based on their own beliefs and experiences. It suggested the importance of peer-dialogue and teacher-student discussion about ways of learning to develop local, contextualized ways of learning (Cortazzi and Jin, 2013) in order to involve students that goes beyond surveys, interviews, and other needs analysis procedures (Fairfield and Richards, 2007; Taylor and Robinson, 2009; Seale, 2010; McLeod, 2011; Bao, 2013; Kane and Chimwayange, 2014; Brooman, *et al.*, 2015).

Different students have different needs, and the information gathered through the needs assessment process can help a teacher to make choices about what to teach and how to teach it (Graves, 1996, 2000; Moore, 2012), and an important point is that it ‘is influenced by the teacher’s view of what the course is about, the institutional constraints, and the students’ perception of what is being asked of them’ (Graves, 1996, p.16). Teachers may use this opportunity to develop appropriate learning outcomes, prepare better learning aids, decide on more contextualized teaching methods and conduct a more valid and reliable assessment.

Furthermore, this study can give insight into the development of the Indonesian National Qualifications Framework by providing innovations on the process of developing the language curriculum. This includes giving the Indonesian curriculum developer the motivation to focus on course development by the teachers. The recent curriculum document (DIKTI, 2016) established by the Indonesian ministry of education only provides the broader steps of curriculum development that focuses on constructing learning outcomes without providing steps on how to develop courses in order to achieve

the proposed learning outcomes. The steps include the needs analysis process that may assist in developing student-centred learning.

As this study has developed an understanding of the cultures of learning, the national curriculum developers can reflect on the result of this study that understanding cultures of learning that refer to the ‘individual differences among students like motivation and strategies is necessary as the constructive contribution to design well-designed curriculum, syllabus, lesson plan, and teaching materials’ (Mattarima and Hamdam, 2011, p.102).

The main aim of this study is to focus on the process where teachers gather information about their learners by identifying their ‘expectations, attitudes, beliefs, values, perceptions, preferences, experiences and behaviours with regards to teaching and learning’ (Hu, 2002 in Shi, 2006, p.122) in order to understand better the pedagogic choices teachers make when enacting the curriculum.

The expected outcomes for this study are: (1) gaining a clearer understanding of some Indonesian students’ cultures of learning, (2) teachers understand that in the needs analysis process they will obtain information on student's preferences, attitudes and characteristics of learning, even though they are not aware that it is a part of cultures of learning, (3) the teachers will have an understanding of cultures of learning and pay more attention on students’ cultures of learning in the classroom since this may help teacher and students to develop strategies that may assist them in recognizing, appreciating and valuing alternative approaches to learning.

## **1.2. Context of the Current Study**

### **1.2.1. Indonesia**

Based on the Statistical Yearbook of Indonesia 2018 (Sub-directorate of Statistical Compilation and Publication, 2018), as an archipelagic country, Indonesia consists of thousands of islands interconnected by straits and seas having 17,504 islands of its own. The country has 34 provinces, 633 ethnic groups, and around 746 local languages. Indonesia remains one of the most populated countries with an estimated population of 261 million in 2017. The motto of the country is ‘unity in diversity’, which reflects the

diversity of ethnicities, cultures, and languages. These differences can be seen when a person from a western region of Indonesia might share a totally different tradition, lifestyle and religion (Indonesia-Investments, 2016). The gap is wider between these regions since the western region of Indonesia has a higher human development compared to the eastern region (Sub-directorate of Statistical Compilation and Publication, 2018). Therefore, in the current study, I have taken five universities as the sample of the study – four from the western (Java) and one from the eastern (Timor) part of Indonesia.

The region in the southern part of Java island where institution 1 is located is the centre of the Javanese culture – the largest ethnicity and culture in Indonesia, which has long been known to hold a strong cultural value that has shaped how the Javanese think and interact with one another. They are characterised as being unobtrusive and polite, amiable, hardworking, and speak and act to others differently based on age and social status (Mulder, 1989; Sumartono, 2009). The Javanese adopt a bilateral kinship system that gives an equal role to females and males in their society. The dominant religion is Muslim (96.53%) and most are Javanese (96.53%) by ethnicity. The region is economically developed which the Gross Domestic Regional Product (GRDP) currently worth 31.31 trillion rupiahs (Sub-directorate of Statistical Compilation and Publication, 2018). Institution 2, 3, and 4 is located in north western part of Java which was colonized by the Dutch East Indies before it was occupied by the Empire of Japan during World War II and become independent as a part of Indonesia in 1945. This region as the centre of national politics and economics, is the melting pot of many cultures (Indonesia-Investments, 2016). Starting from the colonial era - when the city was known as Batavia - people came from all corners of the archipelago to this developing megacity in search of a livelihood. As a consequence this region currently has a population of almost ten million people (Sub-directorate of Statistical Compilation and Publication, 2018). The distance from the area of cultural origin, however, has resulted in a fading of some cultural features of these people, but they have been 'enriched' by a distinct urban culture (Indonesia-Investments, 2016). The religion of the people in the region is dominated by Muslim (83.43%) and the dominant ethnicities are Javanese (36.17%) and Betawi (28.29%). As of 2018, this region contributes about 17% of Indonesia's GRDP. In 2017, the economic growth was 6.22%. Throughout the same year, the total value of investment was Rp. 108.6 trillion, an increase of 84.7% from the previous year (Sub-directorate of Statistical Compilation and Publication, 2018).

In contrast, the region in the eastern part of Indonesia, which is the home of Institution 5, has a variety of diverse cultures in the form of customs, traditions, arts, and languages. The people are known to be tough or resilient, assertive, and adopt a patriarchy social system (Yuliawati, 2011). The dominant ethnicity is Timorese (22%) and mostly Catholic (51%). This region is economically underdeveloped compared to the Indonesian average growth with high inflation (15%), unemployment (30%) and interest rates (22-24%), making it one of the poorest provinces in Indonesia (Sub-directorate of Statistical Compilation and Publication, 2018). Therefore, there could be a tendency that these differences and gaps may also influence the learning cultures of each individual or groups of learners in Indonesia.

Since its independence in 1945, Indonesia has become a nation which is built on a multicultural and multi-ethnic society under one unity. This pluralistic society and cultural condition is integrated into the framework of nationalism that binds local solidarity into national solidarity. Indonesia is categorized into several characteristics of national or social culture where the highest index sets Indonesia as collectivism, large power distance, weak uncertainty avoidance and feminine society (Hofstede, 1986).

However, rapid change in information technology has transformed the culture of most of Indonesian society, especially those living in urban areas (Alif, 2016). Communication technology evolves from year to year and this development is due to the influence of globalization and the impact of developed countries. Such a process of transformation takes place in a society that leads to the realization of a new national culture called modern Indonesian culture (Sukardi and Subandowo, 2014, p.100). Although Indonesia is a sovereign and independent nation state, its responses to national economic management, development imperatives and education are informed by its relationship to global policy production institutions, and global policy frameworks such as Education For All (UNESCO, 2014) and the Millennium Development Goals (UN, 2014) where the goal is to equip Indonesia with the tools to face all the changes in this globalization era.

The Indonesian government realises that there should be a fundamental shift in the paradigm of education in the forms of (a) a change from the views of the local people's lives to the global community, (b) a shift from social cohesion to democratic participation



(primarily in civic education and practice), and (c) a shift from economic growth to the development of humanity (DIKTI, 2014).

### **1.2.1. Indonesian Education System**

#### **1.2.1.1. Primary and Secondary Education**

Primary and secondary education curriculum in Indonesia is implementing the 2013 competency-based curriculum or the outcome-based curriculum. The graduate competency Standard contains three components: process, content and the environmental or the application of the components of the process and content. Components of the process is the basic ability to review and process the content into competence. The content component is the ability to use the knowledge to transform into a competent human being as a result of education. The environment is also an important element in which learners may engage and shape their social and interpersonal skills (KEMENDIKBUD, 2012).

The Indonesian primary and secondary curriculum structure consists of (a) a number of subjects such as Religion Education, Mathematics, Indonesian Language, Arts, and Civic Education; (b) course time allocation, where a timetable on each of the above courses has an allocation of three to six hours of teaching learning every week; and (c) an education calendar which informs the dates of school-based and national exam periods. Curriculum implementation is a joint effort between the central government and provincial and local government (district or city) with the following responsibilities:

1. The government is responsible for preparing teachers and principals to implement the curriculum.
2. The government is responsible for evaluating the implementation of the national curriculum.
3. The provincial government is responsible for the supervision and evaluation of the implementation of the curriculum in the province.
4. Local governments or municipalities are responsible for providing professional assistance to teachers and principals to implement the curriculum in the district or city.

(KEMENDIKBUD 2012, p.18)

#### **1.2.2.2. Tertiary Education**

The reform movement in Indonesia in general demanded the application of the principles of democracy, autonomy and decentralization in Indonesia. Education law No. 20, 2003 on the National Education System is a response to the demands for education reform. In line with the principle of decentralization, Act No. 32, 2004 and Government Regulation No. 38, 2007 regulate the operation and management of education under the authority of the government, provincial government and district or municipal government. The National Education Act stipulates that the Minister of Education and Culture is responsible for the management of the national education system. The government determines national policies and national education standards to ensure the quality of national education. The provincial government is responsible for coordinating the organization of education, development of educational personnel, and the provision of facilities for education provision across the district or municipal to the level of primary and secondary education. District or municipal governments manage basic education and secondary education, as well as the educational unit of local excellence. Higher education determines policy and each university has autonomy in managing their own institution (DIKTI 2014).

Ministry of National Education Decree No. 232/2000 stipulates that Indonesian National Curriculum consists of two types of curriculum: a core curriculum and an institutional curriculum. This is elaborated in Decree No. 045/2000 which states that the core curriculum is the main curriculum designed by educational professionals in the ministry of education while the institutional curriculum is developed by the institution or study program, using the core curriculum as its basis. This decree gives an authority to schools and universities to develop their own curriculum based on the context of their teaching and learning. Hernawan and Susilana (2010, p.1) pointed out that this decree implies that the curriculum is no longer developed by central government as were previous curricula (1968 curriculum, 1975 curriculum, 1984 curriculum, 1994 curriculum and 1999 curriculum), rather it is decentralized. Furthermore, Indonesia's Academic Directorate of Higher Education (Direktorat Akademik, 2008) explains that the change is encouraged by the autonomy given for higher education to decide and develop their own curriculum.

The purpose of allowing autonomy in developing the curriculum is to provide opportunities for every educational institution in Indonesia to analyse the needs of their students in order to bring forth the most appropriate teaching content or materials for their students. The needs comprise elements of learner's attitudes and values, ability, knowledge, and responsibility or rights (DIKTI, 2008). If these elements are considered by every institution in designing their curriculum, it is believed that Indonesian graduates will become superior individuals with strong and ingenuous characters (DIKTI, 2014).

However, due to the problems of poor quality found in higher education in Indonesia caused by unclear learning outcomes, insufficient learning aids, ineffective teaching methods, and unclear assessment (DIKTI, 2014), the Indonesian government decided that in order to overcome the challenges and compete with graduates all around the world it is important to set standards of a qualified education. These standards are set out in a Presidential Regulation No. 08 in 2012. This obligates higher education institutions in Indonesia to implement what is known as *Kerangka Kualifikasi Nasional Indonesia* (KKNI) or the Indonesian National Qualifications Framework (DIKTI, 2014). This qualification framework will assist higher education institutions in setting learning outcomes based on the framework set by the ministry of education, which in turn would create an equality of education throughout the country.

As a part of this qualification framework, the Indonesian Academic Directorate of Higher Education promotes and encourages higher education institutions to shift from teacher-centred learning towards the student-centred learning. The reason for implementing student-centred learning is to accommodate the participation of students, democracy in learning and to meet their creativity, capacity, and needs (DIKTI, 2014).

### **1.2.2. Current Conditions of Indonesian Higher Education**

Learning conditions in higher education in Indonesia are still quite diverse. The central government under the Curriculum Development of Higher Education Team, Directorate of Higher Education, which has conducted training on curriculum development throughout regions in Indonesia, has found that the main problems of most higher education are: (a) the lack of preparation of the faculty in preparing the learning devices before learning; (b) the vagueness of the formulation of learning outcomes; (c)

the vagueness of strategy and learning methods; (d) the uncertainty of whether the strategies and methods of learning are the right choices to bring the learning outcomes that have been set; (e) the assessment tends to focus on a scoring or value to students rather than providing guidance to unlock their potential; (f) the instruments for assessment tends to rely on the summative assessment not on the formative assessment (DIKTI, 2014, p.49). The conditions may indicate that the understanding of the teachers on effective learning is still weak or that they are still less concerned with learning outcomes, strategies and teaching methods, as well as how to conduct a proper assessment (DIKTI, 2008, 2014, 2016).

Besides issues on classroom preparation, observation results found that the methods of delivering materials are not effective since teachers tend to deliver monotone lectures and students seem to face problems in understanding materials provided by the lecturers (DIKTI, 2014). Such habits need to be changed, because students become passive. The pattern of the learning processes of active instructor and students can only be maintained by the urge for expectations (effort); the ability of the learning process; and an opportunity to express learning materials obtained in the real world or society (DIKTI, 2008, p.22).

Patterns of Teacher-centred learning (TCL) as practiced at present are not sufficient to achieve the Indonesian national learning outcomes, therefore, learning should be pushed forward into student-centred learning (SCL) by focusing on expected outcomes from the learners (DIKTI, 2014, p.52). Learner-centred learning may promote the development of creativity, capacity, personality, and the needs of students, and the development of independence in searching and finding knowledge. Students should be encouraged to have the motivation within themselves and strive to achieve the desired learning outcomes. The study of learners' perceptions is a key element of current learner-centred approaches, since teachers need to consider students' beliefs and needs in order to facilitate learning activities (Nunan, 1988).

Changes in the approach from TCL to SCL is a paradigm shift, in the way of looking at crucial elements in learning, namely; (a) knowledge, from the belief that knowledge is seen as something that is transferred from teachers to students, to becoming knowledge that is seen as a result of construction or transformation by the learner, (b) learning, from receiving knowledge (passive-receptive) to finding and constructing

knowledge in an active and specific way, (c) teaching learning process, from teachers imparting knowledge (teachers and courses) to becoming a teacher participating with students to build knowledge (DIKTI, 2014). With this paradigm, the three principles that must exist in learning through SCL is (a) view knowledge as something that is not yet complete, (b) view learning as a process to reconstruct and seek knowledge to be learned; and (c) focus on the learning process rather than the process of teaching (DIKTI, 2014). Therefore, the focus of the current study is on the current practices of bringing forwards students' needs, which in this case, includes recognizing, developing and transforming their cultures of learning to facilitate and improve their classroom learning experiences.

### **1.3. Significance of the Study and the Research Questions**

In recent years, academics, especially TESOL professionals, have investigated the cultures of learning of learners around the world including China (Shi, 2006), East Africa (Abd-Kadir and Hardman, 2013), Hong Kong (Glenwright, 2000), Lebanon (Bacha and Bahous, 2013), Vietnam (Bao, 2013), Malaysia (Rahim and Manan, 2013), Kazakstan (Makhanova and Cortazzi, 2013), Iran (Nemati and Kaivanpanah, 2013), and Japan (Falout *et al.*, 2013). This study will contribute theoretically, to the cultures of learning in Indonesia which have never been investigated. This will bring insights into how Indonesian learners learn English and might become a source for other researchers that are interested in comparing Indonesian cultures of learning with other cultures of learning, or at least a reference to understand more about Indonesian learners. This can be a theoretical framework for inserting cultures of learning into developing the language curriculum.

In addition, the concept of cultures of learning has only been researched by identifying and understanding cultures of learning, comparing cultures of learning, and exploring changes in culture heritages and learning (Cortazzi and Jin, 2013). The comparison of these cultures of learning has been researched on cultures of two different countries and more.

Certain educational issues, especially in the area of English language education in Indonesia, are caused by the fact that teachers are not giving sufficient attention to the design of their course. Although, they are given the autonomy to develop the curriculum,

this is not guided properly. One of the ways of giving teachers input into developing themselves and their teaching expertise is by introducing them to cultures of learning. The provisional submission is not only presenting them with this concept but in addition, is giving them a description of how this concept can be seen in their daily pedagogical practices. Most importantly, this will impact on the learners' learning development since the learners' voices are also involved in the process.

I would like to discover how teachers in Indonesia perceive and practice cultures of learning in developing a language curriculum since this 'involves exploring many learning or teaching related questions such as how to learn and teach, what the criteria of good learners or teachers are and what the purposes of learning might be' (Shi, 2006, p. 123). Involving teachers' and students' voices in language curriculum development will bring a new insight into the development of the language curriculum in Indonesia.

Therefore, the main research questions are as follows:

- (1) What are students' cultures of learning?
- (2) What are teachers' perceptions of students' cultures of learning?
- (3) How do cultures of learning affect students' classroom learning practices?
- (4) How do teachers' perceptions of students' cultures of learning affect their pedagogy of curriculum enactment?

#### **1.4. Procedures of the Study**

As I want to find out what participants in the study think about students' cultures of learning, I have followed the interpretivist paradigm in which the findings were not generalized but subjectively shaped by context. This study uses mixed methods to capture the voices of participants, students and teachers involved in English foreign language classes. To create trustworthy outcomes for the study, a triangulation of methods is employed for the collection of data, including student questionnaires, classroom observations, and teacher and student interviews.

This study is focused on Indonesian higher education; therefore, the participants were the teaching staff and students at the English Education study program. They were chosen from five universities in two different regions in Indonesia. The five universities were chosen because they are located in two regions which are culturally, socially,

geographically, and economically distinct from each other. The population for this study included teaching staffs and students at each university. There were 127 students overall from Institution 1 and Institution 5 who were involved in completing the likert scale questionnaires, with 26 unstructured classroom observations, and 15 teaching staffs and 30 students (15 students from Institution 1 and 15 students from Institution 2) involved in the semi structured interviews. The samples were chosen purposively based on certain criteria (see chapter 3, section 3.2.2).

This case study was implemented sequentially in three phases. The first phase is implementing the questionnaire. This questionnaire is used in order to answer the first question: what are the students' cultures of learning? This question refers to students' beliefs and experiences of learning. The result of the questionnaire became the baseline for conducting the observation and interview in the second and third phase.

The second phase, which is the classroom observation is conducted using the data gathered from the questionnaire to answer question 3: How do cultures of learning affect students' classroom learning practices?, and to research question 4: How do teachers' perception of students' cultures of learning affect their pedagogy of curriculum enactment?

The third phase is implementing the interviews with the students and teachers, which is used to strengthen the findings of the study using the data gathered from the questionnaire and the observation to answer research question 2: What are teachers' perception on students' cultures of learning?, Question 3: How do cultures of learning affect students' classroom learning practices?, and research question 4: How do teachers' perception of students' cultures of learning affect their pedagogy of curriculum enactment?

The procedures of conducting this study are further explained in the Methodology chapter of this thesis.

## **1.5. Structure of the Thesis**

I have explained in this chapter the background of conducting the study looking at the current condition of higher education in Indonesia and how I believe this can be

improved through recognising students' cultures of learning. The chapter also highlighted the gap in knowledge that this study is trying to address by looking at cultures of learning in Indonesia and its implication in the students' agency and teachers' pedagogy of curriculum enactment. In addition, I have also described the triangulation of methods - questionnaire, classroom observation, and interview - as the tools to gather the data for the current study.

The next chapter presents relevant literature that explains comprehensively how cultures and cultures of learning are related to students' language learning and the relations between teacher perception and the choices they make in their pedagogical practices.

Chapter 3 highlights in detail the methodology in terms of the justification of the research paradigm and epistemology. I have also highlighted the research design where I explain the procedures of data collection and data analysis of the study.

Chapter 4 presents the findings of the study which consists of four parts. Although, the themes from each research questions are very closely related to one another, I decided to explain them separately because of the weight of evidence that I found in the research data. Part I: the Indonesian students' cultures of learning, highlights the findings derived from the questionnaire in answering the first research question: what are the students' cultures of learning? This part focuses on students' views on learning, good teacher, good student, teacher and student relationship, textbook, and asking questions. Part II presents the answer to the second research question which is taken from the interview with the teachers about their perception on students' cultures of learning. It mainly discusses teachers' affiliation with the students and their pedagogic control. Part III presents the data from the interviews and observations, which are used to answer the third research question: How do cultures of learning affect students' classroom learning practices? This highlights students' voices. Part IV presents the answer to research question 4: How do teacher perception of students' cultures of learning affect their pedagogy of curriculum enactment? The data is derived from the interview and observation data that pointed out teachers' actual views on students learning cultures and their current efforts to involve students in the pedagogy of curriculum enactment.

Chapter 5 discusses and compares the findings in the previous chapter with relevant literature. This is divided into four parts based on the research questions.



Chapter 6 presents the conclusion of the study focusing mainly on its contribution to the field of language education, with my reflections on the overall process of how the current study was conducted.

## **CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW**

In this chapter, I will consider in detail the notion of cultures of learning and explain how this could be identified in teachers' practices that indirectly involve their beliefs and students' voices in the learning and teaching of English language.

### **2.1. Culture and Cultures of Learning**

#### **2.1.1. Culture**

Culture is 'a dynamic system of rules, explicit and implicit, established by groups in order to ensure their survival, involving attitudes, values, beliefs, norms, and behaviours, shared by a group but harboured differently by each specific unit within the group, communicated across generations, relatively stable but with the potential to change across time' (Matsumoto 2000, p.24). Culture is 'multiple and complex' (Atkinson 1999, p.647), therefore, Duranti (1997) simplified the concept of culture by pointing out common views of culture that people often imbed when defining culture, in which 'culture is distinct from nature, culture is knowledge, culture as communication, culture as system of mediation, culture as system of practices, and culture as system of participation' (pp.24-46). However, from the concept of culture arose the issue of 'where is culture located?' (Chang 2008, p.16), whether within individuals or belonging to groups. Spack (1997), Atkinson (1999), Grimshaw (2007) and Kumaravadivelu (2014) argued that culture should not lead to the generalization and or stereotyping of individuals as belonging to certain cultural groups. 'The stereotype may be accurate in depicting the "typical" member of a culture, but it is inaccurate for describing a particular individual, simply because every person is unique and all of a person's behavioural characteristics cannot be accurately predicted on the basis of an overgeneralized median point along a continuum of cultural norms' (Brown 2007, p.191).

Therefore, Holliday (2013) described the basic elements of culture as consisting of particular social and political structures, underlying universal processes, and cultural products. He explained that these elements are connected to each other in an open dialogue between the individual and social structure. An individual is brought up with certain cultural resources such as ideology, religion, education and so on, which is

influenced by global position and politics (how we position ourselves) and personal trajectories such as family, ancestry, and peers. In the level of personal trajectories, an individual is able to explore and create a dialogue in new and foreign domains of other particular social and political structures where small culture is formed, leading to particular cultural products; artefacts and discourse of and about culture, and expressions of self and other.

In the formation of small culture (Holliday, 2013) members may ‘share certain patterns of thought, ways of understanding the world, making inferences and predictions’ (Duranti 1997, p.27). Individuals design, plan, and implement a small culture formation through categories of cultural actions which includes the afore-mentioned cultural elements that generally begins with a statement about culture and is shaped by the underlying universal cultural processes that includes the process of routinisation (Holliday, 2013).

In the routinisation process, certain behaviours and values which are influenced by religion, social status and gender role are accepted to be normal, being embedded and shared within an individual’s community. In the educational context for example, this includes certain routines about the role of teacher in the classroom, and the “ideal” teacher and student relationship. Consequently, ‘when encountering a very strange cultural event, it will be such routines that a newcomer will need to recognise and learn’ (Holliday, 2013, p.49). The routines then become rituals, reification, and dualities. In the ritualization process, the routines become formal practices that are connected to for example, issues of hierarchies, obedience, and behavioural monitoring. This then leads to the process reification, the process of becoming a real, normal and routine part of everyday institutional life’ (Holliday, 2013) that results in dualities. In this process, individuals end up with new practices that they might try to adapt or resist towards the relationship between self and other. Chang (2008), in defining ‘self’ and ‘other’, came to the conclusion that ‘individual culture does not, and should not, imply that culture is about the psychological workings of an individual; rather it refers to individual versions of group cultures that are formed, shared, retained, altered, and sometimes shed through human interactions’ (p.17).

One of the ways that culture groups can share their cultural products is by learning a language in the classroom since learning is included as a knowledge, practice, and participation cultural system and a part of human features that reflects someone as an

individual or as a member of cultural group. A classroom environment is said to be culturally or symbolically inclusive (Moore, 2012) because normally the adoption of pedagogic practices by the teachers in institutionalised schools, and the curricula, impose themselves onto a fixed or altered culture.

However, a struggle appears when one is tempted to learn a new language: should they learn by adopting the target culture of learning or ‘use cultural ways of learning to learn a language’ (Cortazzi and Jin 1996, p.173). As Brown (2007, pp.189-190) stated ‘the acquisition of second language is also the acquisition of second culture’. Researchers (Canagarajah, 1993; Holliday, 2010; Rizvi, 2011) consider this an act of creating a political or ideological domination of certain dominant cultures in shaping the learning process. However, ‘it is possible for subordinate groups to discover the liberatory elements in their own cultures that will enable them to develop critical consciousness and resist domination just as dominant groups will negotiate these oppositional strategies with their own acts of appropriation’ (Canagarajah 1999, pp.31-32). Therefore, to know whether it is necessary or not to adopt a certain target learning culture, and avoid the so-called ‘imperialism’ in learning a language (Canagarajah, 1993) it is worth learning about the cultures of learning of a certain community, which in this study is Indonesia.

### **2.1.2. Indonesian Social Culture**

The culture of Indonesia is relatively diverse and highly shaped and influenced by its history (Ranjabar, 2016). In order to understand Indonesian cultures of learning, it is necessary to understand the culture and development of its society, which are derived from various ethnicities, languages, and beliefs. The development of culture in Indonesia is affected by five big cultures; Indonesian culture, Indian culture, Islamic culture, and modern culture (Alisjahbana, 1982).

#### **2.1.2.1. The Primordial Indonesian Culture**

In Indonesia there were many regional languages, ethnic groups, arts, traditional and clothing before the arrival of Indian culture. The primordial Indonesian culture was formed because of interactions and adjustments to Indonesia's geographical conditions.

This culture has elements that represent Indonesian characteristics. The composition of society was small communities gathered in a village or travelling within a certain area. These communities could be compared to smaller democratic republics; the leader was chosen by the descendants of the oldest tribal branch, which administered all the needs and interests of the society assisted by a council of old men in the village (Bachtiar and Soebadio, 1987). Important decisions were taken together in a discussion.

In this era, it was the responsibility of the village government to uphold tradition and to solve any cases that may arise. Meanwhile, the leader's duties in Indonesian primordial society were many compared to the modern culture, including organizing marriages, cultivation, land distribution, inheritance sharing, and as well as managing the daily needs of the community.

One main characteristic of the Indonesian primordial community was the importance of blood relations (Koentjaraningrat, 2015; Ranjabar, 2016). The alliance was made up of one or more tribes; the relationships within and between tribes were being governed by tradition. In Indonesian primordial tradition, several order patterns determined how to account descent, marital status, land rights, and inheritance issues. The two basic orders of relatives were; patrilineal and matrilineal, on the other hand, there was the same order of kinship for both men and women (Alisjahbana, 1982; Ranjabar, 2016). Because the federations of the village were united by the same tradition, the same descent and the same place of residence, as well as having their own inherited land and inheritance - the descent, one of the patterns of alliance – there was a close collaboration between its members, not only at weddings, deaths or births, but also when people set up houses and worked on the land. They collaborated in the important events of individuals and communities. How they cooperated and collaborated was also governed by tradition.

Economic life in that small society was, of course, very limited. Most of their needs and livestock were accessible from nature, whether food or for other necessities, such as housewares, combustibles, variety of appliances and medicines. In this condition, both agriculture and livestock were still very limited; people mostly took from natural sources, whether from water or land (Ranjabar, 2016). In this era, every family or tribe in the village was, in a broad sense, still autarchic, which was mostly to meet their own needs. Therefore, the trade was still very limited, only concerning the real needs of certain

areas. In terms of access to communication, it was limited to walking, horse or canoe, as the only tool available.

Industry in this era was handicrafts made for daily needs, such as weaving, making tools from bamboo, wood, leaves, or stones, and, sometimes, from clay and metal. Religion held a strong position in the community so that many handicrafts were aimed at religious needs or various buildings, sculptures, and offerings.

Due to the very strong position of religion in the Indonesian primordial tradition, economic life was often determined by religious conditions. In the beginning, the people believed in spirit and supernatural power (Ranjabar, 2016), which they adored and there are special rituals for worshipping them. People chose special days to start an important economic business, such as working on the land and making houses. The economic events had to be accompanied by religious ceremonies. In this economy activity, the use of spells and offerings was very important to obtain the help of good holy energy and to reject evil influences.

As an expressive culture, the creative power of art based on intuition, feeling, and fantasy was immense (Ranjabar, 2016). The form of art most closely associated with religion was a myth that chronicles the creation of everything on earth, from human and animal to the sacred tradition. These myths were often repeated in ceremonies on important days. They represented the connection between man and the supernatural, with the earth, animals, and plants, and it was often depicted that all life was the embodiment of the sacred and secret cosmic process. It was meticulous, refined and beautiful because all human life and safety depended on the intimate connection with the supernatural (Koentjaraningrat, 1974). Thus, everything was embodied in the fineness and beauty of art. In everyday life, people expressed their devotion, gratitude, fear, and joy to the supernatural with a sense of service and decency that transformed into beauty, in the form of flowers or food or dance and singing.

Apart from the relationship with this religion, the art was closely linked with the value of solidarity that culminated in the days of important events in tribal, village, or family life, such as marriage, and death or celebration before or after harvest (Mulder, 1989; Koentjaraningrat, 2015; Ranjabar, 2016). All of these important social events were often filled with dancing, music, singing, and poetry expressing harmony, warmth, joy, and sadness. Mostly known is that, in the complexity of the unadulterated culture, art like

religion permeated the whole life of the people. Not only was there a religion of art but also economic work such as crocodile hunting, wood preservation, and gardening, all accompanied by rituals of nature.

If we conclude a description of the original values of Indonesian culture, it can be said that the culture was dominated by religious values followed by solidarity and artistic values, whereas, in democracy, the value of power in society was weak (Ranjabar, 2016). The value of science also was weak because thinking had not evolved, while feelings were still too powerful in the face of nature. Economic value was growing because of the unmet need for hard work, while, because of the lack of objective natural knowledge, the lesser-known possibilities of the world were unimaginable. In this situation, technology could not grow because people were still influenced by the belief that true ability and power rested on both the soul and the supernatural.

#### **2.1.2.2. Indian Culture**

Indian culture arrived in Indonesia brought by Indian traders in the 5<sup>th</sup> century and lasted until the 15<sup>th</sup> century. Indian culture based on the teachings of Hinduism is inherent and is the basis of a new culture in Indonesia, which was initially formed on a small scale within villages and spread to the surrounding areas. During this era there was growth in knowledge and philosophy and also hierarchy and feudalism in society (Alisjahbana, 1982; Bachtiar and Soebadio, 1987; Ranjabar, 2016).

Whereas in Indonesian primordial culture the mind was still blurred in mythic and customary relations, in India culture it was slowly emerging that people consciously thought and organized their thinking about the spirits and the supernatural energies, about the relation between human and nature, and society, about language, and about architectures. In this connection, it can be said that, in India, science and philosophy were arising, forming from the basis of such complex and emotional ways of thinking, such as mathematics and medicine (Ranjabar, 2016).

In the teachings of Hinduism in Indonesia, it had come a long way in imagining the supernatural spirits and energies and relationships of all things in the cosmic process. In this cultural belief of supernatural spirits, the gods were manifested in their personalities and attributes as the embodiment of a natural energy that has a certain

hierarchy and function in the cosmic process and human life (Ranjabar, 2016). In the mythology of *Mahabharata* and *Ramayana*, there was greatness and beauty of the conception and fantasy of Indian culture as a distinctive and expressive culture (Miswanto, 2012).

In people's lives, feudalism grew as center of power or polity where development and dynamics arose because of organizational progress and techniques, where there was emergence of great individuals who could not grow in a small Indonesian primordial society (Bachtiar and Soebadio, 1987; Koentjaraningrat, 2015; Ranjabar, 2016). The boundaries of human life were expanding because transportation equipment was getting better and faster; many people used horses and trains. The progress of the technique of working on wood meant people were able to build ships from boards, making larger ships from felled trees.

The rapid increase and magnitude of means of transportation on land and in water allowed power to dominate village communities, such as the great empires led by the king (Ranjabar, 2016). Through the influence of Indian culture, the existence of Indonesian primordial culture, which was a culture of small tribal groups, began to shift. Under the influence of the new culture, some of the small villages came to dynamically expand themselves by creating alliances. With the spread of these small cultures, large empires were formed in Indonesia such as *Tarumanegara*, *Sriwijaya*, *Majapahit*, and *Mataram* which are based on Hinduism. This was only possible because of the great spiritual and material revolution in the life of the community and the culture of the small cultural groups.

This not only meant that the small group economy expanded into a royal economy by exchanging goods and division of labor, but that the expansion of the organization from the village into the empire created a hierarchical, multilevel employee organization with the division of labor and tools to maintain security to protect the country (Koentjaraningrat, 1974, 2015). The organization extended to all fields of human endeavor and provided opportunities for agricultural development, religious, artistic, commercial and industrial institutions. The development of means of transportation on land and in the sea was in line with the development of carpentry working in wood, in making objects from clay and people being able to use a centrifuge. Likewise, progress was seen in the skill of pouring and forging various metals.



The emergence of writing skills provided extraordinary opportunities for thoughts and experiences to develop. Writing is not only to exchange ideas and experience between various regions far away, but also preserving them for the next generations. The exchange of knowledge and culture between the various regions increased and received encouragement. At the same time, the palaces of the great empires were not only the center of political and economic life, but also the center of religion and art. Indian culture brought the basis of feudalism in Indonesian history, although religious held the highest value amongst all. The difference in religious values in the Indonesian cultural values is that the religious values in Indian culture are more advanced, systematic and thought-provoking.

### **2.1.2.3. Islamic Culture**

In the thirteenth century, the Indonesian people also became acquainted with a new culture, namely Islamic culture or so-called Arab-Islamic culture. Similar to the primordial culture and Hinduism, Islamic culture is centered on a supernatural power, which in Islam is called *Allah*. The biggest influence of Muslim culture in Indonesia is the religion and the lesson of human life which is taken from the Quran especially human's responsibility for his actions where God gives people a mind and the ability to examine, choose and make decisions with feelings and tendencies for good and right.

While to some extent, the Indonesian primordial and Hindu religion can be called natural religion because they were clearly a reflection of events in nature, Islam, as with Christianity, is a Semitic religion; a religion based on the belief of a prophet or a prophet conveying the divine command and guidance of mankind to the intermediaries of the revelations gathered in the scriptures and in contrast to the Hindu religion, the nature of monotheism of the Islamic religion was the recognition of the oneness of God. This was in contrast to the original Indonesian religion and the Hindu religion, where animals, humans, and supernatural beings had real boundaries and one could manifest the other. In the belief of Islam, humans have a special place, not only under God as their essence, but also in terms of animals and plants. In the Qur'anic verses, the scriptures of Islam symbolize the relationship of God, man, and nature. Almighty God is the originator of creation and He created the universe and regulated the sun and animals, set the rain on

the soil, fertilized the earth, and planted plants on it. It is God who creates, nurtures and protects all forms and types of plants and animals. its laws also present a history of knowledge and exemplar for mankind. One important thing is man's responsibility for his actions. God gave him the wisdom and the mind and the ability to examine, choose, and make decisions.

In this era, Islamic experts visited foreign countries studying culture and geography. Not only Greek science and philosophy were digested but also the culture of Persian, Indian, Turkish, Chinese, European, and many others, which have become an important part of Islamic culture. Islamic culture is the first to consciously digest all cultures in the west and east in that era (Ranjabar, 2016).

#### **2.1.2.4. Modern Culture**

This modern culture can also be called European-American modern culture and began in the Renaissance era between the 14<sup>th</sup> and 16<sup>th</sup> century. The main origin of this culture lies in the Greek era, which was about the 8<sup>th</sup> century BC where people began releasing themselves from an expressive cultural atmosphere dominated by religious myths and began to think freely about the universe with regular investigation based on the power of thought and knowledge (Alisjahbana, 1982; Bachtiar and Soebadio, 1987; Garna, 1991). In this period, Indonesia was influenced by Europeans during the colonial period in the 16<sup>th</sup> century. The biggest influences, however, came from the British, the Netherlands, Japan and China, which brought influence in the fields of politics, economics, cultural systems, religion (Christianity) and education (Garna, 1993). However, some Indonesian anthropologists (Koentjaraningrat, 1966, 1974; Ranjabar, 2016) believed that modern culture took place after the independence of Indonesia in 1945. It was during this period that Indonesia used the symbol *Bhineka Tunggal Ika* (unity in diversity) to embrace and accept various cultures spread throughout the Indonesian region from west to east.

#### **2.1.2.5. Digital Culture**

The development of digital technology, which started to flourish in the 1990s has impacted on the culture or habits in Indonesian people's daily lives and this phenomenon is commonly referred to as digital culture (Melissa, 2010). The advertising company association in Southeast Asia released some interesting data which clearly illustrates the influence of information technology in Indonesia. At least, since 2014 the number of mobile phones has exceeded the population in Indonesia. In 2015 more than 75 million Indonesians had access to the internet and almost all of them were active users of social media (Sutanto, 2016). The number of social media users increased by almost 20 percent from the previous year with an average access time of 2.4 hours per day.

Today, digital culture is still dominated by the use of social media. Along with the increasingly widespread internet network penetration to various outer regions of Indonesia, in the next few years it seems that social media will still be the biggest influence in Indonesia's digital culture (Melissa, 2010). Thus, the penetration of digital technology to almost all levels of Indonesian society does not stop only around social media. Along with the increase in internet network penetration, the value of online trade in Indonesia has increased extensively.

In the field of education, at least connected with cyberspace has eliminated the constraints of access to information and knowledge that were previously a major obstacle in various remote areas in Indonesia although is not equally spread seeing that Indonesia is the largest archipelagic country in the world (Wartomo, 2016). In the political field, 'digital democracy' breaks the passivity of community participation in politics that was felt a few decades ago. In the future, big industries will also face new challenges from small or medium industries that prioritize innovation and creativity.

These social cultures' in each era brought influences in economic, religion, art, solidarity, knowledge and power values in Indonesia. Therefore, Indonesian culture is basically shaped by the different cultures that have contributed to all these aspects of life. In fact, some of these main cultures have stronger and lesser influences in certain regions of Indonesia. Although these main cultures have influenced the people's beliefs, traditions, customs and ways of life, the primordial or indigenous culture of Indonesia remains strong (Ranjabar, 2016). People from different ethnic groups still preserve the

old practices especially in religion, art, solidarity, knowledge and the practice of power. Therefore, as I have mentioned in chapter 1 section 1.2, Indonesia is very diverse and that one region to another may share a totally different culture.

Cultural differences may have influenced the education in Indonesia which specifically related to the differences of social cultures. According to Hofstede (1986), there are 4 dimensions of cultural difference; individualism/collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity/femininity. Hofstede described individualism as people who put themselves as a priority and in contrast, collectivism as people who is tightly integrated into their group. Power distance is described as a characteristic of a culture defines the extent to which the less powerful persons in a society accept inequality in power and consider it as normal. Cultures with a strong uncertainty avoidance are active, aggressive, emotional, compulsive, security-seeking, and intolerant; cultures with a weak uncertainty avoidance are contemplative, less aggressive, unemotional, relaxed, accepting of personal risks, and relatively tolerant. Lastly masculinity/femininity, differ in the social roles associated with the biological fact of the existence of two sexes, and in particular in the social roles attributed to men. Hofstede also described these cultural differences in teaching and learning in which Indonesia is among the 44 countries that he investigated (see Appendix A).

Hofstede categorised Indonesia as a collectivist, a high-power distance, a weak uncertainty avoidance, and a masculinity society. However, Hofstede did not separate culture, nation, and nationality in which he neglects the variety of cultures in a unit or group of a community within a nation (McSweeney, 2002; Baskerville, 2003; Joannides, Wickramasinghe and Berland, 2012). In the case of Indonesia, for example, Hofstede did not take his research sample on people from certain regions or ethnic groups, instead he took the Indonesian IBM employee's opinion survey and used the data to generalize Indonesian population. In addition, Hofstede's cultural dimensions have been lacking important cultural aspects such as habits, traditions and values. (Baskerville, 2003). Therefore, Hofstede's work on cultural dimensions for the current study is only 'used as a basis' (Ross, 1999; Furrer, 2000) to understand how national or social cultures might have shaped cultures of learning.

Social culture may have impacted on learning, as Bruner (1996) points out, social conditions in which students live and grow might be the reason they encounter learning

difficulties in school. Therefore, Bruner (1996) as cited in Moore (2012) suggested that it is important to guide teachers in understanding learners' development by considering their social cultures, which in this current study examines the cultures of learning for their classroom practices

### **2.1.3. Concept of Cultures of Learning**

As previously defined in chapter 1, cultures of learning is 'a whole set of expectations, attitudes, beliefs, values, perceptions, preferences, experiences and behaviours with regards to teaching and learning' (Shi 2006, p.122). Culture of learning deals with the questions that arise about how teaching and learning should be carried out, a good teacher and a good student and the ideology of learning (Shi, 2006, p.123). The clearest definition of cultures of learning is given by Cortazzi and Jin, (1996b, 2013, 2017), in which it is said to be a set of 'expectations, beliefs about what constitutes good learning, about how to teach or learn, whether and how to ask questions, what textbooks are for, and how language teaching relates to broader issues of the nature and purpose of education' (p.169). 'Culture of teaching and learning refers to the attitude of educators and learners towards teaching and learning and the spirit of dedication and commitment in a school which arises through the joint effort of school management, the input of educators, the personal characteristics of learners, factors in the family life of students, school-related factors as well as social factors' (Zulu *et al.*, 2004).

Teachers and learners from different background communities may have different preferences, expectations, interpretations, values and beliefs about how to learn or how to teach and these differences may affect the teaching and learning process within the classroom. Cultures of learning are ways of learning that have a cultural origin which might be affected by various factors that students or teachers bring into the classroom. These different factors might be from the learners' socio-economic and educational background.

Learning is seen as cultural and therefore it is part of the process of transferring and acquiring knowledge. However, according to Yuan and Xie (2013, p.33) general assumptions on the attitudes and practices of individual learners which make it similar to the characteristics of their ethnic culture may ignore 'individual agency'. Student agency

will be further discussed in section 2.3 of this chapter. ‘Students are remarkably diverse, and thus no one label can accurately capture their heterogeneity’ (Spack 1997, p.766). ‘A possible consequence of the research done from the large culture perspective will be that teachers attribute all the students’ behaviours in the class to their background culture, which would minimize any efforts to improve class teaching because there is nothing teachers can do to change cultural heritage’ (Yuan and Xie, 2013, p.33).

Furthermore, there are different interpretations of education that some TESOL professionals (Hu, 2002; Shi, 2006; Yuan and Xie, 2013; Kumaravadivelu, 2014) consider to be stereotypes of Asian students’ ways of learning, in which Shi (2006) compared the different interpretations of Confucian thinking about education. The elements are described in attitudes towards learning, how to learn, teacher-student relationship, the model of traditional Chinese education, the focus of teaching, and the purpose of learning. Although, these views are not particularly relevant to Indonesia because Indonesia does not adhere to Confucianism, it is from these ways of thinking that “stereotyped” Asian students, which consequently includes Indonesia. I briefly elaborate below five elements that then become the focus of this current study to understand cultures of learning from the perspective of various TESOL sources (Cortazzi and Jin, 1996a; Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Shi, 2006; Weeks, 2012) and of the cultures and or religions in Indonesia.

#### **2.1.3.1. Attitudes Towards Learning**

Asian, especially Chinese students’ views on education, specifically teaching and learning is traditionally largely affected by the Confucian thinking which values learning as a serious endeavour that requires a learner’s conscience and full commitment (Zhu, 1992; Scollon, 1999; Hu, 2002). However, another elaboration of learning is that it should be done with joy and happiness (Confucius, 2000). Furthermore, a version of the concept of teaching explains that it is to transmit knowledge or is teacher-dominated (Hu, 2002), however, another variety described that the Confucius ways of thinking believed that teaching is a learner-centred activity that involves critical thinking and questioning (Confucius, 2000; Shi, 2006).

In Hinduism, education is viewed as learning in a community (asrama) through direct experience (prayatska) (Miswanto, 2012). Similarly, in the Christians' Holy Bible, learning begins at home and the church. The old testament of the Bible is a collection of Judaic books, which describes the 'church' as the synagogue. The synagogue was originally not only a place of worship for Jews but also a gathering place for children to attend education. For example, in the Holy Bible, Acts 19:9 gives a clear description about *Skhole*, which is the study room used by the apostle Paul. Learning is equivalent to worshiping and is a resource to know God, and morality is seen as an expression or fruit of education (Wenas, 2017). While in the Islamic view, education is seen as a serious devotion to God so that they can achieve salvation in the world and the hereafter through faith, knowledge and charity (Rizal, 2009).

However, Hofstede's cultural dimension (Hofstede, 1986) to some extent emphasized the different cultural attitudes by categorizing Asians and Westerners as having weaker and stronger characteristics in valuing teaching and learning, although several researchers have argued that there is actually no difference between learners from any kind of cultural background (Littlewood, 2000; Kumaravadivelu, 2014). An example of the different views is on the teaching of English where Cortazzi and Jin (1996b) found that the Chinese students compared western and Chinese language teachers as having different conception of knowledge, language and teaching. The western language teachers are said to place emphasis on skills and language use, while Chinese language teachers focus on giving knowledge for learning.

### **2.1.3.2. Good Teacher and Good Student**

Another important element in understanding cultures of learning is through knowing students' expectations of a good teacher and a good student. As mentioned earlier, Confucius (2000) learning, which is rooted in Chinese learners, view learning as student-centred, while others elaborate as a teacher-centred endeavour (Shi, 2006). The model of education is seen as mimetic or epistemic where the teacher should take the role as the exemplar and student should only need to imitate (Hu, 2002).

In Hinduism, a good teacher and student is identified as having the characteristics of a good person, which in Bhagawad Gita XVI.1-3 holy book (in Miswanto, 2012) mentioned words such as Abhayá (brave), sattwa saýúuddhir (pre hearted), vyavasthitiá (knowledge seeker), jñanayoga (knowledgeable), dànaý (diligent), dama (self-control), yajna (willing to sacrifice), svàdhyàya (learn the bible), àrjawaý (honest), ahiýsà (kind), satyaý (righteous), akrodha (tender), tyàga (unselfish), úàntir (peaceful), apaiúunam (do not like to slander), dayà bhùteúu (love all beings), aloluptwaý (assertive), màrdawam (gentle), hriá (polite), tejaá (harworker), kûamà (forgiving), dhâtiá (courageous), úaucam (holy), adroha (free of jealousy and revenge), dan nàtimànita (humble).

The Holy Bible, in Exodus 12:24-27 explains that parents have the power to educate children in order to understand God's work in their lives. The important principle of education is that parents continuously be responsible for educating their children so that they understand the meaning of Easter. Children, (Yun .: τεκνον, teknon, can also refer to adults) in Ephesians 6:1 are expected, on the other hand, to respect parents, especially fathers, and maintain family authority even to death (Wenas, 2017). This also explains the role that teachers need to take as a parent in educating the students. I will explain this further in the next section.

While the Quran might not specifically describe a good teacher or a student, a good Muslim person, however, is described as someone who listens, sees, and has a thankful heart (Rizal, 2009). These three perspectives emphasize on the importance of having a good character as seeming to be the main focus in educating a human being.

As the world is changing, people's views on a good quality teacher are also shifting. Globalisation has driven people to believe that a qualified teacher is the one who possesses personal knowledge, contextual knowledge, sociological knowledge, and social/cooperative knowledge (Goodwin, 2010; Ratih and Laurence, 2015). Teachers are not only required to master their subject area but also acquire the understanding of globalisation and its significance to education (Ratih and Laurence, 2015).

Teachers are expected to be open-minded to different practices in order to understand more about their students. One of the reasons is due to certain stereotypes of Asian students as passive in class with a lack of critical thinking (Fox, 1994; Cortazzi and Jin, 1996a) compared to western students. In his study which also includes Indonesians,



Hofstede (1986) described that this is due to the strong uncertainty avoidance dimension that these Asians are categorized into where the students are more comfortable having a structured and precise teaching and learning process that focuses on accuracy and teachers are experts that take full responsibility for the classroom instruction and discourse. Therefore, it is important to consider that the era is now changing because there are also research findings showing that Asian students are becoming more independent, active in class, while teachers are more understanding and sociable (Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Shi, 2006).

### **2.1.3.3. Teacher-Student Relationship**

Several researchers have emphasized how Asian students have high obedience to teachers, due to their large power distance society (Hofstede, 1986; Fox, 1994; Cortazzi and Jin, 1996a; Kato, 2001). Therefore, their relationship tends to underline respect from the students towards the teacher compared with the western culture, which has a small power distance where there is a more equal position between the student and teacher (Hofstede, 1986).

Teacher and student are expected to have a hierarchical but harmonious relationship (Hu, 2002). In the Holy Bible, the relationship that is being emphasised is the relationship between parent-child. O'Brien (in Wenas, 2017) in the interpretation of the Ephesians 6:1 explains that in the verse there is positive advice about educating children in teachings and God's advice. This is reminiscent of a deeper emphasis on the teaching tradition of Christians. In the verse, Paul discusses a reciprocal task of children and adults; children must be educated to obey and be respectful to parents. Solomon explained, for example, that long before the letter to the Ephesians was written, Jesus Christ had shown obedience when he was 12 years old (Luke 2: 41-51) when he was left in the Temple of God and Mary rebuked Him. Jesus then explained that He must be in His Father's house, but that was not understood by His parents. However, He obeyed his parents and returned to their care.

In Hinduism teachings, a teacher is seen as an embodiment of God, therefore they should be obeyed and honoured (Miswanto, 2012), while in the Quran humans are believed to be created equal (Rizal, 2009). These views might become a cause of

contradiction between teachers and students since these differences influence the students' active participation in class. However, some Asian students in a high power distance society of whatever faith look up to their teacher as someone not to be questioned (Hofstede, 1986; Fox, 1994; Kumaravadivelu, 2014). Interrupting or criticizing the teacher in the classroom is considered disrespectful, therefore they feel that they should just listen and speak when they are allowed to by the teacher.

#### **2.1.3.4. Asking Questions and Losing Face**

Asian students' passivity in the classroom affects their willingness and confidence to ask questions in the classroom. For instance, the case of Chinese students studied by Cortazzi and Jin (1996b) showed that students rarely ask questions in the classroom, rather because they ask questions after a thorough reflection of what to be asked, while western students ask questions spontaneously.

King (2013) on his observation of Japanese university L2 classrooms found that students' silent behaviour is caused by the (1) silence of disengagement which is 'the manifestation of boredom, apathy, and inattention, the silence emerging through this route is often found lurking in large, teacher-centred, lecture-style language classrooms' (p.337), (2) the silence of teacher-centred method that relates to 'the decisions that teachers make concerning the pedagogical technique they employ with a class, in addition to their choice of lesson materials and task activities' (p.337), (3) the silence of non-verbal activities where 'for extended periods of class time students were on task and engaged in activities which did not require talk and during which it would have been either difficult or inappropriate to speak' (p.338), (4) the silence of confusion caused by 'lack of L2 ability, unfamiliarity with topics/tasks, problems with the delivery of the teacher's talk, and so on may all lead to the failure of learners to orally respond because of confusion' (p.338), and (5) the silence of hypersensitivity to others, in which 'many learners are simply unwilling to engage in the potentially embarrassing behaviour of active oral participation for fear of being negatively judged by their peers (p.339).

This fear of embarrassment is a part of the fear of losing face. The collectivist society that Asian students are categorized into tends to emphasize the importance of losing face, although in Hinduism (Miswanto, 2012) and Islamic teaching (Rizal, 2009), and

Christianity (Wenas, 2017) there is an emphasis on how human beings must make an effort to seek knowledge as long as they live, even in life hereafter.

Losing face is rooted in Chinese culture which explains the situation where learners do not want to be laughed at if they make mistakes and feel embarrassed if others think less of them (Cortazzi and Jin, 1996a; Tsui and Ng, 2010). Students are often afraid to ask questions because they want to avoid being mocked or laughed at by their peers if their question sounds silly or irrelevant. Western students also consider the risk of losing face, however it is not as powerful or common as the students with collectivist tendency. The concept of losing face between Western and Asian learners is also to some extent different where for Asians, it is more than the feeling of embarrassment but also how it affects their in-group because what they do or how they behave is a reflection of their family and extended family (Braje and Hall, 2016). Therefore, Asian learners' level of carefulness when intending to ask a question is higher compared to Westerners.

#### **2.1.3.5. Textbook**

Basically the process of acquiring knowledge is started by reading, as in the Qur'an, al-'Alaq verse 1-5 (Rizal, 2009). According to Hinduism there must be an educational process that refers to three things, namely: *uàstrataá* (knowledge of books), *gurutaá* (teacher's words) and *swataá* (personal experience). For Christians, the Holy Bible is the foundation of values, attitudes, and the rule that acts as a guidance for all Christians (Wenas, 2017). For Chinese students, learning is always related to the use of books, and teachings are based on textbooks (Confucius, 2000; Hu, 2002), although some suggest the opposite (e.g. Shi, 2006).

The use of textbooks is related to cultures of learning because the students' views on textbooks is also affected by the teaching methods and techniques used in the classroom for teaching English. Asian students' tendency to be more comfortable in a structured learning situation with precise objectives is also related to the use of textbooks in teaching. Textbooks contains most of the materials, including assignments, needed to learn in a structured and systematic way. This then is quite different to some western ways of learning that emphasizes more on practising and using the language in real life situations (Hofstede, 1986; Fox, 1994; Kumaravadivelu, 2014).

The different interpretations of Confucius' views (Hu, 2002; Shi, 2006) should therefore avoid the stereotyping of learners as Asians or Western learners. 'Education aims and methods are inevitably value-led, concerned with the kind of society we wish to promote, and the kind of education best suited for that aim' (Woods, 1996). Teaching and learning, may differ from culture to culture, the importance is how teachers can use the necessary information of students' different cultural traits to achieve the purpose of education itself.

The advantage of knowing one's culture of learning is when the teacher and student can develop strategies that may assist them in recognizing, appreciating and valuing alternative approaches to learning (Cortazzi and Jin, 2013). Furthermore, they explain that 'for students, this goes beyond 'learning how to learn': in collaboration with teachers and other students they may learn from, in, with, and through different ways of learning to increase their repertoires of learning strategies. This collaboration is referred to as cultural synergy (Cortazzi and Jin, 1996a, 2013, 2017), in which teachers and students are made aware of the cross-cultural issues that arise in the classroom. Such recognition can be part of validating the students' individualities, social identities and cultural voices; giving a place to their culture of learning can be a positive step in helping them to develop other ways of learning.

Two important elements in cultures of learning is to know the learners' expectations whether about teachers, or how a student should be (Cortazzi and Jin, 1996; 2006; 2013). 'With mediation, cultures of learning are, thus, potential resources for learner development' (Cortazzi and Jin, 2013, p. 2). Cultures of learning may encourage students to improve their classroom performance and solve certain behavioural issues since it offers an opportunity for the students to change from "nobody" to "somebody" in their learning community (Weeks, 2012) and 'allow their voices to be heard' (Cortazzi and Jin, 1996a).

However, Kumaravadivelu (2003), in his study about the problem of cultural stereotypes in TESOL criticizes the fact that TESOL professionals tend to stereotype Asian students as being passive in class and lack critical thinking and suggests professionals should have a critical awareness of this research in order to restrain the 'rush to stereotype the Other'. He added that studies by Cortazzi and Jin (1996) about Asian students who are passive in class is questionable since a related study shows that the cause

of passivity does not have direct relation to culture, instead it is a product of students' anxiety and lack of self-confidence (Tsui 1996). Although it is also arguable that these characteristics are constructed through the influence of culture such as family and society views.

Students attitudes towards learning are not an inherent disposition but a result of educational context such as the teaching material, understanding of the subject matter, the student's motivation, anxiety and competence (Littlewood, 2000; Liu, 2001). In addition, 'applying a framework of the dichotomy of individualism versus collectivism tends to essentialize and polarize the 'western' culture and 'oriental' culture. This dichotomy 'tends to exclude the possibility that self-expression associated with individualism exists in cultures that are often viewed as collectivist' (Yuan and Xie, 2013).

In Cortazzi and Jin's work on cultures of learning, they emphasized the fact that learners are diverse and it is risky to bring forth a list of learners' characteristics (Cortazzi, 1993; Cortazzi and Jin, 1996a, 1996b, 2001, 2011, 2013). They claim, therefore, that they are presenting trends and that cultures of learning is a plural term and a 'co-shaping dynamic perspective' (in Yuan and Xie 2013, p.35).

Before further examining the concept of cultures of learning, it is necessary to avoid confusing this concept with those concepts community of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991) and collaborative learning (Dillenbourg, 1999). Community of practice is derived from the understanding that 'individuals learn by being assimilated into the socio-cultural practices of a community or group, gaining competence through knowledge and skill development acquired both from those given authority over them and from those established members of a group who are perceived as having knowledge of practice through experience in it' (Lave and Wenger 1991 in James et al. 2015, p.4). Busher et al. (2014, p.814) pointed out that there are two types of community of practice, the intentional community, which is developed with the guidance of a tutor, and the emergent community, which is developed by the students themselves. This indicated that intentional community of practice is a community that is built in order to assemble learners from different backgrounds to interact with each other collaboratively. In contrast, cultures of learning are 'often subconscious and taken for granted, are absorbed in early learning in the absence of contrasting ideas and are not normally articulated' (Cortazzi and Jin 2013, p.1).

Collaborative learning is a mode of learning in which students work together in small groups to achieve common goals, trying to help each other in the learning process (Diana *et al.*, 2015). Collaborative learning is a way of teaching that can be used as a strategy to conduct collaborative and interactive activities in the classroom (Carrió-Pastora and Skorczynskab, 2015). The aim is to ‘enable the students to take almost full responsibility for working together, building knowledge together, changing and evolving together and of course, improving together’ (Diana *et al.* 2015 p.511). This indicates that collaborative learning is best described as a method of teaching. There seems to be little difference in these views, however, what is overlapping between them is the fact that they have the intention ‘to help engage in purposeful work’ (Busher *et al.* 2014, p.804), ‘group diversity (within the group, as well as among groups) can contribute positively to the learning process’ (Diana *et al.* 2015, p.511) and ‘help extend, adapt or adopt new approaches’ (Cortazzi & Jin, 2013, p.1).

In this research, I intend to use the concept cultures of learning since I will not focus on how an intentionally built community implements certain collaborative practices to enhance their learning. However, it is worth considering the emergent communities of practice which students build among themselves which may possibly enhance their collaborative practices and extend outside the classroom to facilitate learning. However, the intention is not to look at the methods or ways of teaching, but the views, values, beliefs and expectations that students have in the development of themselves as learners, which may be influenced internally or externally. I will focus on students’ approaches to learning English and teachers’ views on these approaches. In addition, I looked at the potential of integrating these views on the design of the teaching and learning process. ‘Centrally, the idea of cultures of learning helps participants in education to think about learning from different angles’ (Cortazzi and Jin 2013, p.1).

The teacher plays an important role in considering students cultures of learning in the classroom (Mat and Soon 2010). ‘Teachers have always known that the language classroom is a system and that teachers and students together create a mini-society with its own characteristics, properties, roles, restrictions and expectations that are similar to a living organism’ (Nasrin, 2007). Therefore, I will elaborate further on the teacher’s role by looking at their perception and power in the classroom.

## **2.2. Teacher Perception**

Teachers' perceptions of what teaching and learning entail brings to mind what Van Patten (1997) refers to as the microlevel in teaching, including the views teachers have based on their character, level of experience, as well as their interests, attitudes, and judgments. These views are essential for understanding and enhancing educational processes and are closely related to teachers' instructional activities as well as the strategies they utilize for tackling the challenges they might encounter in class (Pishghadam, Zabihi and Shayesteh, 2014). One of the challenges is to gain a balance between their beliefs and the power they have in the classroom, taking into consideration their students' agency. Therefore, in the next sub-sections, I will revisit the notion of teacher beliefs and power in the classroom.

### **2.2.1. Teacher Belief**

'Belief is a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held, is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual, and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment; further, it serves as a guide to thought and behaviour' (Borg 2001, p.186). 'There is growing evidence to indicate that teachers are highly influenced by their beliefs, which in turn are closely linked to their values, to their views of the world, and to their understanding of their place within it' (Xu 2012, p.1397). Teachers' belief may be influenced by different factors such as their experience and knowledge that they gain in their educational setting as Sinan Özmen (2012) and Emre Debreli (2012) found. In addition, teachers often bring with them 'beliefs about learners and learning; about teaching; about subject; about learning to teach; about self and about the teaching role, in which teachers have been found to hold significant beliefs' (Calderhead 1996 cited in Seymen, 2012). Therefore, by recognising these beliefs, researchers may also make sense of what teachers actually bring into the classroom when designing and planning their teaching.

Teacher belief determines the way teachers treat learners and also how they choose appropriate teaching instructions and behaviours in the classroom (Xu 2012, p.1397). 'Belief plays an important role in many aspects of teaching, as well as in life' (Borg 2001, p.186).

However, since teachers' beliefs relate to many aspects of learning and affects their daily practices, the issue that then arises is what tensions occur when these beliefs do not match with the main educational purpose (Eisenbach 2012, p.154). As in the case of Indonesia, teachers are often faced with an educational outcome that has been prepared for them by the central government to be implemented in their classroom. Eisenbach (2012, p.154) asked a compelling question on whether 'teachers abide by their ideologies in the face of adversity and contractual obligations, or do they succumb to the demands placed on their shoulders by curriculum mandates and educational policies?' He even concluded that there is no precise answer to how this issue could be addressed since it depends on how teachers view their practices that benefit their students. In addition, every scripted educational plan is not demanding but it is merely a suggestion given to the teachers (Moore 2012, p.38). The final decision on the implementation of the classroom practices relies on the teachers.

Moreover, the issue of teachers' beliefs is also controversial when it does not meet with students' expectations about teaching and learning in the classroom. For instance, some teachers who believe that learning is about acquiring grammatical mastery may have an opposite view to students' who believe that learning language is about communication. Some of the few studies on teacher self-perception and student perception reported considerable differences (Brekelmans *et al.*, 2011b). Therefore, it is worth understanding three types of teacher beliefs and their significant roles in the language teaching process which are beliefs about learners, beliefs about learning and beliefs about themselves (Xu, 2012).

In regard to their beliefs on learners, teachers may hold any one or a combination of beliefs about those whom they teach. The sociologist Roland Meighan (1990 cited in Xu, 2012) has suggested that learners may be construed metaphorically as: resisters, receptacles, raw material, clients, partners, individual explorers, and democratic explorers. Such constructions reflect individual teacher's views of the world and also have a profound influence on their classroom practice. The first three constructs are heavily teacher-dominated while the latter constructs involve increasingly active learner participation. If teachers consider their students as resisters, receptacles or raw materials, they will force learners to master a language, fill learners with knowledge, and shape learners according to the teacher's wishes. Whereas, if teachers consider their students as clients, partners, individual explorers or democratic explorers, then they will alter the



nature of the relationship between teachers and learners. The teachers will have the language learning activities from learners' needs, and take themselves as co-learners, facilitators and co-operators. In addition, this also includes teacher's beliefs of learning or learners, such as whether the learning process is deductive or inductive and importantly on the learner's own way of learning (Graves, 2000; Bodegas, 2007).

The teachers' beliefs on learning suggested that most approaches to learning can be placed under one of the following headings: a quantitative increase in knowledge; memorization; the acquisition of facts and procedures, which can be retained and or used in practice; the abstraction of meaning; an interpretative process aimed at the understanding of reality; some form of personal change. The first three of these conceptions can be conveniently subsumed under the heading of reproductive approaches, while the subsequent three can be seen as meaning based. The first three approaches can also be induced as the direct transmission of instruction, which implies that a teacher's role is to communicate knowledge in a clear and structured way, to explain correct solutions, to give students clear and resolvable problems, and to ensure calm and concentration in the classroom.

The following three can be induced as constructivist instruction, which focuses on students not as passive recipients but as active participants in the process of acquiring knowledge, which emphasizes facilitating a student's inquiry, prefers to give students the chance to develop solutions to problems on their own, and allows students to play an active role in instructional activities. However, these approaches should not be mutually exclusive in the language teaching-learning process. This is related to their view on language, in which language can be derived from rule-governed, meaning-based or self-expression, and the teacher's view of teaching itself, in which teaching is about transferring knowledge and how the teacher takes their role in the process of teaching and learning, and on the social context of the language such as sociocultural and sociolinguistic issues that may be in line with, or perhaps contrast to students culture (Graves, 2000; Bodegas, 2007).

As to their belief of themselves, teacher self-efficacy and teacher emotions can be important ways for them as language teachers to enhance their overall quality. It has been shown that high self-efficacy teachers place higher expectation on learners, think themselves to be responsible for the learners' development, and believe that they can

teach learners well (Xu, 2012). They constantly explore new teaching methods and instruct learners more democratically. Since a high self-efficacy teacher can adopt an efficacious teaching behaviour, they promote progress among learners. In this sense, a teacher with low self-efficacy will find it difficult to build self-efficacy in others, and to be confident in classroom control. A teacher with low self-efficacy will tend to conduct limited classroom teaching skills and low rates of praise. Furthermore, teachers' emotions may influence not only their cognitions, for example attention, memory, categorizing, thinking and problem-solving, but also their motivation, attributions, efficacy beliefs and goals. At the same time, although teachers may attempt to mask their feelings, students are often aware of teachers' emotions, and are often influenced by teachers' expression of emotions (Xu, 2012). Students are more motivated, less likely to be involved in delinquency, and more likely to be helpful, cooperative, and to follow classroom rules and norms, as a result of teachers' expressions of positive emotions. On the other hand, teachers' expressions of negative emotions mostly make students feel small, sad, ashamed, guilty, hurt and embarrassed.

### **2.2.2. Power in the Classroom**

Researching teachers' perception can contribute to the understanding of the interplay between the teacher's intention and their behaviour (Brekelmans *et al.*, 2011). One of these is about teachers' classroom power. According to Hearn and Foucault (2004), people are always led to exercise power through their actions, and, further, people cannot escape from power, because they symbolize one of its main effects: the individual is both an effect and an intermediary of power. To be precise, power moves through individuals. As mentioned earlier in section 2.2 of this chapter, involving students' voices in the educational process leave a challenging task and responsibility for teachers since it is the teachers' duty to find a way that the students' voices could be heard. Therefore, the issue of a teacher student power relationship will affect the process of involving the students in any educational process since students voices could be underestimated by teachers or 'other institutional structure that sees them as subordinates' (Busher *et al.* 2015, p.5).

Schrodt *et al.*, (2008, cited in Diaz *et al.*, 2016, p.2) pointed out 'five types of teacher power: coercive power (communicating threats of punishment to ensure conformity); expert power (the teacher's competence and subject-matter knowledge); legitimate power

(based upon the teacher's assigned academic role or position); referent power (cultivated by building relationships and communicating on an authentic level with student); and reward power (using positive reinforcements or negative reinforcements – the removal of negative consequences to create rewards)'. The legitimate and referent power that the teachers have, especially in countries that have a high power distance relationship between the teacher and the students will always provide strong sources of power for teachers to shape student learning processes, along with their expert power, without resorting to coercion (Busher, James and Piela, 2015). Power is available in any structured institution, and should not therefore be taken for granted to avoid misunderstanding of 'the lived experiences of the members of those communities' (Busher et al. 2014, p.804). Consequently, it is worth understanding that the power that teachers possess is evident when a teacher communicates and behaves in ways that influence students' achievement of desired individual and class goals (Diaz, Cochran and Karlin, 2016).

Teacher power is seen as a strategy to help students to learn (Richmond, McCroskey and Wagner, 1983; Golish and Olson, 2000; Turman and Schrodts, 2006; Schrodts *et al.*, 2008; Diaz, Cochran and Karlin, 2016) because power and control over classroom learning are negotiated between teachers and students. However, 'the influence of teacher power use on students' ratings of instruction would be fully mediated by the extent to which the teacher used different forms of power to (dis)empower their students' (Schrodts *et al.*, 2008, p.185). For example, coercive power is found to be likely to influence student empowerment, in which students who experience this feel unmotivated, stereotyped, and anxious (Golish and Olson, 2000; Turman and Schrodts, 2006; Diaz, Cochran and Karlin, 2016). Meanwhile, expert, legitimate, referent, and reward power has a positive influence on students' evaluation and empowerment. Students who have lower self-competency reportedly felt understood, encouraged (Diaz, Cochran and Karlin, 2016) and 'are likely to encourage further student participation and involvement, and ultimately enhance students' feelings of personal effectiveness in the course' (Turman and Schrodts, 2006, p.194), although the practice of legitimate power that contributes to student empowerment is minimum because it is associated with hierarchical power that often locates the teacher in a position not to be questioned (Diaz, Cochran and Karlin, 2016).

The interpersonal outcomes of the teacher in communicating power in the classroom can be understood by looking at the dimensions of 'hostility and affection' (Brekelmans,

*et al.*, 2011). Wubbels *et al.* (2006) labelled these dimensions as control and affiliation, as demonstrated in Figure 2.1 below.

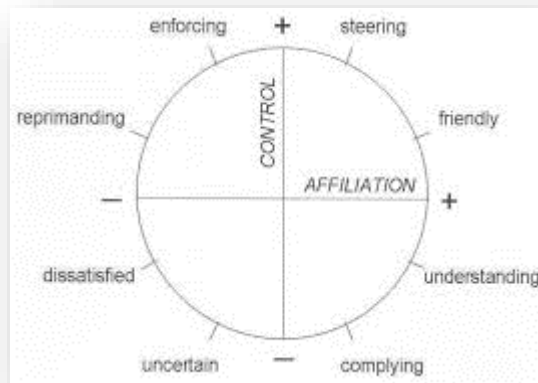


Figure 2. 1. Teacher Interpersonal Circle (Wubbels *et al.*, 2006)

Teacher Affiliation is categorized into a teacher's behaviour of steering, being friendly, understanding, and complying. While teacher control is defined as a teacher being uncertain, dissatisfied, reprimanding, and enforcing. These categories allow teachers and students to understand that research on the Teacher Interpersonal Circle has shown that students who perceive more teacher Control and Affiliation show greater cognitive achievement, stronger engagement, and more positive subject-related attitudes '(Wubbels *et al.*, 2006; Brekelmans, *et al.*, 2011). However, related to the current context of the study, there has been little research on the perceptions of students who are in a context of ritualized classrooms (see section 4.2) and who might have different perceptions of power, especially in a society which has a high-power distance relationship (Hofstede, 1986) as in Indonesia (see Appendix M).

### 2.3. Student Agency

Agency refers to 'the satisfying power to take meaningful action and see the results of our decisions and choices' (Basharina, 2009). Agency is not just in the classroom but also in the individual's lives outside school, so there is a link between people's agency in a classroom and their agency outside it, this is also related to the social cultures they carry with them and their interpretation of these. Therefore, students in the classroom basically

have the right to make decisions for their own learning in the classroom. Although, there should be certain measurement of how much voice, under what circumstances, and with what degree of independence from the teacher (Goodman and Eren, 2013). Therefore, student agency can be on the level of being aware of their own learning especially on their deep and strategic approaches to learning. Students who take a deep approach to learning use more effective learning strategies and, therefore, can be expected to benefit more from learning (Basharina, 2009). Therefore, in the next sub sections, I will describe students' agency which is a part of their metacognitive knowledge, their language learning, and the use of their voices.

### **2.3.1. Students' Metacognitive Knowledge**

Metacognitive knowledge is the specialized portion of a learner's acquired knowledge base which consists of what learners know about learning, and to the extent a learner has made distinctions, language learning (Wenden, 1999). 'One the set of beliefs about SLA has to do with expectations of success, that is whether a student expects himself to succeed, or fail, in his efforts to learn a second or foreign language' (Kalaja, 2003, p.87). A student who believes, for example, that learning a second language primarily involves learning new vocabulary will expend most of his/her energy on vocabulary acquisition, while adults who believe in the superiority of younger learners probably begin language learning with fairly negative expectations of their own ultimate success (Horwitz, 1988). An unsuccessful learning experience could easily lead a student to the conclusion that special abilities are required to learn a foreign language and that s/he does not possess these necessary abilities.

Research in this area have explored the structure of beliefs about learning and develop instruments for assessing learners' beliefs. Horwitz (1988) examined teachers' free-recall protocols, identified five major areas of language learning beliefs—foreign language aptitude, the difficulty of language learning, the nature of language learning, effective learning and communication strategies, and motivation —and developed the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI). Cotterall (1995) identified six major belief dimensions based on students' responses to her questionnaire—the role of the teachers, the role of feedback, learner independence, learner confidence in study ability, experience of language learning, and approach to studying. Other research looked

at learners' beliefs in other areas including the learning situation (Benson and Lor, 1999), text knowledge and writing problems (Victori and Lockhart, 1995), and perceived value and nature of learning spoken English (Yang, 1999).

The diversity of the belief factors examined by these studies points to the complexity of the structure of beliefs about language learning. At the same time, some of the examined belief dimensions appear to overlap, but language learning research lacks empirical evidence for the independence of each factor (Mori, 1999). According to Horwitz (1999), although beliefs about language learning would seem to be naturally related to cultural and situational differences, to date there has been no examination of how they differ across learner groups because on his research on cultural and situational influences on foreign language learners' beliefs from several different cultural backgrounds about language learning revealed that it is too early to conclude that beliefs about language learning vary by cultural group. Rather, he points to the possibility that within-group differences, whether related to individual characteristics or differences in instructional practices, likely account for as much variation as the cultural differences. Therefore, in the current study, I explore the students' beliefs based on their cultural differences by adopting the cultures of learning concept proposed by Cortazzi and Jin (1996). Their concept can be categorised into one of the structure of students' beliefs, adding on to the cultural values that mostly students in a multicultural society bring into their classrooms.

### **2.3.2. Language Learning**

Learning is the acquiring or gaining of knowledge of a subject or a skill by study, experience or instruction (Brown 2007, p.7). The result of a learning process is indicated by changes in behaviours that can be relatively permanent, which may not necessarily occur immediately in the result of experience and practice that is developed and maintained by reinforcement (Olson and Hergenhahn 2009, p.1-2). Therefore, learning may come from a wide range of sources that may be internally or externally acquired.

There are various theories of how human beings learn in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), and the most influential ones in teaching are the theory of behaviourism by Pavlov (1960), Skinner's (1938) neo-behaviourist theory, Vygotsky's

(1962) theory of constructivism and Bruner's (1972) theory of cultural dimension. Pavlov's theory of behaviourism explains that human beings learn 'by the process of conditioning in which they build an array of stimulus-response connections, and more complex behaviours are learned by building up series or chains of responses' (cited in Brown 2007, p.88). Acknowledging this theory, Skinner, in his theory of positive reinforcement, argued that the most powerful aspect of learning is reinforcement since humans 'can be trained to replicate certain (adult) behaviours if they come to associate such replication with the occasional (and therefore possible) receipt of tangible rewards' (cited in Moore 2012, p.3) that strengthens desired responses.

In contrast to Pavlov and Skinner's theory of behaviourism, Vygotsky, a Russian psychologist developed a learning theory that described learning as a social activity. He argued that learning is a social process and 'although learning continues to be socially grounded and contextualized, a kind of autonomy or independence has been achieved, in which the student can bring acquired and developed mental functions to bear on the considerations of issues confronted both inside and outside the classroom' (cited in Moore 2012, p.14-15). Adult learning is mostly affected by their exposure to their learning material, peers and social environment. (Gullberg *et al.*, 2010; Rast, 2010; Lin, 2011). However, Vygotsky's theory has been criticized as lacking cultural dimensions, although this may be misaligned criticism since the theory is commonly known as socio-cultural theory or socio-cultural historical theory. 'Knowledge, being in part a product of the activity, is situated in context and culture' (Jarvela and Niemivirta, 1999, p.58). Therefore, Bruner suggested that learning also covers the cultural context of the learner. He claimed that it is important to consider how the culture of certain individuals affects their learning, not only based on their behaviour and social activity. The process of learning 'depends mainly on exposure to and nature of socio-cultural environment' (Kecskes 2015, p.419). Although, in the end, 'it is the students themselves who construct and test their own conceptual understanding' (Brown and Campione 1996 in Jarvela and Niemivirta 1999, p.59), which is influenced by their own capability (Kecskes 2015, p.419), the community of learners, interactions with different cultures of expertise have a notable bearing on the quality of learning' (Brown and Campione 1996 in Jarvela and Niemivirta 1999, p.59).

The formation of small culture that I have discussed in section 2.1 of this chapter, explains Bruner's theory of learning as a part of the universal processes where a learner

brings forth their cultural traits in a new community with the consequence of adapting or neglecting the culture of 'other' as opposed to the 'self'. The process of routinisation in the form of interactions and activities within the classroom between the teacher and students leads to the understanding of Pavlov, Skinner, Vygotsky and Bruner's theories that learning involves mental process and socio-cultural activity.

The principles of learning are categorized into fields that are believed to involve developmental psychology, socialisation and activity theory (Illeris, 2007). This is to explain that learning is the science of human behaviour and mental processes that may happen unconsciously and consciously, which is affected by interaction with other individuals in certain environments. The dimension of learning is then known as the content dimension of learning, the incentive dimension of learning and the interaction dimension of learning (Illeris, 2007, p.22).

The content dimension of learning is regarded as the subject matter of learning that comprises knowledge, skills, competence, sensibility, and behaviour that an individual possesses (Illeris 2007, p.51). As Pavlov discovered, the human brain has instinct and cell or organism activity that appears from stimulation (Olson & Hergenhahn 2009, p.175). This indicates that a learning process is a result of conditioned and unconditioned stimuli that shape certain human behaviour. This condition, however, cannot be separated in the process from mental energy such as emotion, will and motivation. Skinner described this as operant conditioning in which a learning process is a change of behaviour that is encouraged by reinforcement that focuses on motivation (Catania 1980, p.135). This is categorized as the incentive dimension of learning that presents learning as a part of the affective or emotional intelligence (Illeris 2007, p.75). Thus, these two dimensions of learning cannot stand without the influence of the people that an individual interacts with in their environment, which Illeris described as the interaction dimension of learning. This dimension is in the same position as Vygotsky and Bruner's theory of learning that the result of learning is not only based on a cognitive and affective process, but also on



the socio-cultural factors. Illeris (2007) explained the connection of the three dimensions of learning in figure 2.2 below.

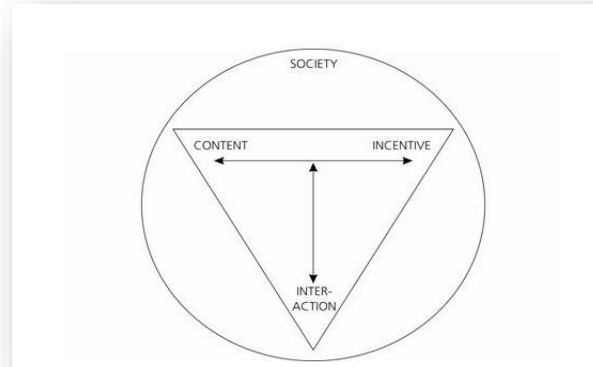


Figure 2.2. Dimension of Learning (Illeris 2007, p.26)

The figure shows that it is important to understand how the learning process happens within an individual that involves the cognitive (content), affective (incentive) and social (interaction) processes. Learning does not only ‘occur in an individual and that the world and society are not objective elements that can be acquired through learning process’ (Illeris 2007, p.117); these are, however, constructed in an individual as a basis of development in the learning situation and the social world.

Each dimension of learning indicated that learning happened as a result of the learner’s competence, motivation, and the influence of their peer members or learning community. In the process, learners have the ability to control their own learning by moving from cognitive development to a more advanced level, where they can use their individual agency. Learners can integrate collaboratively certain factors such as content, language, culture, their exposure to learning activities, community practices, in which ‘their knowledge, identity and voice are constantly (re)negotiated’ (Basharina, 2009, p.393) in learning. Using their voices in the development of their learning is the most important element in taking active participation in making or deciding the best approaches to their English learning in the classroom. This includes deciding the most effective teaching methods, techniques, and other learning preferences such as asking questions, the use of textbooks and the use of certain teaching methods and techniques in learning English.

### **2.3.3. The Role of Target Language Output and Interaction in Second or Foreign Language (L2) Learning**

‘In the teaching of L2 all over the world, producing the target language (TL), or output, has long been considered as forming an important part of language learning’ (Izumi, 2003, p.168). Success in a foreign language must not be attributed to input alone. ‘Such a theory ascribes little credit to learners and their own active engagement in the process’ (Brown, 2007, p.297). Students’ metacognitive knowledge in the classroom relates closely to ways in which they accumulate deep and strategic approaches to learning English which may be influenced by, as I argue in the current study, the socio-cultural factors such as cultural values, customs, and religion. ‘As human beings students have minds of their own; ultimately they decide how they are going to tackle the tasks of the classroom and the aims of their learning’ (Cook, 2008, p.105). However, the issue of understanding the students’ mind is a challenging task, because students might not know what they are actually doing in the classroom in terms of certain learning strategies that they use to learn English. Although, research might attempt to ask these questions, the answers ‘may not accurately reflect what you actually do, since so much of our language behaviour is subconscious and not available to our conscious minds’ (Cook, 2008, p.106).

Swain (2005), suggested three main functions of output in SLA. The first claim is noticing, that while attempting to produce the target language, learners may notice their erroneous attempts to convey meaning, and that the act of producing language itself can prompt learners to recognize linguistic shortcomings. Here learners become self-informed through their own output. The second function of output according to Swain is hypothesis *testing*, that output serves as a means to try out one’s language, to test various hypothesis that are forming. The third function is metalinguistic that fits appropriately in a social constructivist view of SLA speech (and writing) can offer a means for the learners to reflect productively on language itself in interaction with peers. The fourth is the fluency function which learners can use their knowledge in meaningful context. These functions may prompt the learners to generate alternatives by searching exiting knowledge or to seek out relevant input with more focused attention and with more clearly identified communicative needs (De Bot, 1996; Izumi, 2003; Brown, 2007).

Within the current generally accepted practice, communication is not only a medium of practice; it is also the means by which learning takes place (Gass, 1997). In other

words, conversational interaction in an L2 forms the basis for the development of syntax; it is not merely a forum for practice of grammatical structures. Many SLA research (Gass and Varonis, 1984; Ellis, Tanaka and Yamazaki, 1994; Loschky, 1994; Mackey, 1995; Tarone and Liu, 1995) have focused on the role of interaction in SLA which explained that negotiation is a means of drawing attention to linguistic form, making it salient and thereby creating a readiness for learning. It is furthermore a way in which learners receive feedback on their own production (Gass, 1997). For instance, Mackey (1995) conducted research in which learners of English were engaged in communicative tasks with questions as the targeted structure and with opportunities for interaction between participants. Mackey noted a positive relation between interaction and development such that learners who were involved in structure-focused interaction moved along a developmental path more rapidly than learners who did not.

The role of output and interaction in L2 learning is reflected in today's classrooms where the emphasis is on the student-centred learning. As I have mentioned in chapter 1, Indonesia is currently moving towards student centred-learning, in which the students are given greater chances to be active in the classroom and at the same time as being responsible for their own learning (DIKTI, 2014, 2016). This includes interactive, holistic, integrative, scientific, contextual, thematic, effective, and student-centred learning (DIKTI, 2016). The characteristics of student-centred learning can be seen in figure 2.3 below.

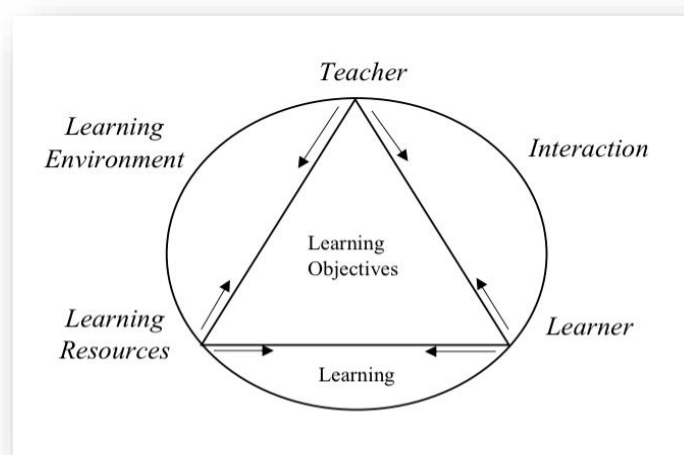


Figure 2.3. The Indonesian Characteristics of Student-centred Learning (DIKTI, 2016)

The figure above shows that learning is an interaction between the teacher, learners, and learning resources in certain learning environments. The teacher takes the role of motivator and facilitator where the interaction emphasizes method of inquiry and discovery to make the most of learner's cognitive, psychomotor, and affective domains using multidimensional resources contextually. Although, I have discussed learning theories in section 2.3.1., it is also important to look at the implication of these in the use of different teaching methods in the classroom (Brown, 2007; Cook, 2008).

Therefore, the most relatable teaching of English in higher education for TESOL professionals in Indonesia is in the use of communicative approaches. The Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is one of the most popular approaches to teaching English. This approach emphasizes 'knowing how to use the language for range of different purposes, according to the setting and the participants, knowing how to produce and understand different types of text, and knowing how to maintain communication despite having limitations in one's language knowledge' (Richards, 2006, p.3). The classroom activities in CLT include pair and group work, jigsaw, information gap activities, classroom discussions and presentations (Harmer, 2003, 2007; Richards, 2006; Brown, 2007; Cook, 2008).

This particular approach has been implemented in Indonesia since the 1994 curriculum that focuses mainly on the communicative competence that covers listening, speaking, reading and writing; oral and communicative competence; topical themes and functional skills syllabi; and assessment on communication or oral skill (Bachrudin, 2001). However, the current condition of higher education in Indonesia as I have mentioned in chapter 1, section 1.2.2, brings challenges in implementing this approach. One of the challenges results mainly from teachers' lack of knowledge and skill that causes students to be passive in the classroom (DIKTI, 2008, 2014) although they naturally have their own voice which they can use to improve their learning.

#### **2.3.4. Learner's Voice**

Learners have various differences when it comes to learning. 'The differences not only in terms of their age and level, but in terms of different individual abilities, knowledge and preferences' (Brown 2007, p.14). Nation and Macalister (2010) emphasized that a

necessity to involve learners' voices in the construction of language instruction. They believe that it is important for teachers to give opportunities for learners to be responsible for their own learning. A learner's voice is a normative project and it has its basis in an ethical and moral practice which aims to give students the right to democratic participation in school processes (Taylor and Robinson, 2009). In school and college contexts a student (or learner) voice is reasonably well understood, being defined as: listening to and valuing the views that students express regarding their learning experiences; communicating student views to people who are in a position to influence change; and treating students as equal partners in the evaluation of teaching and learning, thus empowering them to take a more active role in shaping or changing their education (Seale, 2010).

There are actually different kinds of interpretation of voice in educational settings, which McLeod (2011) categorized into: voice-as-strategy (to achieve empowerment, transformation, equality); voice as-participation (in learning, in democratic processes); voice-as-right (to be heard, to have a say); and voice-as-difference (to promote inclusion, respect diversity, indicate equity). In the TESOL context, the use of these various voices is important because students who learn English want to transform themselves as language users, therefore, besides using it in a regular basis of learning, the students can make use of their voices by using targeted language to give them the type of motivation and self-confidence to become involved in making classroom decisions, including helping the teacher to think about the most appropriate language teaching methods and techniques in the classroom.

However, researchers have found that teachers often have different assumptions and expectations compared to their learners when it comes to learning (Cortazzi and Jin, 1996a, 2011, 2013; Murase, 2012). Cortazzi and Jin (1996a; 2011; 2013) in their research on Chinese learner's cultures of learning revealed that Chinese learners have different perceptions than their teachers on what makes a good teacher and a good student. Murase (2012) found that Japanese teachers tended to make assumptions about their students' wants that turned out not match with what the learners actually want. Therefore, 'one way to solve this problem is that teachers with different cultural backgrounds should share views and, based on their cultural understandings, work together towards the goal of helping their students develop their autonomy' (Murase 2012, p.70).

In the context of classroom based L2 learning and teaching, it is the task of the teacher to help learners reach a desired level of linguistic and pragmatic knowledge/ability that addresses their needs, wants, and situations. In order to carry out such task, the teacher should be aware of the factors and processes that are considered to facilitate L2 development (Kumaravadivelu 2006, p.25).

This indicates that learners' voice is also a powerful tool in the teaching and learning process. A learner's involvement in the process can be a collaborative engagement between them and the teacher that allows room to explore their thinking about what might work for them and gives teachers views in designing teaching materials that suits learners' needs to a certain extent (Brooman et al. 2015). What matters is not only what happens in the classroom but how participants interpret events and what they expect to happen' (Cortazzi and Jin 1996, p.172).

In addition, Brooman et al. (2015) found an issue in using students voices in the design of the curriculum. In their research, they prepared a focus group that was involved through discussions and questionnaires in re-designing a curriculum. They explained that although students' voices should be valued since they bring benefits such as the improvement in the average mark and pass rates of the students, it is difficult to create a framework or form of curriculum that facilitates these students' voices. In their design, they involve the students' voices in a form of interview and questionnaire. The limitation is on the information asked of the students about the elements of teaching (timing, workload, and resources) that does not directly trigger students' views and values of the overall teaching and learning process.

Therefore, the process of involving students in the design of the curriculum might not necessarily be implemented through a thoroughly and well-prepared framework but rather using a more informal approach such as identifying and understanding cultures of learning (Cortazzi and Jin, 1996a, 2013; Jin and Cortazzi, 2006) in the formal and informal needs analysis process implemented by the teacher that is also a part of the process of the curriculum development.

Applying the concept and findings related to cultures of learning gives clear points on the overall expectations and beliefs of the students since the concept offers a set of

‘expectations, beliefs about what constitutes good learning, about how to teach or learn, whether and how to ask questions, what textbooks are for, and how language teaching relates to broader issues of the nature and purpose of education’ (Cortazzi and Jin 1996, p.169). This gives teachers a clearer theme or framework on what to ask of their students when involving them in the curriculum design. In addition, teachers will understand this process as a way to bring about effective teaching without seeing it as a threat related to the power relationship issue between the teacher and student. After all, ‘listening to the multiplicity of students’ voices helps tutors and senior staff in educational institutions to respond to the different needs of all the students and encourages students to engage enthusiastically with learning’ (Nabhani et al. 2012 cited in Busher et al. 2015, p.5 ).

In addition, Fiona *et al.* (2007) reported that the issues in student involvement are participation, representation, and protection of interest. While Seale (2010) found that the main issue that occurred in involving student voice is the concept and commitment of participation, transformation and empowerment. Furthermore, as mentioned in section 2.2.2, teacher power has also become an issue in involving the student voice in higher education context (Taylor and Robinson, 2009; Seale, 2010; McLeod, 2011). Although there continued to be challenges to the purpose and form of higher education curricula, student voice remains a useful vehicle to develop intrinsic aspects of student engagement with all curricula in terms of, for example, attendance, commitment, enthusiasm and direct involvement (Fiona *et al.*, 2007; Seale, 2010; Brooman, *et al.*, 2015) which is a part of their agency.

## **2.4. Teacher Pedagogical Practices**

Teachers’ pedagogical practices are concerned with the quality of teaching that facilitates learners in their learning process. For example, in context of teachers’ professional development, the process of construction of knowledge enables teachers to (re)build their own posture and practice in EFL classes, since through language they can rethink their routine as well as describe, analyse, and interpret their own practice (Da Silva, 2015). There are different factors that have the tendency to influence their pedagogical practices. In this study, I will look at the curriculum and teachers’ classroom teaching which is related closely to the issue of power and students’ agency.

### 2.4.1. Language Curriculum

Johnson (1989, p.1) broadly describes curriculum as:

to include all the relevant decision-making processes of all the participants. The products of these decision-making processes generally exist in some concrete form and can be observed and described: for example, policy documents, syllabuses, teacher-training programmes, teaching materials and resources, and teaching and learning acts

The terms ‘curriculum’ and ‘syllabus’ are often misunderstood since both have overlapping concepts. Shaw (1977) made a distinction between the two by stating that ‘syllabus should be viewed in the context of an ongoing curriculum development process’ (p.217). ‘Any syllabus is primarily a plan of what is to be achieved through teaching and learning’ (Breen 2008, p.82). Dubin and Olshtain (1997) cited in Bodegas (2007) define syllabus as ‘a more detailed and operational statement of teaching and learning elements which translates the philosophy of the curriculum into a series of planned steps leading towards more narrowly defined objectives at each level’ (p.277).

In many countries around the world, curriculum development has been a great concern. For example, in Indonesia, as explained in Chapter 1, curriculum plays an important role in the development of English language teaching and learning (Sahiruddin 2013, p.567). This is shown by the fact that the curriculum model has been redesigned many times during the last fifty years (Sahiruddin 2013, p.568). However, as experienced by Indonesia, the development of the curriculum generally raises issues regarding its design and implementation. As Moore (2012) explicitly pointed out, most curriculums face challenges because they are constructed upon ‘outdated socio-economic needs, outmoded view of learning and educational processes, a reluctance to change themselves to meet either the individual or humanity’s needs in the present or immediate future’ (p.158). This is due to the complex idea that the curriculum should reflect the ‘values, beliefs, and principles in relation to learning, understanding, knowledge, disciplines, individuality and society’ (Barnett and Coate 2005, p.25) where it is constructed. It is suggested that the curriculum framework should include the social context where it is located, a powerful hidden curriculum, and a knowledge of the subject matter that becomes the basis for the curriculum design (Barnett and Coate 2005, p.39-40). Therefore, the curriculum should



have ‘an intellectual sophistication, an administrative flexibility, a trust in the professionalism of teachers and above all, a commitment to democratic ideals at a level far beyond that shown – or indeed, not shown – in current policies’ (Moore 2012, p.159). The responsibility then relies on the curriculum designers to critically think about the format, content and sequencing of the curriculum that meet the challenges. Additionally in this era, students are called upon to be responsible in engaging with the curriculum by relating it to its discipline and standards, the world of work, the wider society, and the students themselves (Barnett and Coate 2005, p.43).

In order to include students’ in the process of curriculum development, there should be a communication between the teacher and the students, which could be implemented in a negotiated curriculum.

Negotiated curriculum refers to those curriculum activities which involve negotiation and consultation between teachers and students. It includes such processes as needs analysis, jointly conducted goal and objective setting exercises by teachers and learners, negotiation of preferred methodology, materials and learning activities, and the sharing of evaluation and self-evaluation procedures (Nunan 1988, p.36).

Nation and Macalister (2010, p.149) refer to this part of curriculum design process as a negotiated syllabus. Teachers are aware that there are several types of syllabus in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching such as a structural syllabus, situational syllabus, topical syllabus, functional syllabus, notional syllabus, skills syllabus, task syllabus, that have their own purposes based on what the teacher hopes the students will achieve (Bodegas, 2007, p.284). These types of syllabus will be best implemented if students are involved in the process.

The most important aspect in designing a syllabus is organizing the courses. According to Graves (1999) cited in Bodegas (2007) the factors that should be included are ‘the course content, your goals and objectives, your past experience, your students' needs, your beliefs and understanding, the method or text and the context’ (p.286). Therefore, a negotiated syllabus is ‘a way of giving high priority to the recognition of learner needs within a course and to the need to continually adjust courses while they are running to suit changing needs and circumstances’ (Nation and Macalister 2010, p.148).

Nevertheless, challenges in a negotiated syllabus arise when students are asked to be involved since not every student will feel that it is necessary to do so especially when given the responsibility of being involved in a decision-making process. ‘What usually happens in EFL classes is that teachers make decisions and determine what students are supposed to do and how they are expected to do them without almost any negotiation with and involvement of students’ (Abbasian and Malardi 2013, p.1400). Students might therefore have insufficient knowledge or skill to help them decide what would be the best option to select. In addition, ‘teachers may feel that using a negotiated syllabus removes too much of their power and status’ (Nation and Macalister 2010, p.155). In facing these challenges, teachers should take the biggest role in making sure that the process runs as expected by guiding the students towards the right path.

Teachers’ views closely influence the way they conduct the process of needs analysis in order to create the syllabus. Several researchers emphasize the importance of the necessity of beginning with a type of analysis before designing a course such as the needs, situation and language used in order to help construct the aims, objectives and expected outcomes (Bodegas, 2007, p.281). Conducting a needs analysis is a matter of answering questions of “what”, “why”, “when”, “who”, “for whom” and “how” in order to bring forth the methodology (Reichterich cited in Fatihi 2003, p.43). Bodegas (2007) defines needs analysis as ‘techniques and procedures used for collecting relevant information for syllabus design purposes’ (p.281). She furthermore explains that the needs analysis contains information about the purpose of learning, the students and also their background and learning preferences. Richterich (1980) cited in Fatihi, (2003, pp.43-44) suggests two types of information that can be obtained in the process of the needs analysis; objective and subjective information. He continues to explain that objective information is the first step in gaining students’ information and can be used as a parameter for designing a program, and subjective information can then be conducted as the next step in order to collect information that may assist in the learning process. Nunan (1988, p.14) simplifies these two types of needs analysis by describing that objective information contains students’ information such as their ‘age, language and educational background’, while subjective information is concerned with the students’ ‘attitudes, wishes and preferences.’ Although it is difficult to identify learners’ need, Nation and Macalister (2010, pp.24-25) point out that the needs analysis process may focus on the necessities, lacks and wants of the learners. They also suggest that the information from learners could be divided into

present knowledge, required knowledge, objective needs and subjective needs, where lacks consist of present knowledge, necessities consist of required knowledge, and wants are the subjective needs. Therefore, student's needs can be particularly identified thorough their own voices.

'The awareness of individual learning needs encompass the linguistic, functional and cultural learning needs of the students' (Hull 1996, p.183). Several studies (Orr, 2001; Solak, 2012; Soruc, 2012; Whitacre, Diaz and Esquierdo, 2013; Ping *et al.*, 2015; Sunengsih and Fahrurrozi, 2015) have shown how a needs analysis is conducted in the area of language education. According to Orr (2001, p.381), in a needs analysis process, there are several questions that course developers should use as a measurement to identify learners' language skills which include how an instruction should be given in the classroom, how learners' performance should be assessed, what role teachers should take in the classroom, how material should be selected, and whether or not to include the variety of different needs of students. In Soruc's (2012, p.39) opinion, this process should encompass 'the background information section asked students' age, gender, department, and level, the self-assessment section, students addressed how much school paid attention to skills, vocabulary and grammar teaching and the third section elicited students' opinions about teaching materials, teaching methods and the school's assessment system'. The interviews with students and teachers yielded interesting results, where the students found speaking materials, role-play, discussion, and presentation activities insufficient; they also complained about the inefficacy of the teachers. Moreover, Whitacre *et al.* (2013, p.11-15) conducted the process by focusing on the assessment of the instructional practices, students' development, teaching content and students' self-assessment. Their study revealed that teachers are reliant on the mentor teacher and administration or limited their activities to the demand of the curriculum.

Sunengsih and Fahrurrozi (2015, p.94), divided the needs analysis process into two categories, 'the target needs concern the objective of teaching English, the situation needed in learning English, the content or materials to be taught, the wants in learning English and the difficulties in learning English, and the learning needs discuss the ways pupils learn English, the pupils' learning styles, the learning resources and the teaching method'. In addition Ping *et al.* (2015, p.141) used the proposed idea by Nation and Macalister (2010) focusing the needs analysis process on the necessities that include the construct and strategy needed by the students, the lacks that comprise what knowledge or

skill the students already have and what strategies they can use, and the wants that encompass the kind of knowledge and skill that students still need to learn. Therefore, the most realistic means of involving students' needs is by listening to their voices in the teaching and learning process classroom.

#### **2.4.2. Language Teaching**

Classroom teaching and learning is a process of acquiring knowledge that involves teachers supporting and guiding students' academic endeavours therefore,

teaching cannot be defined apart from learning. Teaching is guiding, and facilitating learning, enabling the learner to learn, setting the conditions of learning. Your understanding of how the learner learns will determine your philosophy of education, your teaching style, your approach, methods, and classroom techniques (Brown 2007, p.8)

In teaching a language, there are several important sequences that teachers need to implement in order to give learners a greater chance to interact with the target language (Harmer 2007, p. 50). The sequences consist of what he called; 'engage', 'study' and 'active'. In the engage phase, the learners' attention is drawn in order to involve them in the material that the teacher is going to use. This may include 'games, music, discussions, stimulating pictures, dramatic stories, amusing anecdotes, etc.' (Harmer 2007, p.52). In the study phase, learners are encouraged to actively participate in the process of language construction. This may involve understanding language form and rules where teachers may use discovery activities and reading activities (Harmer 2007, p. 54). In addition, the active phase is a phase in which learners are able to use the language in practice. This phase is crucial since students are given the opportunity to use the language with their peers and in certain contexts provided by the teachers. 'The choice of what to do in a particular lesson depends on the teacher's assessment of the factors involved in teaching those students in that situation' (Cook 2008, p.9).

In the meantime, input which refers to the learning process is believed to be the most crucial factor in teaching and learning language (Brown 2007, p.46). The 'input-output chain' explicitly describes the learning process that consists of 'input, intake, intake factors, intake processes, and output' (Kumaravadivelu 2006, p.26). The input process

refers to the knowledge corpus that learners are exposed to, it is about the accessibility and availability of the learners towards different learning sources. The intake is when learners begin to grasp the meaning from the input exposed to them, and the intake factors are when learners begin incorporating external factors into their learning. Intake process happens when learners need to engage in learning that involves critical analysis; output is what students produce from the overall learning process. This learning process shows that there are different elements, including internal and external factors that take part in the process of learners' language learning development (Kumaravadivelu, 2006).

Therefore, my provisional suggestion is that one of the external factors that is a part of learners' learning development is their cultural background. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, Vygotsky (1962) and Bruner (1972) claimed that social and cultural aspect have an influence on an individual's learning in which it may also affect their achievement and underachievement at school or other learning environment. 'Learning is born in social interaction on the basis (partly at least) of cultural norms, values, and expectations which derive from the learners' immediate community or from society at large' (Cortazzi and Jin 1996, p.171). Therefore, teachers should make an initial effort in the teaching and learning of language to identify learners' differences since they might have different perceptions about learning (Moore 2012, p.105).

Teachers' views are a crucial element in designing appropriate strategies in the classroom, since it is teachers' power in various forms that makes their understanding of students' cultures so important in constructing sensible teaching/learning strategies for their students (see section 2.2.2 of this chapter). Teachers' views on teaching, in general, can be divided into two main categories: '(1) teaching as a process of knowledge transmission, and (2) teaching as a process of knowledge construction' (Özmen 2012, p.2). The first view explains that in the teaching process, teachers take the most important role in deciding the whole teaching and learning process, setting the objectives, decide the teaching approaches and methods, including making assumptions on what is best for the students. The second view takes the idea that knowledge is built, therefore learners should be involved actively in the teaching learning process and that the teacher should take the role of facilitator.

Having a positive belief in teaching and learning and the purpose of education can help build students' motivation and solve learners' concerns, while a negative belief may lead

to the opposite (Bernat, 2007). Therefore, teachers should use their power in a way that improves their students' learning. 'Teachers bring to their teaching beliefs and values shaped by their own experiences of teaching, and being taught' (Chan, 2006). However, Nemati and Kaivanpanah (2013) state that studies have shown that often there are discrepancies between teachers' beliefs and students' expectations. In reality, teachers often implement different teaching practices compared to their students' expectations (Mat and Soon, 2010). Therefore an important step towards understanding a given culture of learning is to discover students' perceptions of how teaching and learning should be (G Makhanova and Cortazzi, 2013). 'Students' expectations can significantly mediate classroom interaction and learning. For instance, they might filter or limit the effect of teaching activities which differ from those expectation' (Cortazzi and Jin, 1996). Makhanova and Cortazzi (2013) suggest that in order to create a mutual understanding with their students, the teacher should consider the students' views by asking them formally or informally and may use the resulting information to bring about effective teaching that leads to students' development.

However, it is difficult to identify the best practice in language teaching and learning, therefore teachers could apply a 'principled practice' since,

principled practice challenges teachers to think about what is appropriate given the unique intersection that their classroom provides for their many and varied students; their beliefs about teaching and learning; the materials available for them to use; and the public, professional, and policy contexts in which they teach. The notion of principled practice focuses on the why of teaching: why teaching methods work in particular ways in particular settings (Smagorinsky 2009, p.20).

The principled practice can be applied through recognising students' cultures of learning which has been discussed in section 2.1.3 of this chapter. However, Edwards and Mercer (1987 in Moore, 2012) refer to two distinct kinds of classroom understanding and expression, which they call "principled" knowledge and "ritual" knowledge. I referred to these types of classroom culture as a ritualized and negotiated classroom. The ritualized classroom describes a student's knowledge of classroom culture, including a practical understanding of classroom rituals. It includes the notion that if students can give teachers the 'right answers' on cue, accurately read their teacher's intentions, do precisely and demonstrably what their teachers want them to do and so forth, they can to an extent, be

perceived as a successful student even though they might not have grasped certain fundamental concepts, which they would be able to subsequently develop independently of the classroom. In contrast, the negotiated classroom implies that the student has grasped a fundamental concept and that their cognitive development has progressed in some way. In this typical classroom, students must be allowed genuinely to experiment, to explore, and to debate, with the teacher, with one another and on their own. These two types of classroom to some extent may also influence the types of “principled practice”, which in this study refers to the practice of involving students’ voices by identifying their cultures of learning, to be a challenging yet worth investigating.

## **2.5. Chapter Summary**

This Chapter highlighted the relationships between cultures of learning, student agency, teacher perception and pedagogical practices. These form the main conceptual framework that I will use to analyse the data of this current study. The concept of culture and cultures of learning in Section 2.1 of this chapter gives a basic design for the first research question, what are students cultures of learning? Section 2.2 highlighted teachers’ perceptions that are closely related to teacher’s beliefs and power, which may help to uncover the second research question, what are teachers’ perception of students’ cultures of learning? Section 2.3 discussed students’ agency in relation to their beliefs, learning and voices and may give an insight into the third research question, how do cultures of learning affect students’ classroom learning practices? Section 2.4 raises the issue of teachers’ pedagogical practices, which give an understanding of how teachers need to consider their beliefs and power, as well as the students’ voices, which becomes the basis for answering the fourth research question, how do teachers’ perception of students’ cultures of learning affect their pedagogical practices?

## **CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY**

This chapter discusses the interpretivist paradigm that underpins this study and how trustworthiness is constructed by looking at triangulation, credibility, transferability and reliability. The sampling, piloting and ethics of this study are also presented to ensure that the study is credible and transferrable. This is a mixed methods study where a case study was employed. In line with the ontology and epistemology of this study, the data were collected through questionnaire, observation, and interview in order to answer the research questions: (1) what are students' cultures of learning?, (2) what are teachers' perception of students' cultures of learning?, (3) how does cultures of learning affect students' learning practices?, (4) How do teachers' perception of students' cultures of learning affect their pedagogy of curriculum enactment?

### **3.1. The Interpretivist Paradigm**

'A paradigm is often seen as an intellectual, logical foundation for designing theories about phenomena such as organisation goals and strategies, as well as methods for how social phenomena can be investigated and assessed' (Welle-Strand and Tjeldvoll 2003, p.362). Researchers choose to construct and process a research project by looking at the ontological assumptions (what constitutes reality and how can existence be understood) and the epistemological assumptions (what constitutes valid knowledge and how it can be obtained) that guide them in making considerations on the methodology and the design of instrument and procedures of data collection (Cohen et al. 2011, p.3-4). Researchers should find the most appropriate tools to carry out research that fits with their research questions in order to find the answer and fact to certain phenomenon (Pring 2010, p.33). Therefore, researchers' choice of paradigm is important in guiding the strength of their research for better solving various types of issues and questions (Kuhn 1970 cited in Grant and Giddings 2002, p.12).

In seeking authenticity especially in the area of TESOL (Brooke, 2013), there are two main paradigms to consider, the positivist and the interpretivist view (Welle-Strand and Tjeldvoll, 2003; Alexander, 2006; Cook, 2009; Pring, 2010; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). 'The interpretivist view is to describe and explain human behaviour, ...



emphasizes how people differ from inanimate natural phenomena and, indeed, from each other, while positivism claims that science provides us with the clearest possible ideal of knowledge' (Cohen et al. 2011, p.5-8).

There are two basic beliefs in gathering knowledge, namely deductive and inductive.

Deductive begins with the theory, statements that explain the patterns we observe. When we begin with theory, we know what we are looking for and are able to deduce – derive conclusions from the assumptions of the theory, so that we know what we expect to see. Another way to begin the process is to start inductively – to induce or begin with our observations to conclude what the observations mean for the whole (Lee Abbott and McKinney 2013, p.21-22).

The purpose of the interpretive paradigm is to understand the subjective world of human experience (Cohen et al. 2011, p.17). Interpretivist research asks what can be understood about the social world (Burnett and Lingam 2012, p.225). This particular research involves questions of 'why' and 'how' that describe process, and questions of 'where', 'what', 'who' and 'when' that also explains the 'outcome' or 'facts' (Brooke 2013, p.431).

Since the interpretivist view involves 'emotional, cognitive, and interactional, involving feelings and actions taken in the situation' (Denzin 2002, p.361), 'the strength and power of the interpretivist approach lies in its ability to address the complexity and meaning of (consumption) situations' (Black 2006, p.319). Several researchers (Bernstein, 1974; Xinping, 2002) view the interpretivist paradigm as a method with drawbacks, not least because apparently researchers cannot make generalizations. The problem of generalizing results is that researchers only examining certain cases based on situations or contexts with a small number of people (Flick 2009, p.407). Furthermore, generalization does not seem possible given that social processes are complex and continually changing (Lincoln and Guba 1985; Bassey 1999; Flick 2009). The issue of generalization is discussed in section 3.2.1 of this chapter. In addition, the interpretivist research raises issues and questions about how researchers demonstrate authenticity when they convert contextually laden observations or conversations into a few short sentences and how a study can convince a reader of the plausibility of the interpretation when all that is provided as support is written descriptions of a series of interrelated behaviours captured on hours of videotaped (Black 2006, p.322). It is, therefore, necessary to view

the different methodological perspectives as a complementary to each other (Flick 2009, p. 26-27), using both triangulation and construct validity in the process (Cook 2009, p.288).

This study sets out to discover Indonesian students' cultures of learning, how teachers in Indonesia perceive cultures of learning and how they influence students' learning, and teachers' developing approaches to teaching. This aims at investigating a social process that is derived from the students' and teachers' experiences, from which meaning can be understood and created (Alexander 2006, p.215). This study therefore follows the interpretivist paradigm which states that the findings can be subjectively shaped by context and cannot be generalized but only transferred to another similar context.

### **3.2. Research Epistemology**

Research epistemology 'defines the nature of the relationship between enquirer and known, what counts as knowledge, and on what basis we can make knowledge claims' (Grant and Giddings 2002, p12). 'Epistemology asks: what is knowledge? How is it acquired? And what do people know?' (Brooke 2013, p.430). Therefore, this section will explain how this research and the trustworthiness is constructed in order to gain knowledge by looking at triangulation, credibility, transferability, sampling, piloting and ethics. These elements assure that this study is done in such a way that the Indonesian student's cultures of learning and their effects may be claimed as an understanding of truth of a social phenomenon.

#### **3.2.1. Triangulation, Credibility, Transferability, and Reliability**

One cannot make a judgement that any particular research method (quantitative or qualitative) is better than the other, since the only factor that determines the appropriateness of the chosen method is whether it is capable of answering the research questions. Therefore, this study is categorized as mixed-methods research design and used a case study approach where the main focus is on people's attitudes, beliefs and behaviour towards learners' cultures of learning. In order to answer the research questions

in this study, one method will not be enough to identify the students' cultures of learning and the influence on the construction and enactment of the curriculum. Triangulation is the combining of several methods in a single research study (Flick 2009, p. 26). 'Triangulation requires that researchers take different perspectives on an issue under study or more general in answering research questions; these perspectives can be substantiated by using several methods and/or in several theoretical approaches' (Flick 2011, p.141).

However, the challenges of triangulation is in the development of the research design using different methods and going further than using a simple mixed method. Triangulation refers to the actual approaches and procedures of conducting research (Flick, 2011, p.142). Although there are various definitions of triangulation, it can basically be seen as the use of multiple theoretical perspectives or procedures and or methods, sources of data, investigators or theories to collect and interpret data about a phenomenon in order for them to converge on an accurate representation of that particular "reality" (Weyers, *et al.*, 2008; Flick, 2009, 2011).

There are different types of triangulation namely: the triangulation of methodology, the triangulation of theory, the triangulation of data, investigator triangulation, and the triangulation of paradigm (Weyers, *et al.*, 2008; Hussein, 2015). The triangulation of methodology can take on either an "intra-method" or a "inter-method" form (Weyers, *et al.*, 2008). Intra-method refers to the use of two or more techniques of the same method to collect data which typically encompass the use of multiple quantitative instruments (e.g. questionnaires) to measure the same problem. The triangulation of theory is defined as the use of multiple theories in the same study for the purpose of supporting or refuting findings since different theories help researchers to see the problem at hand using multiple lenses (Hussein, 2009). Further, in the triangulation of data the evidence produced by different techniques or procedures is compared in order to reveal similarities and incongruencies. Typically, strong similarities could be viewed as a validation of the data or conclusions, while incongruencies would be indicative of either one or more faulty procedures or data sets. In investigator triangulation, there is involvement of more than two researchers in any of the research stages in the same study. It involves the use of multiple observers, interviewers, or data analysts in the same study for confirmation purposes. The triangulation of paradigm refers to the qualitative and

quantitative styles of research that combine and cross-tabulate qualitative and quantitative data in order for them to be more comprehensive.

The drawbacks of using triangulation are that they are a time-consuming process and, because they usually require more data collectors and data preparation, quite expensive. It also demands that the researcher should have expertise in each of the research methods that are used. If qualitative and quantitative procedures are combined, the analysis becomes even more difficult because both numerical and contextual or linguistic data will have to be interpreted (Weyers, *et al.*, 2008; Hussein, 2015). In addition, triangulation also tends to generate masses of data and meanings and consequently the results might not necessarily be of a higher quality nor do they automatically produce a more complete picture than those based on a single-method (Silverman, 2013)

The current study applied the triangulation of methodology to increase comprehensiveness and completeness by producing a variety of information from multiple data on the same issue and, in so doing, enriched the understanding of the deeper and more varied dimensions of the given phenomenon. Besides improving reliability and validity which I will discuss later in this section, this approach enables the researcher to (re-)confirm trends, identify inconsistencies and uncover the deviant dimensions of a phenomenon (Weyers, *et al.*, 2008; Silverman, 2013).

It is important to design appropriate triangulation approaches so that the result of this study can be trustworthy and can also, therefore, be transferrable. Thus the use of multiple methods is a way of constructing credibility, transferability, validity and reliability in the current study.

‘Whatever procedure for collecting data is selected, it should always be examined critically to assess to what extent it is likely to be reliable and valid’ (Bell 2010, p.119). Validity and reliability are terms used in positivism and therefore is quantitative by nature.

‘Validity refers to the credibility of our interpretations’ (Silverman 2013, p.285) ‘If qualitative studies cannot consistently provide valid results, the policies, programs or predictions based on these studies cannot be relied on’ (Maxwell, 2002, p.37). There are two types of validity: external validity and internal validity. External validity refers to how the procedures used in the study gained findings that can be applied to the target

population from which the sample for the study was drawn, while, internal validity refers to how the design of the research does not have errors or bias built in to it (Fink 2003, p.60). An important point to make is that validity relates to how the data is used, and conclusions reached, using these methods to answer the particular research questions (Maxwell 2002).

However, since this is mixed methods study, the term validity may not be appropriate to guarantee the trustworthy of social studies, therefore Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggested that the term ‘credibility’ is more appropriate in this context than ‘internal validity’, and that ‘external validity’ can be replaced with ‘transferability’. Internal validity is ‘procedural’ (Chowdhury 2015, p.148) and deals with how a researcher is measuring what they are supposed to measure (Fink, 2003; Flick, 2009; Lee Abbott and McKinney, 2013; Silverman, 2013), In interpretivist study , credibility is more appropriate since ‘it is the accuracy of research findings where investigators attempt to demonstrate that a true picture of the phenomenon under scrutiny is being presented’ (Shenton 2004 in Chowdhury 2015, p.148). In addition, credibility shows how meaning is shaped based on the researchers’ deep interpretation and ability to recognize the lived experiences of people (Avis 1995, p.1205).

Five strategies were adopted in this study to achieve credible mixed-methods research following the views of Flick (2009, p.392): (1) activities for increasing the likelihood that credible results would be produced by a “prolonged engagement” and “persistent observation” in the field by triangulating the methods including questionnaire, classroom observation, and interviews with the teachers and students; (2) “peer debriefing”: having meetings with a peer in the School of Education at the University of Leicester who is not involved in the research to discuss the themes found when analysing the research data; (3) analytic induction: themes of the case are inspected to locate common factors and provisional explanations; (4) appropriateness of the terms of reference of interpretation which includes the data analysis procedures; (5) “member checks” in the sense of communicative validation of data and interpretations with only a teacher collaborator in the fields under study. This is, however, a weak form of member checking because I was unable to involve the students due to communication issues.

External validity is also known as generalization in quantitative research. The issue with generalization in qualitative research is that its statements are often made for a

certain context or specific cases and based on analysis of relations, conditions and processes (Flick 2009, p.407). Strict generalisation in positivist research is very difficult to achieve because it is mathematical and depends on how closely the sample for a study matches the population that the study focuses on; it has therefore been redrafted with the term 'transferability' (Lincoln and Guba 1985). Transferability takes into consideration other similar contexts which might be suitable for the results of a study (Avis 1995, p.1205). While generalization indicates that the result can be applicable to the wider population, transferability shows that a result can be applicable to different situations so long as these have identifiable similarities to the situation in which the study was carried: 'findings of a qualitative project are specific to a small number of particular environments and individuals, it is unfeasible to demonstrate that the findings and conclusions are applicable to other situations and populations' (Shenton 2004, p.69). In the current study, credibility and transferability are guaranteed by selecting representative samples based on selected criteria and selecting careful instruments used to collect and analyse the collected data.

Reliability is 'the extent to which a test or procedure produces similar results under constant conditions on all occasions' (Bell 2010, p.119). There are three types of reliability referred to in quantitative research, which relate to: (1) the degree to which a measurement, given repeatedly, remains the same (2) the stability of a measurement over time; and (3) the similarity of measurements within a given time period (Kirk and Miller, 1986; Golafshani, 2003). These elements are found in four types of reliability; test-retest reliability, parallel forms reliability, internal consistency reliability, and inter-rater reliability (Gabrenya, 2003). The test-retest reliability refers to the extent to which an instrument is stable over repeated administration. Parallel forms reliability refers to forms that are alternate versions of the same test which are developed in situations where a researcher must essentially obtain the same information from people at several different but close-together times to avoid the research participants' exposure to the test at one time to affect responses the other time. Internal consistency relates to the consistency of individual items in a test measuring the same thing. Inter-rater reliability refers to the degree to which different observers give consistent estimates of the same behaviour.

Each of the reliability estimators will give a different value for reliability. In general, the test-retest and inter-rater reliability estimates will be lower in value than internal consistency and parallel forms because they involve measuring at different times

or with different collaborators. Since reliability estimates are often used in statistical analysis of quasi-experimental designs, the fact that different estimates can differ considerably makes the analysis even more complex. Therefore, since this is mixed-methods design study, reliability was assured by -a well- documented and designed research process (Flick 2009, p.387). In the current study, the reliability is improved by checking the methods and procedures of data collection and analysis and by carrying out piloting.

Finally, reliability of findings can be improved through ‘triangulation of various methods by combining qualitative methods (e.g., interviews and participant observation), quantitative methods (e.g., questionnaires and tests), or qualitative and quantitative methods’ (Flick 2011, p.140). Therefore, this study employed mixed-methods to collect the data, consisting of questionnaire, interview, and classroom observation.

### **3.2.2. Sampling and the Obstacles Encountered during this Study**

Prior to conducting mixed-methods research, the most common question that researchers ask is how many people are to be included in the study (Dornyei 2007, p.95). The questions that should be considered could be ‘how large should my sample be? What sort of people should I select? and who shall my sample consist of?’ (Dornyei 2007, p.96). The selection of sampling should not only consider the people to be observed but also the location where a case is situated (Flick 2007, p.27). Since this is a study on students’ cultures of learning and how they influence the pedagogy and learning, the participants are from the first fieldwork were the teachers and students at the English Education study program in two universities in Indonesia. The two universities were chosen as they have implemented KKNI (*Kerangka Kualifikasi Nasional Indonesia*) or the Indonesian National Qualification Framework and are located in different regions in Indonesia. In this study, I labelled them as Institution 1 and Institution 2. This is necessary in order to have a sample of students from different cultural and educational backgrounds. There were six teachers, three from each university, and 127 students (55 students from institution 1, and 72 students from institution 2).

However, during my viva, the internal and external examiners decided that I should involve more teachers in the study to add evidence towards the findings of this research

by obtaining more observation and interview data related to teachers of English. There was a lack of explanation in the body of my thesis prior to the viva about how I gathered the data from the questionnaire, observation, and interview in the first data collection. I did not explain that the students' questionnaire and observation was a part of the basis of interviewing the teachers of observed classes. The evidence that the interviews from the first data collection have used the students' questionnaire result, and class observation as basis can be seen from a teacher's interview transcript in appendix M, along with an interview transcript from the second fieldwork data collection. However, I was advised to conduct a second data collection, working with additional three universities with additional 15 teachers. There were overall 21 teaching staff at the universities that were involved in this study. I then relabelled institution 2 from the first data collection to institution 5 based on the proximity of the demographic location of each of the institution and labelling the additional three institutions from the second data collection as institution 2, institution 3, and institution 4). However, I did not involve the students in the three additional universities because the data that I presented from the first data collection involving 55 students from institution 1, and 72 students from institution 5 was considered sufficient enough by myself, the supervisors, and the examiners to support the findings of this study.

'The population is the group of people whom the study is about, and the sample is the group of participants that the researcher actually examines' (Dörnyei, 2007, p.96). There are basically two strategies used when selecting a sample for a study which is probability sampling and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling is used when there is a tendency to generalize the findings of the study, therefore, in order to represent the total population, the samples must have similar characteristics to the target population (Lee Abbott and McKinney 2013, p.105). The main feature of probability sampling is that the selection of samples is on a random basis - every individual in a population has the same probability of being selected. However, the issue with this type of sampling in TESOL research is that it is almost always not feasible to get the most representative sample (Dörnyei 2007, p.98). Non-probability sampling is seen as more appropriate to be used when there is no intention to generalize the findings of a study. This sampling is known to be purposive and non-representative (Dörnyei 2007, p.98), which is important since this research aims at deliberately selecting particular cases, materials or events of a social phenomenon in a structured and well-planned design (Flick 2007, p.27).



Therefore, purposive sampling is seen to be more appropriate since the researcher has the opportunity to select certain individuals that may provide ‘rich and varied insight’ into what is being investigated (Dörnyei 2007, p.126). By selecting the sample purposively, the researcher is able to choose those who ‘have the necessary knowledge and experience of the issue or object at their disposal for answering the questions in the interview – in observational studies – for performing the actions of interest’ (Flick 2009, p.123). In regard to this study, the purposive sampling gives greater opportunities to decide the features of participants needed to gain relevant information related to the focus of the study.

The teachers who are selected are those who teach students that have the following criteria:

1. Originally come from Indonesia with different backgrounds. This is to gain a heterogeneity and sampling representative to represent Indonesia.
2. They are students on an English Education study program. The study focuses on student teachers and their approaches to learning English.
3. The students were in their mid to late teens and were old enough to provide some personal insights about their learning experiences in the classroom.
4. They should be in their second to third year of study. They should have attended at least one year of teaching and learning in the university in order to be able to share their experiences.

All of the students (from Institution 1 and Institution 5) were given questionnaires for Phase 1 of the research, however, only students that agreed to be interviewed by leaving their name and contact number on the questionnaire sheets were selected for the third phase of the research which is the interview. For the second phase of this research, observations were carried out in 26 classes at the five universities. There were three teachers from institution 1, five from institution 2, three from institution 3, seven teachers from institution 4, and three teachers from institution 5, who were involved in this research. I observed more than one class of five teachers: one from institution 2, one from institution 3, and three from institution 4. The classes were selected based on an agreement between the teachers and the researcher because in choosing a sample,

‘negotiation and convenience’ is necessary in order to select the most appropriate and easiest method to access the sample that is useful for the study (Patton 2002, p.246).

However, bias can result if the sample, which fulfil the sampling criteria, does not respond and is not available at the time of the data collection (Lee Abbott & McKinney 2013, p.119). This study, therefore, had ‘redundancy’ in its sample size in order to collect the most appropriate information needed for the study (Lincoln and Guba (1985, p.202).

### **3.2.3. Piloting**

A pilot case study assists a researcher in planning the collection of data, focusing on the content of data and the procedures required (Yin 1994, p.92).

This study adopted several methods for collecting the data with regard to answering the research questions. The methods that were piloted were questionnaire, interview and classroom observation. In collaboration with a teacher in Indonesia, the piloting of this study was conducted online. The questionnaire was sent electronically to be completed by one class of students in a state university in Indonesia under the supervision of the collaborator. The interview was conducted through a video call conference where I took the role of interviewer with the collaborative teacher and students as the interviewees. The piloting of the observation was implemented by recording the class involved in the questionnaire and the teacher involved in the interview.

Three important stages in implementing a ‘pilot testing’ for a questionnaire were adopted in this study (Converse and Presser 1986 in Vaus, 2014). The stages consist of the question development stage, the questionnaire development stage, and the polishing pilot test stage. In the first stage, the purpose was to ‘establish how to phrase each question, to evaluate how respondents interpret the question’s meaning and to check whether the range of response alternatives is sufficient’. The respondents were given around 30 minutes to answer the questions and the collaborating teacher gave the chance for the students to ask any questions if they did not understand the questions’ meaning. However, the respondents were able to understand every question clearly and gave sufficient answers. The second stage, ‘by administering a complete questionnaire (usually considerably longer than the final questionnaire), this stage enables the further evaluation of individual items and the questionnaire as a whole. I evaluated every question by

looking at the responses given by the participants and came to conclude that every question was answered based on what is expected from them. The third stage, use the information gained in stage two to revise questions where necessary, shorten the questionnaire, reorder questions and finalise the skip patterns' (Vaus 2014, p.115-116). I did not revise any questions from the questionnaire, however, I did change item 2 about the respondent's ethnicity to an open question. I noticed from the piloting that students belonged to various ethnic groups in Indonesia, therefore an open response may allow them to write whichever ethnicity that they felt related to them.

In piloting the interview, it is important to keep in mind the difference between practicing and piloting the interview since it will help in making detailed adjustments and alterations (Gillham 2000, p.53). 'The pilot study can be so important that more resources may be devoted to this phase of the research' (Yin 1994, p.92). Therefore, a researcher should consider when piloting the interview;

...adjustment to content are required, categorizing and sorting what the interviewee has said to you'... 'If you prune for manageability – and length can be a problem for the interviewee as well as for you – then, as you reduce it, you end up with an interview that has more bite and interest (Gillham 2000, p.53-54)

In piloting the interview, I realised that there were several questions that I needed to revise especially those that encouraged the teachers to only give yes/no responses. In addition, some questions that I posed only focused on teachers and students' opinions, which I understood would not help me to collect information about what actually happened in the classroom. There were some questions that I felt I should have asked the students and teachers to elaborate and clarify. In addition, when selecting the teacher participants for the interview, I felt the challenge of not being able to involve teachers with different profiles. I made a note for myself that I should increase my availability for contact with teachers in order to meet their schedule.

The use of observation in this study was to validate other evidence gathered by questionnaire and interview. The piloting is important to test the methods and revise if necessary, and ask peers to observe, comparing notes to see whether the same things have been noticed or not, memorizing categories, devise a system of shorthand (symbols, letters, and so on) and practice recording until confidence is achieved to move on with

the fieldwork (Bell 2010, p.203). The observation was recorded by a collaborator, therefore, I was only able to obtain a 30-minute recording of the classroom process. There was not much to be observed in the classroom since the position of the camera was not able to capture the whole class. Additionally, I realised that as the interview and observation took a long time to be implemented, I needed more time to analyse the questionnaire before moving on to the interview and observation. Once I had completed the descriptive analysis of the questionnaire, the teachers then had to postpone the agreed interview and observation schedule. I, therefore, decided to change the sequence of the research phases by using the questionnaire in phase 1, observation in phase 2 and interview in phase 3. This would allow me time to analyse the questionnaire while implementing the observation. Once the analysis of the questionnaire was done, I could move on with the interview having the results of both the questionnaire and the observation data in hand.

#### **3.2.4. Ethics**

The issue of ethics in mixed-methods research is an area that has gained great attention in recent years. In conducting a case study, it is crucial for researchers to understand three things, namely respect for democracy, respect for truth, and respect for person (Bassey 1999, p. 74). Respect for democracy means that researchers should understand that they are in a democratic society where there is freedom to give and receive information. They should therefore, researchers should respect truth by being honest throughout the whole research process and respect the people who have ownership of data by considering their dignity and privacy. These ethical issues can be summed up in a list of rules of engagement with participants, where ‘these rules are intended to help keep participants safe from harm, build trust with participants and ensure trustworthy outcomes from the research which will benefit society’ (Busher and James 2012, p.1).

This study involved teachers in five universities and students in two universities in Indonesia. Therefore, I prepared an information sheet (Appendix B), a consent form for teachers and students (Appendix C) and a letter of permission for the institutions to conduct research in the two universities and related institutions in Indonesia (Appendix D). The data collection was implemented when I had received ethical approval from the University of Leicester and the letter of permission from the five institutions in Indonesia.

An informed consent form was given to the participants to sign before they engaged in the research. This form acknowledges that the participants' rights will be protected during the data collection (Cresswell, 2003). Moreover, the ethical issue focused not only on the participants prior to conducting the data collection, but also on the accuracy of data and their interpretation and avoiding personal judgements when analysing the data (Flick, 2007, 2009) as well as prior to conducting the piloting. There was, therefore, a great deal of attention, responsibility and care regarding ethical issues given when collecting the data using the questionnaire, classroom observation, and interview.

Following receipt of permission from the authorities and consent from the participants, the next ethical procedure was to ensure that the participants were left undisturbed after the data collection; I discussed with teacher collaborators an appropriate timescale for conducting the survey, observation, and interview that minimized any disruption of their activities at the research site. Further, a researcher has to ensure that there is no possibility of harmful, intimate information being disclosed about the participants during the data collection process or afterwards when the research is written up. The only concern that I faced was that the Indonesian university authorities asked me to conduct the research in English as the participants are teachers and students of an English education study program. The issue of using a language that is not the native language of the respondents is that interpretation and understanding of meanings are central in qualitative research and text is the 'vehicle' with which meaning is ultimately transferred to the reader, language differences therefore generate additional challenges that might hinder the transfer of meaning and might result in loss of meaning and thus loss of validity of the qualitative study (Nes *et al.*, 2010). However, since this condition was required by the authorities, I agreed and in the actual data collection I gave the participants the opportunity to choose whether to use Indonesian or English. This was also a way of providing reciprocity between myself and the participants. Some students used Indonesian during the data collection because they were not confident with their English skills. Therefore, in conducting this study, I have obtained consent and assured confidentiality, not only from the participants of the study but also from the institutions where the research was being conducted.

In the data analysis and interpretation, the participants were protected by associating their names using codes, and the data, once analysed was kept safe by not sharing or giving them to other researchers as suggested by Cresswell (2003). In addition,

the accuracy of data interpretation was achieved by debriefing the participants and cross-checking different data sources.

In the final writing of the thesis, I avoid using language or words that are biased against the participants based on gender, race, ethnicity, or age. I referred to the participants as “teacher” and “student”. Other ethical issues that were guaranteed during the writing of this thesis were that the findings were not suppressing and fraudulent. Since the collection of data and its analysis, I have used the participants to check the accuracy of transcripts and interpretation of the data. In doing so, I have also anticipated any potential misuse of the findings that may advantage any group or university within the study. Finally, the ethics are protected by describing and explaining the details of the research with the study design so that readers can determine for themselves the credibility of the study (Cresswell, 2003).

### **3.3. Research Design**

Mixed-methods approach ‘involves the collection or analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study with some attempts to integrate the two approaches at one or more stages of the research process’ (Dörnyei, 2007). Several authors have adopted a new perspective and discussed the use of mixed methods in the context of qualitative research. Mason(2006) suggested that “‘mixed methods can enhance the logic of qualitative explanation” (p. 16). In particular, the “‘qualitative logic of comparison” (p. 16) and the “‘cross-contextual and contextual explanation” (p. 17) make a strong case for using mixed methods in a “‘qualitatively driven way” (p. 9). According to Dörnyei (2007), the term mixed-methods may cause confusion, therefore, a number of different typologies have been proposed and the mostly accepted types are the *sequence* and *dominance*. The visual representation of this is elaborated as follows; (1) ‘QUAL’ or ‘qual’ stand for qualitative research, (2) ‘QUAN’ or ‘quan’ stands for quantitative research, (3) capital letters denote priority or increased weight, (4) lowercase letter denote lower priority of weight, (5) a plus sign (+) represent a concurrent collection of data, (6) an arrow (->) represents a sequential collection of data. Therefore, in the current study, I employed the quan -> QUAL combination of data collection showing that this study consisted of three phases, with the second and third, qualitative phase dominating. The questionnaire in the first phase is used to facilitate the development of the observation

and interview instrument. The domination of qualitative instrument leading the research focusing on case studies or a series of case studies, and often the case (its history and complexity) as an important context for understanding what is studied' (Flick, 2007).

A case study 'typically observes the characteristics of an individual unit – a child, a clique, a class, a school or a community' (Cohen and Manion 1989 cited in Bassey 1999, p.24)). 'The focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within a real-life context' (Yin 2009, p.2). In this study, I took the case of students and teachers in an English Education study program of higher education and integrated it with teachers' pedagogy of curriculum construction and enactment in Indonesia. A case study should also include concept(s) that are used as a basis for research which can be developed in the findings of a study (Silverman 2013, p.143). Therefore, I used the concept of cultures of learning proposed by Cortazzi and Jin (1996; 2013) in order to investigate the culture of learning in Indonesia and developed it by understanding how these affect students' learning and teachers' pedagogy.

This is a single case study which looked at the case of English Education students' learning and teachers' pedagogy. The design is suitable for this study since I explored a common case that aims at describing 'social processes' (Yin 2014, p.52) of students' learning cultures that might give a new insight into the language curriculum in Indonesia.

Despite this being a single case study, I am aware that this study obtained the samples from five universities in Indonesia. This was not to compare or contrast the five universities, but simply for the purpose of having maximum variation (heterogeneity) sampling. Within this single case study, I wanted to have samples of students that had variety of cultural backgrounds. I chose the two universities from regions that are culturally, socially, economically, and demographically distinct from one another. 'Sample variation may strengthen the finding since it could describe common pattern of interest of a setting or phenomenon' (Patton 2002, p.235).

As with other qualitative dominant research designs, a single case study has its own limitations; it is less powerful since it might not cover a whole range of other important elements that may strengthen the findings (Yin 2014; 2009; 1994). In addition, a single case study might result in a case that was not intended to be investigated in the first place. Therefore, in order to minimize these problems, there was 'a careful investigation of the potential case' (Yin 2014, p.53). Furthermore, in order to be acceptable and trustworthy,

a case study should be reliable and valid (Bassey 1999, p.75) which in this mixed-methods study uses the term credible and transferability (discussed in section 3.2.1).

This case study was implemented sequentially in three phases after receiving ethical approval. The first phase was implementing the questionnaire and the second phase was implementing the classroom observation. The results of the questionnaire and observation became the baseline for conducting the interview in the third phase. A sequential data collection that begins with a quantitative instrument (questionnaire) needs a qualitative instrument (interview/observation) to ‘reveal little about the nature of relationship’ (Dörnyei 2007). This enriched the data and participants were also able to explain and discuss the pattern from the questionnaire and observations.

### **3.4. Data Collection and Data Analysis**

Data collection was conducted from September 2017 – November 2017 in two universities and from October 2019 – November 2019 in three universities in Indonesia. I used the same data collection procedures for the five universities where I contacted the authorities in advance and arranged a time to meet them and discuss my fieldwork plans. Prior to contacting the authorities, I was obliged to get a permission from the ministry of research and technology in Indonesia to conduct a research at the universities. The ministry had to issue the permission needed. This becomes one of the practical difficulties and local challenges that I have to face because this requires the submission of several documents and is normally time consuming. The documents include the description and valuation of all the equipment to be used in the research, letter from the university of Leicester (ethical approval), letter of recommendation from supervisor, sponsoring letter, CV, proposal with bibliography, abstract of proposal, and cover letter. The permission letter issued by the ministry of research and technology took more time than I expected because normally all offices in Indonesia close early on Fridays for prayers and they have shared holidays, and there are many inefficiencies built into the system. This then caused the rescheduling of my data collection dates which should actually began in June 2017. However, I did not encounter this difficulty when conducting the second data collection in October 2019. The process was faster, perhaps, because I applied for the permission letter at the end of the year. Normally, administrative works should be completed before the holidays. Once I had the letter of permission, the universities were very welcoming



and made all the necessary arrangements in order for my data collection to run smoothly. The details of the data collection are discussed below.

### **3.4.1. Questionnaire**

Surveys in social sciences are necessary to find out about people's beliefs, behaviours, and experiences (Fink, 2003; Lee Abbott and McKinney, 2013). A survey is not just a particular technique for collecting information: questionnaires are widely used but other techniques, such as structured and in-depth interviews, observation, content analysis and so forth, can also be used in survey research (Vaus 2014, p.3). In this case study, a Likert-scale questionnaire (Appendix E) was used in order to answer the first question: what are the students' cultures of learning? This question refers to students' beliefs and experiences of learning. A questionnaire can be constructed in a way that contains factual questions, behavioural questions and attitudinal questions (Dörnyei 2007, p.102). In this study the Likert-scale questionnaire was constructed using factual and attitudinal questions on issues such as students' views on learning, teaching and their relationship with their teachers. The questionnaire was adapted from Cortazzi and Jin (1996) and Shi (2006) because the language used is simple and easy to understand, especially for EFL students. The questions were arranged in a logical manner, and the terms used are based on the cultures of learning proposed by Cortazzi and Jin (1996; 2013). I made changes in the questionnaire by adding (1) questions about the demographic information of the students; (2) open-ended questions about learning (examples, preferences, and challenges); and (3) the Likert scale. The changes were made in order to give a greater freedom of expression, a far greater richness in the responses, and to identify issues that were not previously anticipated (Dörnyei, 2007).

The following table shows how the main research question relate to the questions in the questionnaire:

Table 3. 1 Research question and the questionnaire

Research Question	Items in the Questionnaire
What are students' cultures of learning? The students' cultures of learning according to Cortazzi and Jin (1996) is categorized into the expectations, beliefs and views on:	
a. Learning	Item. 6-8: 6. Give some examples of learning. .Give some examples of successful learning. 8. I learn English to?
b. Good teacher, good student and their relationship.	Item. 9 -11: Indicate how far you agree and disagree with each of the statements. 9. A good teacher is? 10. A good student is? 11. Teacher – student relationship is?
c. Learning English	Item. 12-18: Indicate how far you agree and disagree with each of the statements. 12. I practice listening best by .... 13. I practice speaking best by ... 14. I practice reading best by... 15. I practice writing best by... 16. I learn grammar best by... 17. I practice pronunciation best with... 18. I memorise English words by..
d. Factors influence learning (cultural origin)	19: What mostly influences your learning of English?
e. Asking questions	20: Asking question in the classroom is
f. Textbook	Item. 21: English textbooks are...
g. Learning preferences	22: How do you prefer to learn English in the classroom?
h. Challenges in learning English	23: What are the challenges in improving your English skill?

Although a questionnaire could be categorized as quantitative research since in the analysis process, there could be measurement involved, in this study, 'the extent that measurement comes into play, it is for the sake of making more precise the qualities that we seek to clarify, understand and distinguish' (Alexander 2006, p.214-215). Criticism on surveys points to the fact that they are often misunderstood and researchers tend to create poor and low quality surveys (Vaus 2014, p.3). Therefore, this survey had 'specific and measurable objectives, sound research design, sound choice of population and sample, reliable and valid instrument, appropriate analysis and accurate reporting of result' (Fink 2003, p.1).

During the data collection, all of the students from three classes in Institution 1 and three classes in Institution 5 were given the Likert scale questionnaire to be completed within 30 minutes. The questionnaire was given to 127 students, 72 of whom were from Institution 1 and 55 from Institution 5. The questionnaire was printed and distributed to the students in Indonesia with the permission of the teacher collaborators. Once the questionnaires had been completed by the students, I applied a certain analysis using a related statistic tool. The aim of this questionnaire is to discover the Indonesian students cultures of learning which indicates that this is a univariate or 'one variable' (Vaus, 2014) method of analysis. The source of the data is nominal since it has 'no numerical values' (Dörnyei, 2007). The data was coded and transferred into a statistical package (SPSS).

The data was analysed using a descriptive analysis 'that summarise patterns in the responses of cases in a sample' (Vaus 2014, p.207). There are three ways to present a descriptive analysis: tabular, graphical, and statistical. The tabular analysis is presented in tables, graphical in form of graphs and statistical is shown in a summary of measurement of the data (Vaus 2014, p.207). This study applied a tabular analysis using SPSS in which the students' multiple responses of cultures of learning were tabulated in a frequency table. Tabular analysis is a crucial tool in the analysis and production or publication of results, given that it organizes the collected information in a clear and summarized fashion. The correct preparation of tables allows researchers to present information about tens or hundreds of individuals efficiently and with significant visual appeal, making the results more easily understandable and thus more attractive to the users of the produced information (see Appendix F).

I used a simple or low-level descriptive analysis (mean scores, standard deviation, and p values ) in order to identify the students' cultures of learning based on the constructs in table 3.1. By assigning the analysis to student's responses, I can identify the pattern of Indonesian student's cultures of learning, which was used as a primary data to construct the observation checklists and interview questions. Most importantly, the data from the descriptive analysis is a guideline to understand the effect of cultures of learning on students' learning and teachers' pedagogy.

### **3.4.2. Observation**

Observation is one of the research tools that helps researchers to reach a better understanding and capture the context of where the participants interact on a daily basis (Patton 2002, p.262). The more observations there are which support the generalization, the more confident one might be in the conclusions reached (Pring 2010, p.33).

Classroom observation can become an important consideration when faced with classroom-related issues that comprise classroom management, student behaviour, the relationship between the teacher and students, ‘and pupils and among the pupils themselves, the nature of classroom rules, or the lack of them’ (Wragg 1999, p.3).

Therefore, in order to strengthen the findings of the study using data gathered from the questionnaire, classroom observation was used to assist the researcher in finding out the actual actions of students and teachers towards learning. The observation strengthened the answer to research question 3: how do cultures of learning affect students learning practices? and research question 4: how do teachers’ perception of students’ cultures of learning affect their pedagogy of curriculum enactment?

Observation can be structured and unstructured, participant and non-participant. This study used unstructured, non-participant observation. Unstructured observation is used to give the researcher the flexibility to observe beyond the themes or list provided. It is necessary to leave room for new issues that may be perceived during the observation that could contribute to the findings of the study. Although some consider that this kind of observation can be biased or subjective, I purely took part as an observer and this allowed me to keep records on the formulated cases of study and observe the important ‘aspect of behaviour’ that could easily be identified during the observation (Bell 2010, p.195). In addition, the data collected in this way can be cross-referenced with interviews with the participant teachers.

Although this was an unstructured observation, I used an observation form to help me identify the main aspects to be observed in order to answer the research questions. I will discuss this below. Any qualitative observation should be guided, ‘especially at the beginning, by a particular sensitivity towards certain concepts, in that the researcher performs the tasks of selecting topics decides what question to ask, and forges interest in the course of the research itself’ (Corbetta 2003, p.246-247). I designed the observation

form to help me understand the descriptive and reflective information focusing on the research problems (see Appendix G). I observed 26 classrooms of 21 teachers in five universities with approximately 1hr to 3hrs lessons. There were five teachers that I observed more than one of their classes in order to see and understand better their pedagogical choices in enacting the curriculum.

The table below shows the relationship between the research questions and the field notes in the unstructured observation form.

Table 3. 2 Research Questions and Notes in an Observation Form

The research Questions	Notes in an Observation Form
3. How do cultures of learning affect students' learning?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Teacher and student interaction</b> (teacher student relationship)</li> <li>• <b>General attitudes to learning</b> (students' interest, motivation, participation, etc)</li> <li>• <b>Classroom management</b> (group work, giving and asking questions, etc)</li> </ul>
4. How do teachers' perception of students' cultures of learning affect their pedagogy of curriculum enactment?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Teaching method and content</b> (teach based on what has been prepared)</li> <li>• <b>Students' need</b> (how students' need is handled by teacher)</li> <li>• <b>Classroom management</b> (group work, giving and asking questions, etc)</li> </ul>

Observation is seen as difficult to implemented since it needs the researcher to have the ability to spot and record relevant events in the classroom. Therefore, careful planning beginning with receiving ethical approval (consent and access issue) to piloting (Bell 2010, p.191) is needed to avoid challenges in the conducting of the observation and to test the instrument and give a description of how the actual situation would be during the data collection. The observation data were analysed using thematic analysis in order to answer the research questions based on the actual event happening in the classroom. Thematic analysis would assure that the events that were discussed in the interviews (which were also being identified in the observation) were categorized and listed with short descriptions that allowed me to easily relate the observation data to the questionnaire and interview data with regards to the research questions (see Appendix I). I will discuss in detail how the qualitative data is analysed at the end of the data collection and data analysis section.

### 3.4.3. Interview

An interview is basically a conversation between two people where one person is in charge of asking the questions and the other one giving response (Gillham 2000, p.1). Although there are several types of interview, the semi-structured interview was used in this study since ‘although there is a set of pre-prepared guiding questions and prompts, the format is open-ended and the interviewee is encouraged to elaborate on the issue raised in an exploratory manner’ (Dörnyei 2007, p.136). The interviews in this study were used to answer the second research question: what are teachers’ perception of students’ cultures of learning?, the third question: how do cultures of learning affect students’ learning?, and the fourth question: how do teachers’ perception of students’ cultures of learning affect their pedagogy of curriculum enactment?

I designed the interview questions for the teachers and students in order to find out the effect of cultures of learning on students’ learning and teachers approaches to teaching. 21 teachers and 30 students participated in the interviews. One student from Institution 1 withdrew during the process but I was able to replace this participant with another student with a similar profile who gave their consent to participate in the interview. The interview questions for the students consisted of eight questions, and 13 questions for the teachers which is based on the result of students’ questionnaire and class observation, allowing 30-40 minutes of interview to answer research question 3. The interview questions for teachers were divided into seven questions for research question 2 and three questions for research question 4. The interview questions for teachers and students were designed by paying attention to “what should be avoided” (such as leading questions and the use of loaded or ambiguous words) and “what should be done” (Dörnyei, 2007). In addition, the most important rule that I took into consideration was to use words that would make sense to the interviewee and reflect their worldview in order to connect with the respondent and improve to the quality of interview data (Patton, 2002). See Appendix H for the list of the interview questions for teachers and students.

The table below shows how the main research question relates to the questions in the interview based on students’ questionnaire and the classroom observations:

Table 3. 3 Research Questions and Interview Questions

Research Questions	Questions in the Interview
2. What are teachers' perception of students' cultures of learning?	<p><b>Teachers' perspective on students' belief about teacher and student quality and relationship:</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. The data from Ss questionnaire revealed that a good teacher is creative and humorous, how do you respond to this?</li> <li>2. The data from Ss questionnaire revealed that a good student is the one with high motivation, what do you think about this?</li> <li>3. In the interview that I did with students, they said that teachers have pedagogic control over the classroom (T take control, Ss feel not involved, they only need to follow). They mentioned the word follow, teacher decides, and created by teacher, what is your response to this?</li> <li>4. The data from Ss questionnaire revealed that they view their relationship with the student as an educator-learner relationship, your opinion about this?</li> <li>5. In the interview, they prefer to be appreciated, being valued, treated equally, your response?</li> </ol> <p><b>Teachers' perception on students' culture in learning English:</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. In the questionnaire and interview, the Ss emphasize the importance of discussion (share ideas freely, save face, help to communicate), your opinion?</li> <li>2. They indicated a negative attitude towards PPT (inability of peers to explain, confidence, passive participation, English skill incompetency, boredom), your opinion? This is also a part of how they see as barriers to effectiveness of their learning (T and Ss issues)</li> <li>3. In the questionnaire SS said that they do not ask questions because their English is not too good, your response?</li> <li>4. In the interview, the students revealed that they prefer to ask questions out of lesson, when the classroom is enjoyable, ask their peers, your opinion about this?</li> </ol>
3. How do cultures of learning affect students' learning?	<p><b>The influence of cultures of learning in students' classroom learning:</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. What do you like in the way your teachers teach?</li> <li>2. Do you feel comfortable with the teaching methods and techniques applied by the teacher?</li> <li>3. What is your opinion about asking questions in the classroom?</li> <li>4. What is your opinion about the materials your teacher uses in the classroom, does the materials suit you?</li> <li>5. How do you enjoy your classes so far?</li> <li>6. How do you want to be treated by your teacher?</li> <li>7. Will you involve in giving ideas to improve the teaching and learning?</li> <li>8. Do you have any suggestion for your teacher about how to make students involved?</li> </ol>
4. How do teachers' perception of students' cultures of learning affect their pedagogy of curriculum enactment?	<p><b>Students' cultures of learning and teaching approaches:</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. What influences your decision about what and how to teach?</li> <li>2. <i>I noticed you use this method, why do you this it's effective for this class? Why do you use this method? I saw this..., why? What is your response?</i></li> <li>3. How do you consider students' preferences and needs in deciding what and how to teach?</li> <li>4. What is your opinion about involving students' voices in deciding what and how to teach?</li> </ol>

These questions could be answered by interview since teachers' and students' response may inform the researcher about some 'external reality (e.g. facts, events) or internal experience (e.g. feelings, meanings)' (Silverman 2013, p.238).

However, even though the interviews contributed to the information gathered in the questionnaires, it was time consuming and could create bias as it is often subjective (Bell 2010, p.161). Therefore, member checking is important to ensure that the participants believe their interview represents their views accurately. As mentioned in section 3.2.1, member checking in the current study is weak, therefore, my role as an interviewer in constructing and conducting a successful interview were put into attention to avoid bias (Flick 2009, p.154). There should be a provision in the research for training or testing the instrument and piloting is seen as a good alternative for performing this function which has been discussed in detail in section 3.2.3 of this chapter.

In analysing the data collected from the interviews, as with the observation data, I used a thematic analysis in order to answer the research questions. Flick (2009) highlighted other qualitative analysis besides thematic analysis, such as; grounded theory, content analysis, and global analysis. Grounded theory is the procedure where a case(s) is analysed to formulate a theory; content analysis takes the procedures of categorizing verbal or behavioural data to be classified, summarized, and tabulated; while global analysis aims to obtain an overview of the thematic range of the text which is to be analysed. In the current study, the themes are derived from the research questions and thus defined in advance, focusing on the perspective of a phenomenon or a process. Therefore, a thematic analysis is considered appropriate to discover the views of teachers and students in Indonesia.

The process of thematic analysis in case studies begins by elaborating a short description of each case. In order to assure the credibility and reliability of this process, the interpretations were checked and modified where necessary (Flick 2009, p.319). The case description includes the statement of the case, the information from the respondents' in relation to the research questions and the summary of the central topic of the research. The data collected from the interview recording was transcribed before the analysis.

I am aware that one of the drawbacks of this method of analysis is that there were numerous passages and cases produced and this could create new or divergent cases. Therefore, following the suggestion of Flick (2009, p.318) I needed to make priorities



certain cases and stay focused on the main research questions. In addition, to avoid the risk of only selecting extracts, I used NVIVO software to assist in formatting, storage and 'coding materials as a part of the process of analysing the data by examining the data, comparing the data, and interpreting what the data tell us' (Lee Abbott and McKinney 2013, p.319).

NVIVO is a Qualitative Data Analysis (QDA) software which operates to associate codes or labels with chunks of text, sounds, pictures, or video; to search these codes for patterns; and to construct classifications of codes that reflect testable models of the conceptual structure of the underlying data (Lewis, 2004). There are other choices of QDA such as ATLAS.ti and NUD\*IST, however, these only work directly with a limited range of data file types. Both programs, for example, require the researcher to convert text files to ASCII or ANSI file formats before inputting them, which meant, of course, that the section and other formatting were stripped away from a text file before it was imported (Lewis, 2004). Meanwhile, NVivo's approach is to enable the researcher to work indirectly with tables, pictures, sounds, video, or HTML files. However, as with other QDA, NVIVO is only a tool for facilitating analysis and interpretation, which needs to be guided by a method (Lewis, 2004; Flick, 2009).

Therefore, prior to using NVIVO, I prepared a list of themes related to each research question (see table 3.3) in order to help to categorize students and teachers' expressions, and observation extracts. Once the themes were set, I inputted them into the NVIVO nodes and read through the interview transcripts of the participants, taking verbatim data extracts (see Appendix I) which were categorized into one of the themes (nodes), allowing emerging sub-themes (child nodes). In addition, I used coding procedures to identify and classify the sub-themes and sub-categories and the relationship of each of the themes.

With regard to the coding, the three procedures that I have undertaken are open coding, axial coding and selective coding (Strauss and Corbin, 2008). Although I applied a thematic analysis, where the themes are prepared prior to conducting the research, for the purpose of this study an open coding was used in order to assist in elaborating the pre-determined themes. Open coding was used in this research where 'the data are first disentangled ("segmented"), in addition, units of meaning classify expressions (single words, short sequences of words) in order to attach codes or "concepts" to them' (adapted

from Flick 2009, p.307). The next step of the coding, which is the axial coding, I refined and divided the sub-categories gathered from the open coding, defining their relationships to the pre-determined themes or the 'paradigm model' (Strauss and Corbin, 2008). In the selective coding, I identified the relationship between the codes and categories that leads to the understanding of the effect of cultures of learning in teaching and learning of English.

#### **3.4.4. Teacher Reflection**

Reflection is essential for bringing understanding to the complex nature of classrooms, and teachers should be trained to reflect on the subject matter and the thoughtful application of particular teaching strategies (Saziye, 2016). Asking research participants to keep records of certain aspects of their daily lives allows the researcher to capture their particular experiences in a way that is not possible using other methods (Dörnyei, 2007). Therefore, during the data collection, I asked teachers from the universities to give their reflection on their classes that I observed in order for me to understand how they reflect on their use of teaching methods and techniques, and how they feel about involving students after they ended their classes. However, this particular data is very demanding on the part of the informants. First of all it requires a detailed training session to ensure that participants fully understand the protocol; secondly, there must be a high level of participant commitment and dedication in order to produce regular, high quality data (Dörnyei, 2007). Consequently, only two teachers (from Institution 1 and 5) gave me their reflection sheet on the classroom that I observed, and this was only after I had finished the process of data analysis.

Nevertheless, I found their reflections important, although I did not use them within the main data of this research. Their reflection notes showed how the teachers view their classroom learning and I therefore used them as relevant evidence to describe the teachers' actual views of students' cultures of learning (see chapter 4, part IV, section 4.4.1) and their responses to students' cultures of learning (see chapter 4, part IV, section 4.4.2).

### **3.5. Chapter Summary**

This chapter has discussed the research paradigm and epistemology that become the basis for conducting this study. The interpretivist paradigm described how to address the complexity and meaning of the phenomenon of teaching and learning English in Indonesia. The credibility, transferability, and reliability of the study were explained further for the understanding of how the methodologies employed in the current study can be validated and its contribution in other similar contexts. The issue of triangulation and analysis tools were justified by the use of mixed-methods to conduct the current study, which consisted of a student questionnaire, classroom observations, and teacher and student interviews and how they were used to answer the research questions.

## **CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS**

The purpose of this study is to focus on the process where teachers gathered information about their learners by identifying their expectations, attitudes, beliefs, values, perceptions, preferences, experiences and behaviours with regards to teaching and learning in order to understand better the pedagogic choices teachers make when enacting the curriculum. This chapter will begin with the representation of the context of the study by describing the demographic analysis and the characteristics of the participants and present the findings of the study from the data gathered from the questionnaire, classroom observation and interview.

### **Structure of this Chapter**

This chapter begins with a discussion of the institutions and participants involved in the current study. Part I of this chapter will display the findings from the questionnaire data and answer the first research question: What are students' cultures of learning? The questionnaire being given to the students consisted of open-ended questions and Likert scale responses. Therefore, the findings in Part I presents the results of the students' multiple responses by focusing on the mean, standard deviation, and *p* value to draw a pattern of Indonesian students' cultures of learning.

Part II will present the findings from the interview data source from the teachers that was related to the students' questionnaire and classroom observation to answer the second research question: What are teachers' perceptions of students' cultures of learning? Part III will display the findings of the third research question: How do cultures of learning affect students' practices of learning? Part IV will answer the fourth question: How do teachers' perception of students' cultures of learning affect their pedagogy of curriculum enactment? Part II-IV analysis is derived from the interview and observation data sources. I identified the codes by using an open coding approach where the aim is to express the data in the form of concepts. The interview transcripts and observation notes were read carefully and segmented from single words, sentences and paragraphs to be attached to pre-determined codes, leaving spaces for emerging ones. An issue that I found in using this particular coding was the amount of passages that were extracted although, I was able to make a list of priority codes that could be elaborated further. The codes were

then grouped into categories that are relevant to the events, facts and experiences discovered in the data which is related to the research questions and the main themes. The following table summarizes the major themes and sub-themes along with the research questions.

Table 4. 1 Summary of Major Themes and Sub-Themes

Research Questions	Major Themes	Sub-Themes
1. What are students' cultures of learning?	Learning English	
	Good Teacher	
	Good Student	
	Teacher and Student Relationship	
	Asking Questions	
	Textbook	
2. What are teachers' perception of students' cultures of learning?	Teacher Affiliation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Teachers' Acceptance of Students' Learning Cultures</li> <li>Teachers' Involvement in Students' Learning</li> <li>Respect in Teacher Student Relationship</li> </ul>
	Barriers to Effective Teaching	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Misconception of a competent English Learner</li> <li>Students' Characters</li> </ul>
3. How do cultures of learning affect students' classroom learning?	Managing Classroom and Students Preferences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Teachers' Pedagogic Control</li> <li>Students' Preferences</li> </ul>
	Classroom Discussions	
	Power Point Presentations	
	Barriers to Effective Learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Teacher Issues</li> <li>Students Issues</li> </ul>
4. How do teachers' perception of students' cultures of learning affect their pedagogical practices?	Teachers' Actual Views of Students' Cultures of Learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Knowledge Acquisition</li> <li>Learning as a Social Activity</li> <li>Autodidact Learning</li> </ul>
	Teachers' Responses to Students' Cultures of Learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Factors Influencing Teachers' Practices</li> <li>The Use of Technology</li> <li>Teacher-directed Approach and Multiple Teaching Methods</li> <li>Student Centred Learning</li> <li>Students' Involvement: Challenges and Teachers' Current Effort</li> </ul>

## Demographic Analysis

As I have explained in chapter 3, section 3.2.2, during my viva, the internal and external examiners decided that I should involve more teachers in the study to add evidences towards the findings of this research by obtaining more observation and interview data related to teachers of English. There was a lack of explanation in the body of my thesis before the viva about how I gathered the data from the questionnaire, observation, and interview in the first data collection. I did not explain that the students' questionnaire and observation was a part of the basis of interviewing the teachers of observed classes. Therefore, I was advised to conduct a second data collection, working with additional three universities with additional 15 teachers. Therefore, the data from the second data collection only contribute as supporting evidence to the current findings from the first data collection because in the analysis similar themes were found. Thus, involving more teachers not only have enriched the evidence of my first data collection, it has helped improved this study into a whole new level. From the data of the second data collection, I have found two additional main themes which is the use of technology and student-centred learning in findings part III which explains the overall findings of this study in more detail.

There are five institutions in Indonesia where the data were gathered. The five universities were chosen since they have implemented the Indonesian National Qualifications Framework (*Kerangka Kualifikasi Nasional Indonesia*) and they are located in different regions within Indonesia. Appendix J and table 4.2, below, show the description of the five institutions.

Table 4. 2 Institution Profiles

University 1
Site and Affiliation: This is a state institution located in the western part of Indonesia in Special Region of Jogjakarta founded in 1964. There are four main campuses which are in various locations in Jogjakarta City. The University's affiliation is The Association of Southeast Asian Institutions of Higher Learning (ASAIHL), a non-governmental organization (NGO) founded in 1956 in Bangkok.
Faculty: Education Faculty, Natural Sciences Faculty, Language and Art Faculty, Social Sciences Faculty, Engineering Faculty, Faculty of Sports, Economic Faculty, and Postgraduate Faculty. The English Education study program is under the Language and Art Faculty.
Number of Teaching Staff of English Education Study Program: 50 (10% of teachers in the study program taken as sample)

Number of English Education Students academic year 2016/17: 550 (10% of students in the study program taken as sample)
Social Characteristics of Staff: mostly Javanese, Muslim, government officials
Social Characteristics of Students: mostly Javanese, Muslim, state education background
Status of English: Foreign Language
University 2
Site and Affiliation: This is a private institution located in the western part of Indonesia in Jakarta, the capital city of Indonesia founded in 1953. There are two main campuses located in central Jakarta and Cawang, East Jakarta. The University is affiliated with Association of Christian Universities and Colleges in Asia.
Faculty: Law Faculty, Social and Political Science Faculty, Economics Faculty, Education and Teacher Training Faculty, Engineering Faculty, Language and Arts Faculty, Medicine Faculty, and Postgraduate Faculty. The English Education study program is in the Education and Teacher Training Faculty.
Number of Teaching Staff of English Education Study Program: 5 (100%)
Number of English Education Students academic year 2018/19: 105
Social Characteristics of Staff: variety of ethnicities, Christian, non-government officials
Social Characteristics of Students: variety of ethnicities, Christian, state and private education background
Status of English: Foreign Language
University 3
Site and Affiliation: Founded in 1960 and located in Jakarta, Indonesia, this private institution has two main campuses in South Jakarta and North Jakarta. The university is affiliated with eight foreign institutions and around 18 foreign universities, including University of Illinois, USA and University of New South Wales, Australia.
Faculty: Economics and Business Faculty, Administration Studies Faculty, Education and Teaching Faculty, Engineering Faculty, Law Faculty, Medicine Faculty, Psychology Faculty, Biotechnology Faculty, and Postgraduate Faculty. English Education study program is in the Education and Teaching Faculty.
Number of Teaching Staff of English Education Study Program: 15 (20%)
Number of English Education Students academic year 2018/19: 173
Social Characteristics of Staff: variety of ethnicities, Catholic, non-government officials
Social Characteristics of Students: variety of ethnicities, Catholic, state and private education background
Status of English: Foreign Language
University 4
Site and Affiliation: This is a state university founded in 1964, located in Jakarta, Indonesia. The university's affiliations consisted of state and public universities in Indonesia, and two foreign universities; Monash University and Swiss German University.
Faculty: Science Education Faculty, Language and Arts Faculty, Mathematics and Natural Sciences Faculty, Social Sciences Faculty, Engineering Faculty, Sports Science Faculty, Economics Faculty, Psychology Faculty. The English Education study program is under the Language and Arts Faculty.
Number of Teaching Staff of English Education Study Program: 21 (33%)
Number of English Education Students academic year 2018/19: 289
Social Characteristics of Staff: variety of ethnicities, Muslim, government officials.

Social Characteristics of Students: variety of ethnicities, Muslim, state education background.
Status of English: Foreign Language
University 5
Site and Affiliation: This is a private institution located in the Eastern part of Indonesia in Kupang city, East Nusa Tenggara Province founded in 1982. There are three main campuses located in the same city. The University has no affiliation.
Faculty: there are eight faculties in this university consisting of Teaching and Education Faculty, Engineering Faculty, Social and Political Sciences Faculty, Law Faculty, Natural Sciences Faculty, Philosophy Faculty, Postgraduate Program. The English Education Study program is under the Teaching and Education Faculty.
Number of Teaching Staff of English Education Study Program: 13 (23%)
Number of English Education Students Academic Year 2016/17: 220 (32%)
Social Characteristics of Staff: mostly Timorese and Floresnese, Catholic, non-government officials.
Social Characteristics Students: mostly Floresnese, Catholic, private education background
Status of English: Foreign Language

*(taken from multiple sources)*

There are overall 21 teaching staff at the universities who were involved in this study. Three from institution 1, five from institution 2, three from institution 3, seven from institution 4, and three from institution 5. With regard to the students, there are three classes (55 students) in Institution 1 and three classes (72 students) in Institution 5.

I contacted the authorities of each institution and who were welcoming and open to discuss matters related to my fieldwork. The main discussion was regarding the people I needed to involve in my study. Prior to collecting the data, I met with the head and or secretary of the English Education study program of each institution and we discussed the characteristics of teachers that were expected to be involved in this study. I listed the candidate participant teachers which represent the whole population based on the characteristics mentioned earlier.

The chosen teachers were those that were teaching in the second or third year of the English Education department who had different criteria in terms of gender, age, highest academic qualification and years of teaching experience. However, the participants involved in this study cannot represent a whole population. In university 1, the teacher participants are all female (100%), aged between 33-38 (67%), hold master's degree (100%) and have been teaching for 11-16 years (67%). The participants in university 2 are mostly male (60%), aged between 33-38 (67%), have a master's degree



(100%), and have been teaching for 11-16 years (60%). University 3 participants are mostly female (67%), aged over 49 (67%), have a master's degree (67%), and have been teaching for over 17 years (67%). The participants of university 4 are dominated by females (57%), aged between 33-38 (72%), have a master's degree (72%), and has 11-16 years of teaching experiences. The participants in university 5 are dominated by males (100%), representing all range of ages and mostly has 5-10 years of working experience. The reason for being unable to involve teachers from a different range of gender, age, highest academic qualification and years of work experience was due to their availability at the time of data collecting. Prior to collecting the data, I met with the secretary of the English Education study program of each institution and we discussed the characteristics of teachers that were expected to be involved in this study. I listed the candidate participant teachers which represented the whole population based on the characteristics mentioned earlier. However, when I contacted them, they were not all able to make it for different personal reasons.

The student participants were chosen after the teacher and I negotiated which one of their classes would have the questionnaire distributed and would be observed. The students were selected based on the criteria mentioned in chapter 3, section 3.2.2 to be given the questionnaire, observed and interviewed. The students who participated in the interview were those who gave advanced consent by leaving their names and contact numbers on their questionnaire sheets. I then selected the students who represented different ranges of gender, age, cultural and educational background. However, due to the make-up of the students' gender and age in the classroom, there are more female students (87%) participated with the same age range of 18-23 years old (100%) in university one. This age range is normal for a university student because in Indonesia, state universities have age restrictions for student enrolment. Moreover, the students were mostly Javanese (92.7%) and graduated from a public high school (92.7%). University two is more varied although it is still dominated by female students (68.1%), aged between 18-23 (88.9%). Nonetheless there is still a small number of students aged over 30 (4.2%) because there are no age restrictions for enrolling in a private university in Indonesia. These students come from a different ethnicity which are mostly Floresnese (47.2%) and represent students from different educational background having mostly attended public schools (54.2%).

Overall there were 127 students who were involved in the questionnaire and classroom observations; 15 students from each university were selected as interviewees representing the overall students by gender, age, cultural and educational background. Appendix J summarizes the participants demographic analysis. Despite there being two universities in two regions in Indonesia used as the sample for the study, the research data showed that there are no substantial differences of views between the two populations. I uses a chi-square test to find the *p* value of the students' responses on learning because they were open questions (see appendix E) and I had to summarize the students' answers and list the items or variables that are mostly mentioned by them. I labelled the items into *yes no* responses in the SPSS package. Meanwhile for other questions in the questionnaire that uses Likert scale responses, I used a t-test to find the mean, standards deviation, and *p* value of the students' responses in order to ascertained significant differences between the universities, and the items on their cultures of learning. The responses from the students in the two universities showed significant similarity, which the overall *p* value is  $\geq .05$  or not statistically significant. Therefore, I will treat them as one population.

## **Part I: The Indonesian Cultures of Learning**

In this part, the result of the current study is presented as a part of answering research question 1) what are the students' cultures of learning? This question refers to students' beliefs and experiences on learning. A questionnaire was constructed in a way that contains factual questions, behavioural questions and attitudinal questions (Dörnyei 2007, p.102), which in this study was to find out about students' views on learning, teaching and their relationship with their teachers. The following tables showed how culture have influenced students' approaches to learning which is categorized into their expectations, beliefs and views on learning English, good teacher, good student and their relationship, asking questions and the use of textbook.

#### 4.1.1. Learning English

One of the most important aspects of cultures of learning is the view on learning itself. Traditionally, learning is a process of accumulating knowledge rather than using knowledge for immediate purpose (Shi, 2006). This shows that learners' views on learning may influence the way they learn in the classroom and their relationship with their teacher. Following is the frequencies of students' responses on learning.

Table 4. 3. Students Views in Learning

Items	$\chi^2$	df	$p$
Practising English skills	.525	1	.469
Using media	4.923	1	.027
Using textbook or book	2.593	1	.107
Learning in the classroom	4.248	1	.039
Knowledge transferring	17.684	1	.000

Table 4.3 indicates the frequencies of 127 students' responses on their views on learning. The result of the Chi-Square test indicate statistically insignificant difference between the perceptions of the two groups of students on learning. The result suggests the existence of a common perception among the students from the two institutions. The most common view is that learning is a practical activity ( $\chi^2 = .525$ ;  $df = 1$ ;  $p = .469$ ) where students are able to practice their English skills such as speaking, listening, reading and writing. With regard to the students' view on learning as a knowledge transferring, there was a significant difference between the responses of the two groups ( $\chi^2 = 17.684$ ;  $df = 1$ ;  $p = .000$ ). The views that learning is practicing the English skills, and that it is about the use of media explains that learning is merely learning what to do rather than learning to learn.

Students views on learning influence the way they learn English, in which most of the students in their questionnaires reflect that the best way for them to improve their English competency is by using the language practically. Students' approaches to learning English become an essential part in the quest for a culture of learning since these preferences may guide teachers to understand the cultural influences on attitudes to knowledge (Ballard, 1996) and bring the most appropriate practices that meet the students' needs.

Interestingly, students' views on English learning are to some extent related to

how they prefer to learn English in the classroom. The following table shows how students prefer to learn English in the classroom.

Table 4. 4. Learning Preferences

Items	$\chi^2$	df	$p$
Using media	4.609	1	.032
Teacher explanation	.048	1	.826
English skill practices	.219	1	.640
Good relationship with the teacher	10.029	1	.002
Class group discussion	9.619	1	.002

Another indication of how students' ways of learning English might be influenced by their exposure to certain language teaching approaches was their preference for an interactive classroom tasks where they prefer to use media ( $\chi^2 = 4.609$ ;  $df = 1$ ;  $p = .032$ ) and practicing the language skills ( $\chi^2 = .219$ ;  $df = 1$ ;  $p = .640$ ). However, the students showed a statistically significant difference in their perception of the necessity of having a good relationship with the teacher ( $p = .002$ ), and having a classroom discussion ( $p = .002$ ). This might indicate the importance of teacher's pedagogical roles and students' preferred participation in the classroom.

Students were also asked what challenges they face in learning English in order to discover their views on the elements that hinder their learning. The table below shows the students' responses.

Table 4. 5. Challenges in Learning English

Items	$\chi^2$	df	$p$
Writing and Reading in English	.997	1	.318
English Pronunciation and Vocabulary	16.809	1	.000
Speaking in English	8.049	1	.005
Grammar	21.564	1	.000
The Environment and Lack of Facilities	.014	1	.906

Table 4.5 shows that the two groups of students agree that the challenges that they face in learning English are the environment and lack of facilities ( $\chi^2 = .014$ ;  $df = 1$ ;  $p = .906$ ), and writing and reading in English ( $\chi^2 = .997$ ;  $df = 1$ ;  $p = .318$ ). However, there is statistically significant difference in pronunciation and vocabulary, speaking, and

grammar. One of the groups might felt grammar, speaking, and pronunciation and vocabulary to be the most challenging aspect in learning English, while the other do not. This result shows how the two groups of students are very much concerned with their environment and their writing and reading competency.

Students in any culture may have different approaches to learning that may be influenced by their current study behaviour, intellectual task, and the level of their study demand (Ballard, 1996). Therefore, the tables show a variety of preferences of approaches that students have when learning the English skills and subskills as can be seen in the following table.

Table 4.6. Summary of Approaches to Learning English Skills

Items	Mean		Std. Deviation		<i>p</i>
	U1	U5	U1	U5	
Listening to songs	3.78	3.78	.451	.502	1.000
Speaking with other people	3.68	3.56	.577	.572	.229
Reading literary works	3.53	3.74	.627	.483	.040
Writing diary or short stories	3.63	3.59	.615	.630	.773
Practice grammar from textbook exercises	3.72	3.72	.537	.492	1.000
Practice pronunciation with teacher	3.76	3.39	.428	.596	.000
Practicing vocabulary using word list	3.68	3.43	.526	.742	.034

The above table shows the result of the mean of the t-test that the students from U1 and U5 has a statistically significant similarities ( $p = 1.000$ ) in their approaches to learning English. They preferred to learn in a more relaxed situation, for instance, students learn best by listening to songs (U1 mean = 3.78; U5 mean = 3.78) and practicing their speaking with other people (U1 mean = 3.68; U5 mean = 3.56)). Although there are still some who are more comfortable with old practices, as shown by students stating they are more comfortable learning grammar by doing textbook exercises (U1 mean = 3.72; U5 mean = 3.72). The result of the standard deviation also indicate that there is a slight difference of consistency between the two groups in the approaches. In terms of practice with the teacher, U1 has a higher mean (3.76) compared to U5 (3.39) having U1 students being slightly consistent in the responses (SD = .428).

Although the comparison of the mean, standard deviation, and *p-value* are to some extent showing statistical similarities between all the responses from the two groups of students, this shows that grammar is still rule-governed, while other approaches to learning speaking, reading, listening, writing, and practicing pronunciation, and

vocabulary are more contextual. These practices of using authentic and contextual materials are normally related to the communicative language teaching methods, and the use of textbook and imitation or repetition are mostly the characteristics of the audiolingual method of teaching and learning English.

#### 4.1.2. Good Teacher

As explained in Chapter 2, section 2.1.3., cultures of learning include students' views on how a good teacher should be. To know and appreciate students' perceptions of teachers is to understand part of a given culture of learning (G. Makhanova and Cortazzi, 2013). The following table indicated how students describe a good teacher.

Table 4.7. Good Teacher

Items	Mean		Std. Deviation		<i>p</i>
	U1	U5	U1	U5	
Masters subject area	3.68	3.56	.577	.572	.229
Caring and helpful	3.79	3.93	.409	.264	.037
Humorous	3.25	3.46	.707	.605	.078
Explains clearly	3.22	3.09	.826	.708	.356
Serious	3.18	3.04	.793	.643	.279
Creative	3.89	3.91	.316	.293	.738

Table 4.7 shows the result of the t-test indicating that there is no statistically significant difference between the two groups of students. The majority of students describe a good teacher as one who is creative (U1 mean = 3.89; U5 mean = 3.91) and explains clearly in the class (U1 mean = 3.22; U5 mean = 3.09) with both items having U5 being more consistent in the responses as displaying smaller standard deviation values. This shows that only a few students nowadays view teachers as a source of knowledge who need to be serious in the process of teaching and learning. Students are more appreciative of teachers who can assist them as an individual or human being in the classroom and create a comfortable atmosphere by simply giving clear explanation and bringing forth various enjoyable activities.

#### 4.1.3. Good Student

Understanding cultures of learning is also a part of understanding students. It

is necessary to know how students view the characteristics of a good student because there is often a mismatch between teachers' and students' views in this regard. Table 4.8 shows how students view the characteristics of a good student.

Table 4. 8. Good Student

Items	Mean		Std. Deviation		<i>p</i>
	U1	U5	U1	U5	
Active in class	3.81	3.37	.399	.681	.000
Respects and obey teacher	3.76	3.67	.456	.583	.297
Sociable	3.74	3.76	.444	.512	.787
Studies independently	3.22	3.09	.826	.708	.356
High motivation	3.79	3.81	.529	.392	.787
Good character	3.69	3.61	.642	.492	.429

Table 4.8 reveals the result that most students from U1 and U2 view a good student as having high motivation (U1 mean = 3.79; U5 mean = 3.81) and is, to some extent, sociable (U1 mean = 3.74; U5 mean = 3.76). However, the two groups of students have a significant difference in the way they view a good student as being active ( $p = .000$ ). U1 seems to perceive an active participation as an indication of a good student (mean = 3.81) having their responses are mostly spread not out (SD = .339) compared to U5 (SD = .681). This difference might be influenced by the social and academic characteristics, and perhaps the status of the university, where U1 students are from rural and has higher ranking university compared to U5 students. As mentioned in chapter 2 that the socio-cultural background may also affect the way students perceive learning. This will be discussed in detail in chapter 5.

#### 4.1.4. Teacher and Student Relationship

As explained in chapter 2, section 2.1.3.3., the teacher student relationship plays an important role in culture because Asians commonly consider that there should be a type of relationship that bonds a teacher and student in the classroom. The following table shows the views of students about their relationship with their teacher.

Table 4.9. Teacher Student Relationship

Items	Mean		Std. Deviation		<i>p</i>
	U1	U5	U1	U5	
Educator - Learner	3.65	3.33	.609	.727	.010
Parent - Child	3.54	3.22	.627	.839	.021
Friend - Friend	3.10	3.52	.937	.666	.006

Table 4.9 indicates that students from U1 and U5 of the current study have a slight similarity in the way they view their relationship with their teacher. There is not much evidence to show which type of relationship that they prefer more compared to the others. The educator-learner type of relationship can be seen is more preferable for students from U1 (mean = 3.65). There is an indication of a high-power distance relationship where the teacher takes the role of educator who outlines the paths for their students to follow, whether inside or outside the classroom. However, a considerable average number of students from U1 (mean 3.54) think that their relationship with a teacher should take the role of parent-child (60.7%). While U5 students were more into the friend-friend relationship type of relationship (mean = 3.52). These responses from the two group of students can be understood by the fact that most Asian students expect a harmonious and respectful relationship with their teacher, a common belief that has been inherited from generation to generation (Shi, 2006).

#### 4.1.5. Asking Questions

To understand Indonesian students, it is important to understand why they tend to avoid asking questions in the classroom. Researchers (see chapter 2, section 2.1.3.4) have found that this is due to their passivity in the classroom and the importance of saving face when interacting with other people. The table below shows the students' reasons for not asking questions.

Table 4. 10. Not Asking Questions

Items	Mean		Std. Deviation		<i>p</i>
	U1	U5	U1	U5	
To avoid being mocked	2.10	2.37	1.050	1.051	.152
To avoid interrupting teacher	2.47	2.56	.934	.965	.628
Not good in English	2.57	2.74	.976	.994	.337



The two groups of students who were given the questionnaire stated that the reason they do not ask questions is because they are scared to interrupt the teacher ( $p = .628$ ) with U5 having higher average of responses (mean = 2.56) and that their English is not good enough ( $p = .337$ ) with U5 having higher response (mean = 2.74). ) Moreover, a considerable number of students stated that they do not ask questions in class because they do not want to be mocked by their friends ( $p = .152$ ) where mostly are considered by U5 students (mean = 2.37). ). It is clear that these students actually do not want to lose ‘face’ in front of their teacher and peers. Another cultural difference can be seen when Asians consider ‘face’ as something important to protect when interacting with other people to avoid being ashamed or afraid of asking foolish questions (Cortazzi and Jin, 1996a).

In addition, I gathered information about what the students’ views were about asking questions in order to avoid misconception that Asian students ask questions only as part of a formal interaction between student and teacher. Their responses are detailed in table 4.10 below.

Table 4. 11. Asking Questions

Items	Mean		Std. Deviation		<i>p</i>
	U1	U5	U1	U5	
Clarify misunderstanding	3.76	3.76	.459	.547	.959
To get helpful answer	3.68	3.56	.577	.572	.229
To be active in class	3.36	2.93	.737	.866	.003
To impress the teacher	2.53	2.22	.993	.861	.073

Although the U1 and U5 students’ responses in this study indicate a respect for social position, when asking questions they seem to understand that it helps them to learn, therefore they practice it to clarify misunderstanding ( $p = .959$ ) and to get helpful answer ( $p = .229$ ). Although U1 students agree more on the fact that asking questions is a part of an active participation in the classroom (mean = 3.36). Looking back earlier in Table 4.10, U5 students were mostly afraid of being mocked when they consider asking questions in the classroom therefore, as a consequence they seem to feel that there is no need to ask questions just to be active in the classroom. They only ask question when it is necessary. .

#### 4.1.6. Textbook

The use of the textbook is considered cultural, Asian teaching and learning is very closely related to the use of textbooks since learning is equated with reading books (Hu, 2002). The following table displays the students' views on the role of the textbook.

Table 4.12. The Use of Textbook

Items	Mean		Std. Deviation		<i>p</i>
	U1	U5	U1	U5	
Not Helpful	3.81	3.52	.521	.504	.002
Helpful	1.54	1.72	.749	.656	.161

As presented in previous responses regarding the approaches to learning English, textbook is still considered a helpful tool in their English learning. Although there is a significant difference in which U1 feel that textbook is not much of a help (mean = 3.81) compared to U5 students (mean = 3.52). I will discuss this in detail in chapter 5.

#### Summary of Part I

The data from the questionnaire have shown that the Indonesian students' cultures of learning is derived from a variety of views, beliefs and preferences. The cultures of learning that I presented in this chapter consists of students' views on learning, good teacher, good student, teacher student relationship, asking questions and textbook. Tables 4.3-4.6 displays the students' views on learning, tables 4.7 and 4.8 show students' views of a good teacher and a good student and demonstrate how they put a high emphasis on creativity and motivation. Tables 4.9-4.11 on teacher student relationship, asking questions and textbook, shows that Indonesian students do not label their relationship with the teacher, still consider losing face, and believe that the use of textbooks in the classroom is important.

## **Part II: Teachers' Perception of Students Cultures of Learning**

The purpose of the second part of this chapter is to answer the second research question: what are teachers' perceptions of students' cultures of learning? Finding out teachers' perception underlines the active role that teachers play in classrooms and knowing their perceptions of teaching can contribute to the understanding of the interplay between teacher intentions and teacher behaviour (Brekelmans *et al.*, 2011a). The findings were derived from interviews with teachers and mainly focus on teachers' perceptions of students' beliefs about teacher-student quality and their relationship, as well as their perceptions of students' culture in learning English which is derived from the students' questionnaire results. As I have mentioned in the methodology chapter, the students' questionnaire and observation was a part of the basis of interviewing the teachers of observed classes. Therefore, by relating the result of the questionnaire, classroom observation, and interview, an examination of the data collected revealed that teachers perceive students' culture of learning as something that cannot be separated from teachers' responsibility and that these cultures may also be a barrier to effective teaching. The themes that were uncovered are teacher affiliation and barriers of effective teaching.

### **4.2.1. Teacher Affiliation**

Teacher affiliation is understood to be the compliance, steering, understanding and affection teachers carry in their classrooms (Brekelmans *et al.*, 2011a). I interviewed the teachers on their perspective of students' cultures that relates to learning, quality of a good teacher and a good student, asking questions, textbooks, and teacher-student relationship. The teachers explained their agreement to some extent towards students learning preferences and their understanding over students' characteristics. Despite the accord, the teachers admitted that they are very much involved in steering students' ways of learning.

#### 4.2.1.1. Teacher's Acceptance of Students' Learning Cultures

The issue of teachers' perception is controversial when it does not meet with students' expectations about teaching and learning in the classroom. The data from the interviews revealed that teachers mostly understand and agree with the students' learning characteristics that influence the way students learn in the classroom. I asked the teachers about their perspectives on the pattern of their students' cultures of learning from the questionnaire data and six teachers agreed with the students' view that learning English is about practicing the language skills. Following is one teacher's response:

I think I agree with the students because language to me is something that you need to practice again and again. If you like provide time for the students to explore more their ability whether they use their knowledge, or they practice their skills I think the result great later on. I think it is true if students ask to get more chance to speak in the classroom because out of the classroom, they do not speak English. So, I think they think that it's better or it's good if like in the formal meeting, formal class the teacher provide time for them to talk to their-- . Because that's the chance for them to speak English.

(Teacher E\_U5, Interview, November 15, 2017 )

I asked teacher E about his opinion on the students' view that learning is about practicing the language and he noted that he agreed to the extent that it may facilitate the success of students' outputs. He is aware that there is a necessity to give more opportunities for students to use the language in the classroom, especially in speaking, since they rarely use the language outside of lessons.

In addition, two teachers focused on the fact that students are more comfortable to learn English by using media.

I agree, must love media more than, you know, talking about theories all the time... I think because the students nowadays they are, I don't know, they are the 21<sup>st</sup> century generation of course those type of students are those who like doing, who like action more than, you know, thinking to me

(Teacher C\_U1, Interview, October 11, 2017)

The teachers seemed to accept that the use of media is preferable to listening to a teacher explaining various concepts in the classroom, although a significant number of students preferred to listen to the teacher's explanation (see Part I section 4.1.1). This phenomenon may be influenced by the different characteristics of students, some of whom were more content to learn through active participation, whilst some preferred not to.

As well as being in agreement with students' views on learning, four teachers also agreed with students' beliefs about what is a good teacher. Most students viewed a good teacher as someone who can explain clearly and creatively. According to one teacher, being able to explain clearly is an indicator that teachers have competence in what they are teaching. Moreover, this teacher reflected that being creative and active sets an example for the students. Students are taught to become teachers in the future, therefore setting good examples may help in shaping the students' English teaching skills. Following is a teacher's response:

They hope that teacher should be creative and active. Because they think they will be helped, they will be assisted while someone as a teacher creative, active in the classroom. If the teacher is quiet, mostly quiet, student will be quite too. So, the teacher should be creative, active in the classroom. So, I agree with their opinion

(Teacher D\_U2, Interview, November 17, 2017)

An interesting finding is that two teachers seem to understand that these ways of learning are a part of their cultural traits. As one teacher said,

explaining a lot, well I think it's quite cultural. I mean, you know, Asian students, Indonesian students would love to have teachers coming to the class first explain. Explanation is a must.. But well I think that's not a problem too, because you know that's part of the cultural trait that the students have already learn from their school experiences

(Teacher C\_U1, Interview, October 11, 2017)

Teachers' perspectives about students' beliefs on the characteristics of a good student were similar to the teachers' own views on these characteristics. Students understood that a good student is the one who has high motivation (see Part I section 4.1.3). Teachers C and F responded by saying that,

I think it's also true that students with high motivation will usually succeed in their learning.

(Teacher C\_U1, Interview, October 11, 2017)

if they don't have high motivation, maybe they will study just, yeah, just to come to the classroom and sitting there, and then having absent list and then they go back home

(Teacher F\_U5, Interview, November 06, 2017)

The teachers indicated the output quality that students will gain if they are highly motivated and approved of this view since it may also be one of the qualities that a student needs to have in order to be active in the classroom.

A teacher said added that, although she is aware of the importance of highly motivated students, and how she often try to figure out the issue students face and try to help them. She said,

I always hope to have highly motivated students in my class but in many cases I saw that, many cases, I saw that eh, it's not because they not motivated but they have other problems that made they're less motivated, and, what I tried, what I usually try to do is, trying to understand what's the problem is, and then try to bring things, to something they like, just that.

(Teacher U\_U4\_Interview, November 25, 2019)

In terms of asking questions in the classroom, three teachers were quite aware of the challenges that students face when they do not ask questions. As a teacher stated below,

many students I can see that are actually good, they even like try to see something more deeply but perhaps they have that feeling of little bit afraid of being judging by the teacher or something like that, that they do not ask question. perhaps they are afraid also there are friend who will judge the question something like that.

(Teacher E\_U5, Interview, November 15, 2017)

This teacher knew that one the barriers students face in asking question in the classroom is their confidence in English, also that they are afraid of being mocked by their friends. One teacher said that it is a cultural issue, and others said that it is their misconception of what a competent learner should be. In the next section, I will present data detailing how teachers considered this to be a barrier to effective teaching and how they are attempting to overcome these challenges.

As to the use of textbooks in the classroom, the teachers agreed that they are very helpful in teaching and learning. Following is an example:

I decided to use the module because I think it's better to use module so that in the classroom, they can pay attention on the material that we are teaching exactly what it is written on module, they concentrate on this.

(Teacher F\_U5, Interview, November 06, 2017)

Seven teachers admitted that they use textbooks in their daily practices and consider it important and may support students' learning.

Although teachers agreed and understood the students' learning approaches, the data appears to show that the teachers still have to steer the students' learning. The next sub section will present finding of teacher's involvement in students' cultures of learning.

#### **4.2.1.2. Teacher's Involvement in Students Learning**

The interviews that I conducted with the teachers indicated a strong viewpoint that despite having agreed with students learning approaches, characteristics, and their relationship, teachers take the role of steering the students to a certain extent to motivate students and stimulate their active participation in the class.

Despite the teachers' awareness of students' characteristics, 16 teachers reflected that a teacher is the one who holds the most important role in deciding the best pedagogical practices in their classroom. In terms of students preferring to use media in the classroom, a teacher said,

So in our curriculum we differentiate between theory class and practice class... But the point is basically knowing or maybe understanding first what the course requires the students to be or to have or to be good at.

(Teacher C\_U1, Interview, October 11, 2017)

The quotation above is an example of five teachers' opinions that despite students' beliefs on learning, the teacher still has to decide on how to facilitate the students' learning based on the nature of the course and the type of class. As English education language learners, students do not only take skill-based courses but also content-based ones. Therefore, the

students may have various views, but in the end, it is the teachers who decide based on what they consider to be more appropriate.

With regard to teachers' views of students' beliefs of a good teacher and a good student, two of them believed that a good teacher should also teach students how to learn, and that a good student should be independent. For example a teacher said,

it's more like making them find the information themselves and you just have to mention what the references, where you can find them, how you can give information, and you give some guiding question so the student don't have to always listen to you, telling all the things

(Teacher C\_U1, Interview, October 11, 2017)

Although the students have their own perception of a good teacher and a good student (see Part I, Section 4.1.2 and 4.1.3), the teacher still thought that they should be more involved in steering the students towards understanding the constructivist and metacognition of learning.

In addition, their relationship should also put the teacher in the authority position despite the different categories of relationship that the students are experiencing. As teacher F said that,

I think when we are teaching, we should have an authority

(Teacher F\_U5, Interview, November 06, 2017)

Furthermore, when asking questions in the classroom, 17 teachers stressed their involvement by stating that they more regularly encourage the students by asking questions. One of the methods teachers use is pointing at the students in order to encourage them to ask questions in the classroom. As stated by teacher B,

yeah one of the ways I used to force the students to speak at least because if I ask them to voluntarily to ask question, sometimes only similar student do that.. That is why at some other time I point the students to participate and I hope by that at least they say something and also to motivate them to speak at least in the classroom

(Teacher B\_U1, Interview, October 10, 2017)

Three teachers mentioned the word *force* to describe how strong their involvement were in shaping the students' habits of asking questions.



#### 4.2.1.3. Respect in Teacher Student Relationship

An additional important aspect in students' cultures of learning is their relationship with their teachers. The typical relationship is often rooted in the type of roles that teacher and students have, which is affected by principles of what is wrong or right, rational and irrational, proper or improper in these cultures (Hofstede, 1986). When I asked for the teachers' perceptions of their students' views on their relationships, they literally underline the words *distance*, *respect*, and *situation*. As presented in part I section 4.1.4 of this chapter, there are a significant number of students who viewed their relationship with their teacher as educator-learner, parent-child, and friend-friend. teachers explained that they did not question the types of relationship that they have with the students, what matters for them is that it is important for students to understand in order to have a more valuable relationship with them. For example, on the following quotation a teacher said,

my relationship with my students can be like friends but there must be a space between us, I mean, so that they put respect to the teacher not like when they are talking to close friends. I see that close relationship is good yes, building rapport is important yes, but there is something that we have to... it's like a distance, we need to keep between our self with our students so that when we educate them, when we advise them not only in terms of academic but also since our university is promoting character education, that they need to put respects to elderly, they need to build rapport with the youngsters, they need to really know to whom they are speaking to. If to elderly, there must be a certain distance. So that kind of relationship.

(Teacher B\_U1, Interview, October 10, 2017)

The teacher accepted that she has a type of relationship with her students, but that, there should be a distance between them that the students need to understand. The teacher believed that one of the effective ways to educate the learner is to keep the relationship on an academic platform. However, one teacher mentioned that although there should be respect between the teacher and the student, it is important that the student understands the meaning of respect. As he stated,

but on the other side I want them also to be like more critically to see what respect means. Respect means, doesn't mean that you cannot criticized your teachers. Respect doesn't mean that you always follow all the things that the teacher wants. You can also like tell something that you like or something that you want something. They have to really like understand the word respect. It is not, I think it is not like a traditional school where students have to like to keep silent all the time in the classroom, you cannot question the teachers. I think that's not a form of respecting I think. So, respecting to me should be like you understand the rule that you and the teachers have already made in the beginning of the semester. And then you take part all the process and then you also give suggestion for the teacher for the improvement of your learning process later. So, I agree on that point of respecting teachers, but I think they have to like to have a clear opinion on what respecting means. Don't try to start on respecting means that following all what teachers wants. Respecting doesn't mean that you have to keep silent all the time

(Teacher E\_U5, Interview, November 15, 2017)

The teacher implied that even though the students should respect their teacher, it should not hinder them to put forward their voices in their classroom learning. The teacher seemed to avoid the old practices or misunderstanding that students have on the word respect. Here the teacher is encouraging students to have respect for the role or position that the teachers have, but at the same time the students should not use that as a reason to not be active in the classroom.

Teacher F emphasized on the situation in which the students need to understand when interacting with the teacher. He said,

If every time we treat them as a friend, yeah, it's good also. But sometime maybe not very successful when we are teaching, so we should teach them depend on the situation. Yeah. When the situation needs that now I have to be a teacher with my authority. Now I am teaching as their friend, I treated as a friend. Now I am parent and they are my children. It depends on the situation when we are teaching, when we are outside classroom. We can create this situation to build relationship like this

(Teacher F\_U5, Interview, November 06, 2017)

Teacher F seemed to approve of any type of relationship with their students because the most important thing is how to position the roles based on the situation.

In terms of teacher and student relationship, 13 teachers made their point that in general, what they hope by building a good relationship with the students is to support them and giving them the most comfortable and fair learning situation. For example a teacher said,

I just want them to be comfortable in my class. And I don't want them to pretend in my class. Because if they can open up or let say express them genuinely, I mean the truth about themselves, so it's easier for me to do personal approach with them. For example if they have weaknesses or they find their strength or their problem they will open to me anytime. But of course if they have big mistake or, yeah, wrong doing for example, I'll just comment in front of them. And then they--. But we have a kind of agreement like this. What the problem that you have in my class, we will solve it in the class. That's it. So, and they know me so much because I'm not pretending anything. And I don't like pretending, just let them know that I don't like this kind of person, I want to be like this and I want the best for you, and then what I expect for you if you want to learn please come. If you feel it's boring, please let me know. And when they are complaining I just let them know, okay. My goal is this. Do you want to achieve this goal or not? And then when they say okay I want to be like this, so be ready with the consequences. And the consequences are this, this, I'll let them know in the very beginning. And then they know that when I say something they must do it in order to achieve the goals. That's it.

(Teacher H\_U2\_Interview\_November 19, 2019)

I interpreted that these perceptions are basically emphasizing the importance of respect in order to sustain a better and more effective learning delivery for their students. Therefore, it could be understood that these teachers understand the culture of their students, but they still have to use their role as an educator to shape the students' ways of viewing their own learning.

#### **4.2.2. Barriers to Effective Teaching**

Effective teaching takes place when the teacher is qualified enough and able to understand what their second or foreign English language learners need to improve their language competency (Nwanyanwu, 2017). 20 teachers that I interviewed have at least five years work experience as a teacher, therefore, they are to a great extent aware of the most effective practices in their own classrooms. One of the main themes that emerged when I asked about their perceptions of students' cultures of learning is how they think

that they can become barriers to effective teaching in the classroom. The teachers described that these ways of learning are actually a part of the students' misunderstanding of what a competent learner should be and related to the students' characteristics. I will show the evidence of this from the data in the following sub-sections.

#### **4.2.2.1. Misconception of a Competent Learner**

During the interview, I explained to the teachers that most of their students consider learning grammar and finding a learning partner or peer where they are able to use the language, as challenges in their efforts to learn English. The old practices that teachers used to teach English in Indonesian classrooms were through audiolingual methods. Skinner's Behaviourism theory assumed that a human being could be trained using a system of reinforcement (Catania, 1980). Correct behaviour receives positive feedback, while errors receive negative feedback. This has been a part of students' English learning experiences where they are taught to produce grammatically correct sentences in order to be called a competent learner. Two teachers explained that the students might have a misconception of what a competent English learner should be. The following teacher said,

Yeah but grammar for most of the students mentioned that grammar make them less confidence and then somehow like hinder them to do things creatively. I mean to make different attempt for certain task that is not usual or common. So it's like trying to be creative with the use of language, but they focus more on the grammar rather the creative use of the language. Well I know it's a challenge. I'm working on it too.. That grammar is not the only thing, you need to be confidence with the use of the language. Try to use the language creatively. Try to use not usual expressions that usually used by other people

(Teacher B\_U1, Interview, October 10, 2017)

The teacher believed that the students were focusing more on grammar and neglecting other important aspects of learning English. This then became a barrier for them to learn English because it also affected the students' confidence to participate actively in the classroom.

Another teacher thought that the students assumed one of the challenges in learning is finding someone that they can learn and practice their English with. Teacher E said,

I want to talk about the environment they said that it's because there is no--, the environment doesn't support. Their friends, there is no person who can they ask to talk to. But I always encourage them, I think don't try to only find environment. I think they have to be the environment. Be the person who speaks English. You become the environment. Always encourage that, because if you wait other people to start I think it's perhaps will be very challenging. But if you start first then I think there will be little bit difference or change

(Teacher E\_U5, Interview, November 15, 2017)

The teacher is emphasizing students' misconceptions about how they can be a competent learner. The students seemed to depend on the teacher or other people to encourage them to use the language. This might be as a result of how Indonesian language learners have been extensively implementing teacher-centred instruction where the teacher retains full control of the classroom, which results in students feeling that it is not necessary to direct their own learning. This will be discussed in detail in the next chapter. Looking at this, the teacher believed that the students themselves should take the initiatives and be responsible for their own learning.

#### **4.2.2.2. Students Characteristics**

Another barrier to effective teaching is related to the students' characters that they bring when learning English. Besides personality and biography, students' characteristics are related to their experiences that affect their learning, their intellectual capability, ability, strength and weaknesses (Brown, 2007). Therefore, the teacher perceived students' ways of learning as part of their characters that affect the effectiveness of classroom teaching and learning. One of the main issues is students' lack of knowledge and preparation. A teacher said,

they don't have quite a good concept of the present subject they are learning. That's thing, they need some time to listen. For example, if now I'm teaching research methodology, a lot of technical term is quite new for them even some for me. That's why we are struggling

(Teacher D\_U2, Interview, November 17, 2017)

The teacher seemed to emphasize that when students just listen to the teachers' explanation in the class, it is due to their lack of knowledge. According to the teacher, the students just do not have sufficient knowledge, therefore they prefer to listen to their lecturers in the classroom. Seven teachers stated that it might just be the personal character of the student, as one said,

I don't want to, you know to point anyone. I just throw the question to them, and then who is the first to raise their hand to ask question then they welcome to raise the question, to give the question. So I try to do-. For example, this is about classroom management, yeah, in on standing on the stage. I try to be, you know, to be balance. I mean I go around, go around and face them all that. What I expect them everyone can get my attention, receive my attention yeah. I do that. But the problem, yes, they probably have their own reason like being silent, something like that.

(Teacher B\_U1, Interview, October 10, 2017)

Despite the efforts made by the teacher to encourage students to actively ask questions and at the same time feel comfortable, they seem to avoid participating because of their personal character, for example being introvert or just being shy. In addition, a teacher brought up the students' capability and confidence, stating,

I know one and main problem is lacking of vocabulary. They [have] very limited vocabulary. How can they speak, how can they ask questions if they don't have enough vocabulary. Many time I --, can you please ask question now. Please ask question about this, about this. But most student are quiet at that time. Because they are not confidence enough how to ask question

(Teacher F\_U2, Interview, November 06, 2017)

Teacher F described the struggle he has when asking the students to participate actively in class because they prefer to be more silent, which he believes has to do with their English skill capability. Another teacher also suggested that the barriers are due to students' lack interest and insufficient reading.

## **Summary of Part II**

The data from the interview with the Indonesian teachers on their perspectives of students' cultures of learning revealed two main themes: teacher affiliation and barriers to effective teaching. The data that I have presented in section 4.2.1 of this chapter, shows that the teachers understood the students' approaches to learning and considered them to be common for Asian students. However, the teachers also put forward an argument that they take control over their own pedagogical practices where necessary. In Section 4.2.2, I presented data demonstrating how teachers also considered the students' views as barriers to effective teaching because they interpreted the students' silence in the classroom as a part of the students' personality traits and lack of knowledge and/or preparation.

### **Part III: The Effect of Cultures of Learning on Students' Classroom Learning**

Part III of this chapter will answer the third research question: How does cultures of learning affect students' classroom practices of learning? Classroom learning is the simplest example of a learning situation where students acquire knowledge and skills which are guided by their teachers. There are different elements, including internal and external factors that take part in the process of a learner's language learning development in the classroom (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). The external factors that influence students' classroom endeavours in the current context is referred to as their cultures of learning. As seen from the interview data that I gathered from the students, I found that their views and approaches to learning are influenced by their cultural beliefs that have an effect on their interaction with the teacher in the classroom, their reaction towards the teaching methods and the effectiveness of their classroom learning. I also used the observation notes to confirm the findings. The main themes that emerge are managing classroom and students' preferences, classroom discussions, PowerPoint presentations and barriers to effective learning.

#### **4.3.1 Managing Classroom and Students Preferences**

The students in this study mentioned that teachers hold an important role in deciding what and how to teach. The teachers similarly mentioned their involvement in students' learning, although they approved of the students' beliefs as presented in Part II of this chapter. When I asked the students about their involvement in the classroom, they seemed to be comfortable with the role that the teacher takes in managing the classroom. While the teacher has control over deciding the best practices in the classroom, the students did not hesitate to give their thoughts about their expectations and preferences with regard to the teaching methods, asking questions and their relationship with the teacher.

##### **4.3.1.1. Teacher's Pedagogic Control**

Teacher's pedagogic control over the classroom is clearly seen from the interview that I conducted with the students where most of them used words and phrases such as



*follow, teacher decides, and created by teacher* to describe their involvement in creating the culture of the classroom. A student said,

So, we only follow instructions like ‘tomorrow you’re presenting’ we present, or ‘tomorrow you’re observing’ we observe. Yeah, it’s like we’re only following the teachers.

(Student 1\_U1, Interview, October 9, 2017)

The student stated that the teacher is in control of what happens in the classroom in every activity, such as presentations and observations. Many other students do not feel involved at all in creating any classroom activities. What happens in the classroom is a result of what the teacher does on a regular basis. As a student said,

What kind of culture? I think it is from teacher B herself. All this time she is the one who has control over the class and we just follow. She reviews, do quizzes and take test. Before that she presents the material. So, the person creating the culture is teacher B.

(Student 12\_U1, Interview, October 10, 2017)

In addition, they felt only needed to follow the classroom activities created by the teacher, and also that they were not given the opportunity to participate by giving their opinions. For example a student said,

culture? I’m not sure. So far, the lecturers are teaching us based on their own method without our involvement. They don’t ask our opinions whether they need to change the method or not, they stick on the method they’ve used.

(Student 18\_U5, Interview, November 2, 2017)

Some even say that this is perhaps because of the teachers’ character, saying,

I think every teacher has their own ways to teach so for example, we would be afraid to give our opinion, afraid if the teacher won’t accept it. There are some teachers who are very closed-minded. So, what we do is just following all the instructions from the teachers.

(Student 5\_U1, Interview, October 10, 2017)

Despite the teachers’ pedagogic control over the classroom, the students did not hesitate to express the learning preferences that they were comfortable with. I will present the data in the next section.

#### 4.3.1.2. Students' Preferences

When I interviewed the students and asked them about their classroom learning practices, most of them came up with different ideas of how they would most likely have wanted it to be. They expressed their thoughts about what would make them more comfortable in asking questions, the use of teaching methods and techniques in the classroom, and how they could be involved in the process of deciding the classroom activities. These preferences are related to their cultures of learning as most of them wanted to protect their “face”, had a type of educator-learner relationship with their teacher, and preferred not to be involved in giving their voices.

The students gave various reasons for not asking questions in the classroom and most of them indicated several issues that may make them feel more comfortable to ask questions. One issue is where to ask questions; for example a student said,

the students, especially me, I often ask ‘I have this project, what do you think I should do?’ so I feel more comfortable out of class.

(Student 17\_U5, Interview, November 2, 2017)

This student indicated that she often asked the teacher about things she didn’t understand from the course outside of the lesson rather than during the lesson.

Another issue is the learning atmosphere, in which the students feel more comfortable asking questions when they find the classroom experience enjoyable. As this following student said,

I mean like if I enjoy the learning process I will ask about, question about the material. But if I don't enjoy or like the teacher talking about the theories, I mean like, maybe I want to ask but it's kind of scary to ask the teacher.

(Student 13\_U1, Interview, October 11, 2017)

Some other students felt that they preferred to ask questions of their peers. For various reasons they thought that they were not competent enough to ask the teacher and therefore preferred to ask their friends who they thought understood the material better. As I have mentioned earlier, these students seemed to want to protect their “faces” since they were not confident with their English skills or were afraid of being mocked by their friends. For example, a student said,

I prefer to ask my friend who understands the material better I never ask directly to the teacher because first, I'm not confident. My speaking is not too good.

(Student 5\_U1, Interview, October 10, 2017)

Furthermore, whether the students who wanted to ask questions in the classroom were able to or not depended on who the teacher was. If they felt that a certain teacher might make them feel comfortable and interested in the classroom, they would be more likely to ask questions. A student said,

In teacher C class I always ask because, I don't know, I just love her the way she teach us. And also in my previous class this morning the teacher didn't give me any--, he gave me chance but I don't know what he is talking about. I mean I just giving presentation, presentation and presentation. And the presentation itself it just about theory. I mean like the implementation is not provided in there, so I don't want to talk because two hours with him and four hours with teacher C is--, Teacher C is more interesting than the teacher two hours.

(Student 9\_U1, Interview, October 11, 2017)

The students felt that the teacher takes an important role in involving them in classroom learning, especially in asking questions. Teachers who were able to make them understand the material and give them a greater chance to engage in the classroom were preferable.

Another issue that the students revealed in their interviews is their preference for the types of relationship with their teacher. The students mentioned the types of relationship that they wanted with their teacher - educator-learner; parent student; friend-friend relationship - (see Part I, Section 4.1.4), however, it is possible that this could have emerged from the questionnaire that I gave them. Therefore my focus was more on the concrete examples of their preferred relationship when I asked them about how they wanted to be treated by their teacher. Basically students wanted to have an educator-learner type of relationship as the data says in Part I section 4.1.4, however, a significant number of students preferred to be appreciated by their teacher for giving their opinion. A student said,

A: I would prefer if a lecturer is more communicative and interactive and appreciate every opinion from the students whether it is wrong or right. Well, appreciate or at least correct in way that doesn't offend

Q: is there any experience where the teacher is less appreciative?

A: Yes.

(Student 3\_U1, Interview, October 9, 2017)

It is interesting that the students seemed to have previous experience of not being appreciated by their teacher, which was brought to their current classroom learning, and therefore affected their preferences. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the teachers in Indonesia have a great control over the students' learning, therefore these students preferred, to some extent, being valued. A student even said,

Me? I want my teachers to respect when I ask questions not humiliate me in front of the class.

(Student 2\_U1, Interview, October 9, 2017)

In addition, students expected to be treated equally among their peers. For example one said,

I want to be treated equally. I hope the lecturers don't pay attention to some students only.

(Student 29\_U5, Interview, November 1, 2017)

A student also suggested that how the teacher treats them can help them to feel confident in their learning interaction with the teacher. As she said,

I want to be treated as if we're all learners. There is no gap. I mean the gap shouldn't be too high. If the gap is too high, I can't understand them, and they can't understand us. We feel like we're very different from them. So, we may not be confident to talk to them and they feel too prestige to talk to us.

(Student 7\_U1, Interview, October 10, 2017)

These interactions with the teacher seemed to be important to the students because during the interview one of the main themes that emerged was regarding the teaching and learning methods in the classroom, which gave classroom discussion and PowerPoint

presentations as a concern. I will reveal the data in the next two main sections and how they were affected by the students' cultures of learning.

#### **4.3.2. Classroom Discussions**

It is obvious from the students learning cultures that I have mentioned in part I section 1 that students are more comfortable having discussions in the classroom. This can also be seen when asked about their experiences with the teaching learning methods and techniques used by the teacher in the classroom. Most of the students mentioned the importance that group discussion played in improving their English language skills.

The students indicated that discussion assisted them in improving their language competency because it encouraged them to speak their ideas freely and share them with their peers. For example a student explained,

I prefer the discussion group because by discussion at least we all can share our opinion all together at once then also by the discussion we can be more open minded because every people will going to have different opinions, every people will going to have different perceptions, moreover the fact that we talking about translation where every people may have different interpretation regarding the text, different ways of how you translate something from English into Bahasa for example or vice versa

(Student 10\_U1, Interview, October 10, 2017)

The student felt that sharing his knowledge with his peers was important and he sensed how it may help him to participate actively. The students said that they feel more comfortable sharing their ideas in small groups and that it is also a good opportunity for them to ask questions of their friends. Due to their learning culture these students, as I have indicated before, often preferred to ask questions of their peers instead of their teacher, giving various reasons but specially to save their "face", as a student said,

when I don't know something I'll ask my group members and they do it too, overall, we have mutual cooperation. It's beneficial for each of us; I would be able to get new information, new vocabulary etc.

(Student 18\_U5, Interview, November 2, 2017)

The students also felt that having a group discussion, may help them to communicate with their peers in English. As I have mentioned in Part I section 4.1.1 of this chapter, these Indonesian students feel that learning is being competent in the language skills. This might have affected the way they learn in the classroom in terms of seeing what classroom methods fit them best. For example a student stated,

Well language is use to be able to communicate with other people. So that's the essence of language. And in group discussion we use the language to communicate with other. So I think it's a really useful to have group discussion in the classroom.

(Student 11\_U1, Interview, October 11, 2017)

Based on my observation (see the following extract), most of the teachers used discussion as a part of the lesson's activity. The classroom discussion is combined with the teacher's lecture where the teacher open the class with a brief explanation about the topics to be discussed in the classroom meeting and then played videos. In classes where there were 15-20 students, the teachers divided them into pairs and instructed them to discuss certain tasks, while in larger classes with more than 20 students, the teacher divided them in larger groups for discussions. After the discussions, the students were approached by their teachers in their small groups and they discussed the task together.

The following is an example from my observation on how discussion is used in the classroom where the teachers implement it after playing a short video and ask students to discuss in pairs a worksheet handed by the teacher. Following is the extract.

23.00 Teacher playing a video as an exercise. The students are all watching the video.

29.20 {After the video ended} Teacher handing out worksheet and asked the students to work in pairs.

31.22 Teacher playing the video for the second time. Students are paying attention to the video while looking at the worksheet.

33.39 The students start discussing in pairs. The teacher walks around the class and observe what the students are doing while talking or discussing the task with them. The discussion between the pairs are intense. The Teacher speaks with each pair. The students ask questions when they do not understand.

41.00 The students were making jokes and laugh along the way. Some {students} do the discussion in Javanese Language

46.30 The students discussing it with other pairs.

50.44 The teacher reminded the students about the time left that they have {for discussion}

(Class B\_U1, Observation Note, October 5, 2017)

In my observation I identified this particular activity by seeing the general attitudes to learning which relate to students' interest, motivation and participation in the classroom task. In this instance the students were seen to be very relaxed because they were given the chance to discuss a task with their friends. The students used the opportunity to discuss with their peers and even to use their native language. They seemed to be interested and participated actively because they used the time to speak with their partner and other friends about the task and the teacher even had to remind them of the time limit. The students were asking questions and having discussions when the teacher approached them in their small groups. The students were able to interact with their teachers, their partners and join in group discussions without any hesitation or breaks in the conversation.

Although these students viewed classroom discussion as a learning method that can improve the effectiveness of their learning, they have different perspectives on PowerPoint presentations. Most viewed it as a barrier to effective learning, which I will present the data in the following main section.

#### **4.3.3. Power Point Presentations**

PowerPoint presentations is a popular teaching method used in most English language classrooms. The PowerPoint presentations in this data are those the teachers used as a method for learning in the classroom where students are the ones presenting in front of the class. Alongside classroom discussions, PowerPoint presentations are one of the teaching methods that students mentioned during the interviews. It is suggested that this particular activity improves students' communication skills, particularly speaking and listening, since students listening to presentations must be given some kind of listening task too - including, perhaps, giving feedback (Harmer, 2007). The PowerPoint presentation, however, is seen by the students as a method that hinders their learning.

The students admitted that when having presentations in the class, they find it hard to comprehend the material because, perhaps, the inability of their peers to explain. For example a student said,

I think the presentation is not effective since some students find it difficult to understand. The delivery of the material by other students is also not good enough

(Student 3\_U1, Interview, October 09, 2017 )

Besides comprehension, the students did not feel comfortable presenting in front of the class. They mentioned several reasons, such as their peers' competency when presenting and their passive participation, however, they placed the main emphasis on the fact that they have to speak in front of the classroom with their incompetency in English skills. A student said,

I don't like presentation. When doing presentation, I have to speak in front of the class, think about the appropriate words and comprehend the materials

(Student 4\_U1, Interview, October 09, 2017)

In my view, this might be the cause of why, in one of the classes that I observed, several students had not prepared themselves to present in class. There should have been 10 presentations with 10 minutes for each presenter however, eight students could not present due to their lack of preparation.

The teachers basically grouped students into small groups and gave them certain topics to be discussed in every meeting. In two classes that I observed, the teachers used PowerPoint presentations for every meeting during the whole semester. Based on my observation, the teachers gave students the opportunity to present their papers in English for around 20-30 minutes, after which there would be a question and answer session where the presenters should answer questions from their peers related to the paper they presented.

In my observation, I identified the students' general attitudes towards their peers' PowerPoint presentations as lack of interest. Following is an example from a classroom that I observed.



03.55 The student presenters sit in front of the class and starts presenting.

17.00 The audience students are opening their books, looking at their book. Not looking at the presenters. Some are chatting to each other during presentation. Some are paying attention {20% of the class}. Some are looking out the window.

17.22 The students are chatting especially sitting at the back seats. Teacher sits in front, in line with the students. Noises come from those who sits far from the opposite side of the teacher. The ones {sitting} near the teacher is very quiet and calm.

27.20 Student: Ssstttttt. {Asking the class to be quite since chatting is becoming louder}

36.00 Some students are taking pictures using their phones with their friends {the noise is getting a bit lower}

48.35 the end of presentation.

(Class A\_U1, Observation Note, October 2, 2017)

The students' different attitudes that I observed have shown that there were certain causes for their preferences not to focus on the presentation. They did not understand what their peers were saying as one have mentioned in the interview data or the issue is because of their lack of participation in the class activity. As presented the data in Part I section 4.1.1, students preferred to involve themselves more in the classroom rather than just listening to someone else. The students' interaction with the teacher was also limited during classroom presentations because the teacher was also sitting with the students and listening to the presentations. This situation cause students to not be able to concentrate on the material and therefore impacted on the output.

#### **4.3.4. Barriers of Effective Learning**

Students' cultures of learning affected the effectiveness of their learning because of their beliefs about the teacher and themselves. The sub themes that emerges from students' experiences in the classroom are the various barriers that relate to teachers' and students' characters in the classroom, which affected the students' learning.

#### 4.3.4.1. Teacher Issues

In Parts I and II of this chapter, I have shown how teachers are involved to a great extent in students' learning. The students were very much dependent on their teacher although they have certain preferences. I discovered from the data that, due to the students' views on learning, good teacher, and teacher student relationship, they felt that any characteristics and practices that the teachers brought into the classroom were a barrier for them in learning.

In their relationship with the teachers and their beliefs of a good teacher, the students believed that the characters of some teachers made it difficult for them to learn in the classroom. For example a student said,

the lecturer needs to be responsible to all students by asking what we expect for our learning approaches. As an example when we're studying with teacher F, he always expects us to follow his module. We need to memorize everything that he has taught in the class. That's the reason, I said the lecturers are individualist; they give materials that are hard to understand. We want to learn by our way not based on the lecturers' expectation.

(Student 26\_U5, Interview, November 1, 2017)

The students felt that senior lecturers are often difficult to deal with because it requires extra effort to interact with them and to gain satisfying marks. As I have presented in part I section 4.1.3 that the students expected, besides being creative and explains clearly, a teacher is someone who is caring and helpful. Therefore, this affected their learning when the teacher acted differently from their expectations.

This is also similar to how they viewed teachers use of teaching methods and techniques in the classroom. A student stated,

Some are very boring. For example, like class Xb, the teacher comes and give us material to present. When we present, she just sits and listens. She can only criticize what we do in class but there's no effort from her to communicate with us in the classroom. There's no group discussion. Only student presentations.

(Student 6\_U1, Interview, October 10, 2017)

Besides that, the power and control the teacher had in the classroom made it difficult for students to have opinions in the classroom. A student specified,

I think every teacher has their own ways to teach so for example, we would be afraid to give our opinion, afraid if the teacher won't accept it. There are some teachers who are very closed-minded. So, what we do is just following all the instructions from the teachers.

(Student 5\_U1, Interview, October 10, 2017)

Teacher issues related closely to students' issues since the issues that emerged are on the teachers' and students' attitudes and their interaction in the classroom. I will present the data of students' issues in detail in the next section.

#### **4.3.4.2. Students Issues**

The issues that arose from the students themselves also affected their classroom learning to the extent that they became hesitant to participate actively in the classroom and felt less confident in their English skills. The students mentioned various characteristics that they brought into the classroom which hindered their learning such as their fear of losing face and their beliefs about a "competent English learner".

The students mentioned various words such as *shy*, *confidence*, *afraid*, *embarrassed*, *assume*, *silly* to describe their classroom experiences when dealing with participation. When I talked to the students, they reflected a strong tendency to save their "face" in front of their teacher and peers. For example, a student said,

sometimes I want to ask but yeah I just like worried about when I, my word is wrong and then, yeah. And my friends laugh at me.

(Student 15\_U1, Interview, October 11, 2017)

Many other students mentioned their fear of making mistakes or asking silly questions which will create judgements or assumptions from their teacher and peers. This then caused them to be quiet in the classroom and preferring not to say anything and just listen to their teachers' explanation.

Another barrier for the students is their English skill ability. They felt that their English was not good enough especially their speaking, pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary.

As I have presented the data in Part II of this chapter, the teacher saw this as a misconception. Unfortunately, the students are still bringing this understanding into the and this affected the way they learn. For example a student explained,

I never ask directly to the teacher because first, I'm not confident. My speaking is too good. I prefer to ask my friend who understands the material better.

(Student 5\_U1, Interview, October 10, 2017)

These barriers to students' learning, because of their teacher, can be seen from my classroom observation. Students were hesitant to ask questions and remained quiet in the class. For example in the following observation note, the students did not ask any questions at all when the teacher gave them the opportunity.

1:27.42 Teacher giving general overview from the discussion with the students. Students are listening and paying attention to the teacher.

1: 35.00 Teacher gives the chance for the students to ask question {teacher waits for students' questions} The students are silent, looking away from the teacher and nobody asked any question.

1.40.05 Teacher closes the class.

(Class E\_U5, Observation Note, November 3, 2017)

This instance shows an example of how students are reluctant to respond to the teacher at the end of the class. In other classes, especially in the active or intake stage where students are supposed to use the language in practice, they preferred to stay quiet and not respond when the teacher asked their opinion of the topics under discussion. For example in one class, the teacher used the lecturing method to teach grammar. The teacher continued by asking students to answer a grammar task orally. This can be seen in the following instance.

40.00 Teacher pointing at students to answer the task.

40.05 Teacher making jokes

41.10 Teacher: I don't want the same student answering the question {teacher pointing at students that have never answered}

41.30 Students answered. Some answers are incorrect.

42.00 Students repeat several times what the teacher says, uttering the correct answer.

(Class F\_U5, Observation Note, October 31, 2017)

When the teacher pointed at the students, they seemed anxious. The teacher might have realised this, therefore he made a little joke before saying his concern in minute 41.10. This is an example of when students felt that their teacher had hindered them in their learning. As stated in the interviews, they feel that the teacher's control over the classroom made them less confident to participate in classroom instructions. The teacher appeared to "force" the students to participate.

### **Summary of Part III**

The data from the interview with the students and the classroom observation notes indicated the effect of students' ways of learning towards their classroom activities. I have presented quotations from students' interviews showing that students placed emphasis on the strong control from the teacher in their classroom learning. In section 4.3.1, I have shown how students were likely to follow what the teacher created and decided for the classroom, with some indication of them not becoming involved in the process. Despite this, the students had a range of preferences, especially on how to ask questions, to interact and to build relationship with their teacher. In section 4.3.2 and 4.3.3, I described discussion as a learning method that students considered helpful and were comfortable with. On the other hand, classroom presentation was seen as not being helpful to their learning because it demanded that they use their English skills, which they considered to be still lacking. In section 4.3.4, I highlighted teachers' issues such as their control and power, and students' issues, which were lack of confidence and saving face as a barrier to their own learning.

## **Part IV: The Effect of Teachers' Perception on Their Pedagogical Practices**

Part IV of this chapter presented the findings of research question 4: how do teachers' perception of students' cultures of learning affect their pedagogical practices? This part of the chapter highlighted the effect of teachers' views on students' learning cultures on their actions, judgments, and teaching strategies in the classroom. Teachers may bring different elements of teaching, such as their professional development formation, their own experience as a student and the training they have attended, when designing and implementing their practices (Da Silva, 2015). As presented in part II of this chapter, the teachers in this study, to some extent, understood the students' ways of learning, although they did not use it as a basis for their pedagogical practices. Therefore, in this part of the findings, I explored how the teachers applied their classroom instruction which might also be affected by their understanding of students' learning cultures. Based on the interview data from the teachers, the classroom observation, and teachers' reflection sheets, I found that the teachers have actual views on students' cultures of learning, and on how they responded to these cultures of learning in their classroom practices; most importantly on how to involve students in their pedagogical practices.

### **4.4.1. Teachers Actual Views on Students' Cultures of Learning**

As I gathered the data from the teachers' interviews, I found that they had actual views on students' ways of learning in the classroom. As discussed in chapter 2 section 2.1, there are various theories of learning to explain the acquisition of a learner's first and second language. However the most important factor to consider in teachers' pedagogy is the implication of the learning theories for the language classroom (Brown, 2007).

From two teachers' reflections (see Appendix L) handed to me after I observed their classes (each from a different university), it could be seen that they emphasized the importance of students being able to understand the topic and work both individually and collaboratively with their peers. On Reflection 1, the teacher focused on the individual and collaborative work where she used worksheets for students to read aloud in the class and asked them to do this voluntarily. She focused on students' clarity, volume, and intonation. On Reflection 2, the teachers seemed to focus on students' understanding of

the content of the lesson and the collaborative work. The teacher reflected on how the classroom discussion did not work for some students and what he could have done differently. From the two different reflections, there is an implicit picture of how the teachers actually view the culture of their students within the classroom. The content-based, independent and collaborative work are the reflection of the culture that they believe to be effective and have been practicing in their classroom.

Therefore, the teachers' beliefs of learning were reflected in the way they teach and what they expect from their learners. From the data derived from the interview and observation, I found that the teachers viewed learning as the acquiring of knowledge, a social activity and a process of an autodidact learning. These will be explained in detail in the next sections.

#### **4.4.1.1. Knowledge Acquisition**

In part II of this chapter I revealed that the teachers understood students' views of learning. However, as a person who is responsible for and has the control over the classroom, teachers offered other perspectives on learning. Eight teachers acknowledged that learning is about acquiring the knowledge where the learner is an information-processor who absorbs information, undertakes cognitive operations on it, and stocks it in memory (Bruner, 1972).

For example a teacher said,

My opinion about learning, general speaking, learning is the kind of process of acquiring knowledge, it happens to everyone, formally and informally

(Teacher B\_U1, Interview, October 10, 2017)

Teacher B stated that learning is about the students being able to have an understanding over the subjects that they are exposed to.

As an example, in the classroom observation, the teachers seemed to make sure that the students acquired the knowledge of the subject matter before they could use the language or practice it in the classroom. For example, in this observation from a content-based classroom, the teacher used a lecturing method in order to make sure that the students at

least acquired information about many related theories which are involved in the course. See the extract below.

{Teacher starting the class by giving a review of the week's material on a power point slide}

02.15 a student asked a question and the teacher answered it directly.

02.53 Teacher explains the material using the power point slides.

Students take notes and listening.

14.43 Teacher giving chance for the students to ask questions.

(Class D\_U5, Observation Note, November 10, 2017)

An observation from class F, which is a skill-based course, showed how the teacher also had a session where he explained materials related to compound/complex sentences before giving students a chance to do exercises from the module. Similar to the observation of the content-based class, the students were also listening and taking notes. Other teachers that I observed also showed how they were aware of the importance of students acquiring knowledge from what they taught. Teachers were giving students lectures followed by small discussions, which showed how it was necessary for them to ensure the students understood by practicing it.

#### **4.4.1.2. Learning as a Social Activity**

The teachers understood that learning is a social activity which is the products of social interactions and that it is not simply the adjustment and storage of new knowledge by learners; it is the process by which learners were integrated into a knowledge community (Vygotsky, 1962). For example a teacher said,

The second is collaboration. Collaboration means that you cannot work alone, you work with others. You work with--, you need other things to help you. Like, yeah, you need people, you can learn from people, you can learn from book, you can learn from, yeah, you use technology something like that.

(Teacher D\_U5, Interview, November 17, 2017)



Six teachers in this study considered the importance of students learning together in the classroom to achieve the learning goals. Teacher D in the above quotation mentioned the word *collaboration* which indicated that learning for him is not only about being able to use the language contextually but also to use their peers to help them improve their language competency.

The teachers did not specifically comment on students' ways of learning from classroom discussion when I asked them about their perception on students learning culture. They seemed to have found other teaching methods more interesting for discussion perhaps because discussions are part of the collaborative work that they commonly implement in the classroom. Further, based on my observation, all 15 teachers who participated in this study used collaborative work in the classroom in the form of pair or group discussions, group presentations, role plays, and group tasks. One example of collaborative works that the teachers use in the classroom can be seen from the observation notes in part III section 4.3.2.

#### **4.4.1.3. Autodidact Learning**

Besides collaborative work, the teachers believed that an indicator of all successful learning is students being able to learn independently. The role of the teacher is to facilitate discovery by providing the necessary resources and by guiding learners as they attempt to assimilate new knowledge to old and to modify the old to accommodate the new (Perry, 1999). As a teacher said,

learning is a long-life process, right, lifelong learning, so not only ended here in the college but in fact this kind of learning, they still can continue on their own after their college years and mostly what benefit them most is things that they can construct on their own.

(Teacher B\_U1, Interview, October 10, 2017)

The teacher indicated that they can only facilitate and teach students how to learn because students will go through several stages of learning where they only have themselves to depend on. In addition, autodidact or self-directed learning relates to how a student is responsible for deciding what and how they want to learn in the classroom. A teacher explained this learning as below,

Learning is not only about the students doing thing that you ask them to do. You need also to allow them to make some decision about what they would like to learn and how they going to learn in the class. to give them what they actually need, maybe not necessarily what they actually want. to me learning is also or should have a bit of autonomy in there, in which learners, you know, have a say what they want to do and how they going to do it.

(Teacher C\_U1, Interview, October 11, 2017)

The way the 10 teachers view this type of learning might have shown how their perception of students' cultures of learning take its role. Although students mostly indicated that they preferred to learn collaboratively, in the classrooms that I observed, there was not much indication of teachers' giving the students space to work individually because this type of learning often happens outside the classroom. This depends on how teachers direct the students to use certain resources such as related books or internet sources. For example, in class D that I observed, the teacher implemented this type of learning by giving the students a task to do outside of lesson, which they had to present in the next lesson. The teacher asked the students to do a mini research proposal on a specific topic that they were interested in. Despite this, there were still collaborative learning because the students were asked to work in groups of three, but they still had to direct their own learning and plan their future project by deciding a topic and describing the methodological choices to support the project. The result though, showed that the students were not prepared for this type of learning since many groups were not able to present due to a lack of preparation. An example of how this did not work in the classroom can be seen in the following observation note:

50.01 Teacher calling the next presenter and reminding the class that there are 8 presentations for this meeting.

54.59 A student talked privately to the teacher {seem to be about the reason for not preparing the presentation}

56:33 Teacher asked the students to do the task now.

Teacher walks around and discuss with each group.

1.20:00 Teacher telling the class to present next week.

(Class D\_U5, Observation Note, November 10, 2017)

The teacher seemed to give the students a chance to work collaboratively but to be autodidactic in doing their task. However, this seemed not to work in the classroom

because the students were not prepared or might not have had the competency. The teachers used their control in deciding to use this method, however, it did not fit with the certain ways of learning, or expectations of learning, that the students had.

#### **4.4.2. Teachers' Responses to Students' Cultures of Learning**

On the teachers' reflections (see Appendix L), I understand that the teachers are actually responding to the students' cultures in the classroom. On Reflection 1, the teacher emphasized the students' collaborative work where she realized how the role-plays gave a positive impact to the students' participation and how it could overcome students' anxiety. She described how she was able to distribute evenly the most active students in different groups in order to make the groups *joyous and participatory*. Whilst in Reflection 2, the teacher described how he responded to students who were not active in the classroom. He mentioned how the students preferred to *hid themselves in the crowd* and the only way for him to involve them without forcing them was to prompt the students' participation.

From the teachers' reflections, it seemed that they responded to students' cultures of learning by deciding the types of teaching methods and techniques to be used in the classroom. These are reflected in the interview data from which I draw sub-themes on factors influencing teachers' practices, student-centred learning, the teacher-directed approach and multiple teaching methods, the use of technology, and students' involvement.

##### **4.4.2.1. Factors Influencing Teachers Practice**

During the interviews, I asked the teachers what influenced their decisions about what and how to teach. Most of them mentioned various factors including their own experiences or knowledge from their teacher training, the curriculum, and students' needs. The most common factor from ten responses was building their teaching plans from the curriculum that the government has prepared for higher education of English education training. The curriculum included the policy documents, syllabuses, teacher-

training programmes, teaching materials and resources, and teaching and learning acts. For example a teacher said about preparing the class based on the syllabus.

Of course when someone, a teacher to teach of course she should have a good preparation, the material they are going to teach, this is what to teach. If you want to teach something in the classroom of course you have to prepare the material according to the syllabus. It's really important to prepare lesson plan. Yeah usually for example for Complex English Grammar that is syllabus already, so we have to stick, to be stick to syllabus and we try to fulfil the material by the end of the semester. So we have to teach following the time, following the timetable exactly

(Teacher F\_U5, Interview, November 6, 2017)

Having good preparation is the key to deciding what and how to teach in the classroom. The teachers believed that following the syllabus may guide them also in deciding the materials and the lesson plan. In addition, the teachers were encouraged to follow the curriculum because they believe it has the framework of qualifications that the students need to achieve. A teacher explained,

The second is the competency that is required in the course. It's like at the end of the semester the students have to be able to do this one or that.

(Teacher B\_U1, Interview, October 10, 2017)

Besides the syllabus affecting the choice of materials and the course requirements, eight teachers also mentioned the importance it has on differentiating the content-based and skill-based classes. For example a teacher said,

So in our curriculum we differentiate between theory class and practice class. But the point is basically knowing or maybe understanding first what the course requires the students to be or to have or to be good at is the first key to know what the student actually need, but also at the same time want.

(Teacher C\_U1, Interview, October 11, 2017)

The teachers above indicated that the curriculum which consisted of the list of courses and their aims, and the syllabus, were the tools that they used in making decisions about their pedagogical practices since it has all the guidelines they need to assist them in designing their lesson plans.

The second most important factor that 11 teachers mentioned was the experiences that they bring with them when designing their teaching plans. These experiences are related to their teacher training and interaction with the students in the classroom. A teacher explained how they decided to plan their practice based on the teacher training that they had attended. Below is the quotation:

I'm a teacher myself and I was educated to be a teacher of course I've earn some, yeah, degree and education I learn some pedagogical principal, I know what teacher should do and shouldn't do. Theoretically I have the background to do the teaching as it should be done. an addition to that is of course my experience and my interaction with my own students. I mean my experience has taught me difference type of class, different type of students and how I reacted to different type of classes and students, and then that I think has enrich my teaching repertoire. So I knew--, I think you know that experience is the best teacher because, you know, you blend from your mistakes and from your successes and that makes who you are now. But then what is more important then you experience, all the experiences is itself is the interaction that resulted from your experience.

(Teacher C\_U1, Interview, October 11, 2017)

The teacher believed that years of teacher training had given her sufficient knowledge to decide what and how to teach in the classroom. In Indonesia, the teachers normally have four years of teacher training in order to be eligible for a certificate in teaching. They also have around three months of teaching practices at the end of their training. They are therefore confident to use their knowledge as a basis in their pedagogical practices. Furthermore, their experiences with the students, recognising their students' characteristics, has also given them sufficient knowledge to decide what would be most applicable in classroom learning from their successes and mistakes.

The third factor that affects the teachers' practices mentioned by seven teachers is students' needs. The teachers admitted that they focused on the students' characteristics and competence when designing a course. A teacher explained,

then also I see the students. Because I also help some student from out of English education study program, from economic and so perhaps the method, the teaching method will be different.

(Teacher E\_U5, Interview, November 15, 2017)

The teachers realized the importance of taking students' needs into consideration, especially the fact that students learn English for different purposes. The teachers also understood that taking account of students' characteristics, their background, and their interest, when designing a lesson is important to enhance their teaching quality.

#### **4.4.2.2. Student-Centred Learning**

An important theme that showed up in which I feel the necessity to discuss in a sub section of its own is the student-centred learning which the teachers considered important in teaching English. In chapter 2, section 2.3.3., I explained that in the Indonesian education guidebook (DIKTI, 2016), the student-centred learning is understood as a learning that focuses on teacher as facilitator, scaffolding the learning for the students. Referring to teachers' responses to students learning, where they emphasized on different types of learning that focuses on students as active participants in the classroom, it is obvious that they are trying to implement the student-centred learning. This is important to understand how teacher beliefs and the curriculum shaped the culture in the classroom. A teacher said,

Rather than I myself lecture them, yeah, they will be passive, right? They will be passive. But if I assign them to read first and then to prepare the PowerPoint, the presentation, they will be active before the day of the presentation. Yeah. They are active. They have to prepare the materials. They have to understand the materials, because they have to explain to their-- you know-- their friends, right? Again that is because of the learner-centred teaching, yeah. Learner-centred teaching. By doing this, well, if they do not listen to the friend's presentation, they will not be able to fill out the rubric, right?

(Teacher L\_U3\_Interview\_November 14, 2019)

Teacher L explained clearly that the reason for using student PowerPoint presentation in his teaching practice is to implement the student-centred learning, making them active in the classroom. Although students showed a negative attitude towards this learning method, a teacher said that,

So let them explore and elaborate and expand, develop the idea or the presentation and what the class would be

(Teacher S\_U4\_Interview, November 19, 2019)

Besides helping students to be active with the student-centred methods, the teachers felt that it will assist students' discovery in learning that the government is encouraging teachers to do in their classrooms.

A teacher explained how the process of this learning practically happens in her classrooms saying,

Being the ruler, I mean the one who managed the--, I'm just a facilitator. I idealized myself as a facilitator only. I just--, for example like this. I give a guidance for example a report must be consisting this and this and this. And then how you develop this report is up to you. Are you going to observe, are you going to read a lot, or are you going to interview someone. Get the information in your convenience. But it must be approvable and based on evidences. Like that. So I give only a guidance and then they do it themselves, and then they will report. And then afterward we will clarify whether it's, let say, based on a truth or evidences or it's just on surveys, or--. Like that. We will review it together.

(Teacher H\_U2\_Interview\_November 4, 2019)

The practice of this can be seen in one of the classes that I observed in the following observation note:

13:36 The presenters are giving direction about the game.  
    {Other students seem to be very excited to play the game}  
13:37 The class is playing the game.  
13:49 The presenters are continuing the game.  
    {every group are very much involved in trying to make a guess  
    based on the instruction by the presenters}  
13: 59 The presenters ask the winning groups to come and stand in front  
of the class.  
    The game continues between the winning teams.  
    {the students are screaming, laughing and jumping while playing  
    the game}  
14:08 The presenters ended the game when they found the winner  
    The presenters give the winning teams some prizes  
14:13 The presenters are asking the floor for feedback about the game  
    Several students gave some suggestions and feedbacks.  
14:14 The presenters ends the presentation.  
    The teacher commented on the presentation.

(Class G\_U2\_Observation Note, November 7, 2019)

Based on the above observation note, the teacher is seen to be giving the students opportunity to manage their own presentation. The teacher did not interfere during the whole session. The students were the ones who planned and arranged the content, the

prizes for their peers, and the feedback session at the end of the presentation. An amount of time was dedicated to student being the centre of the classroom activity.

Although, most of the teachers in the current study indicated the importance of giving the students more space to be responsible of their own learning, they imply that they are still directing the whole teaching and learning process of their students. This then becomes the reason for using multiple teaching methods in the classroom. I will show the evidence in the next sub section.

#### **4.4.2.3. Teacher-directed Approach and Multiple Teaching Methods**

As discussed in the previous section, the curriculum, teachers' experience and knowledge, and students' needs, are the factors that influenced teachers' practices. I asked the teachers about the methods that they use in the classroom to see how their views on students' cultures of learning have shaped this, and most teachers mentioned multiple teaching methods. In addition to that, I also observed five teachers' classes more than once in order to see how they teach in different classes. The result showed that most of them are using the same teaching methods in these classes. As they mentioned during the interview, they used many teaching methods such as adapting textbooks, lecturing, summarising, group discussions, students' presentations, and quizzes. They also implemented various teaching techniques such as code-switching, changing plans during lessons, writing information on the board, and encouraging students' active participation. Furthermore, the interview and observation data showed the teacher-directed approach that influenced the use of these multiple teaching methods in the classroom. Although demonstrated earlier in this part that the teachers have beliefs on different theories of learning, and that they do not base their practices on only one theory; they preferred to combine different methods for different learning purposes. A teacher explained,

I think it is the teachers then who should be able to varied their techniques of explaining so it doesn't end up, you know, spoon feeding the student with a lot of information. I gave two main references and when I said that the next meeting would be about opening and closing, so they done some assignment before, so they identify already the expression to open and to close. And when the class is taking place, I can just ask them to have a simulation but very brief explanation in the



beginning. If not it will take long time to explain all those expression. you have to do it in different ways for different purposes.

(Teacher C\_U1, Interview, October 11, 2017)

The teachers in this study realized that they needed to vary their methods and techniques in teaching their students in order to have an effective classroom. Teacher C seemed to understand that her students might not be comfortable if they only listened to the teacher's explanation. The teachers did not only consider how they were going to teach but also how it impacted on the students' active participation in the classroom.

Besides combining different methods, the teachers understood the need to change plans or use different methods and techniques in the classroom depending on the situation. A teacher said,

Well in every meeting I have already planned like the materials, the activities, the medias. But during the meeting, it doesn't always work as what has been planned before. Sometimes I need to switch ((laugh)). It's like yesterday's class, I have prepared several activities, two tasks, and then I see that the learning situation was not supportive enough in doing these two tasks, so I only choose one task with modification of instruction. Firstly, I asked them to do pair work but then seeing the situation, I changed it to individual task. However, they can consult their dictionary, both digital and hardcopy dictionary. So that's kind of the modification of the planning

(Teacher B\_U1, Interview, October 10, 2017)

The teacher indicated that she is flexible to making changes in the classroom and that it is important to change plans in order to keep the classroom teaching going. The teachers might have extra plans, or they might have different methods which come spontaneously to mind due to their teaching experiences or repertoire. In the classrooms that I observed, most teachers did not use one single method in their teaching as seen in the following example:

18:20 Teacher explaining about today's material. Students are looking at the teacher's power point slides and paying attention.

One student is taking notes and the others are looking and listening to the teacher.

23:00 Teacher playing a video as an exercise. The students are all watching the video.

29:20 Teacher handing out worksheets and direct students to work in pairs.

31:22 playing the video the second time.

(Class B\_U1, Observation Note, October 5, 2017)

This observation note is interesting because here, we can see how the teacher directed the different stages of learning and how she is using more than one method in her classroom. The two methods are lecturing and the use of media. She combined two different methods in order to achieve the objectives of the lesson and perhaps to keep the students attentive. Based on my observation, the students all seemed interested, were paying attention and working enthusiastically with their peers.

The quotations and the observation note above show that the teachers seem to believe that there is no single best method that works in their practices. The important characteristic that they had in common was to plan and design their pedagogical practices based on the context. They directed their own practices and decided that one single method may not be sufficient for students with different needs.

#### **4.4.2.4. The Use of Technology**

The development of digital technology as I described in chapter 2, section 2.1.2.5, may also have an effect on the way teacher and student practice their teaching and learning. 13 teachers that I interviewed and observed their classes, emphasized on the use of technology such as WhatsApp, Emails, and Microsoft Teams to support their practices. Students were also allowed to use smartphones to be involved in the classroom presentations. A teacher said,

Actually we have a Team. Team is a kind of Microsoft Office software where they can share information and then even shared on that. And then they have to upload the power point or their slide. And some student, because on the phone they will have the book, they have the e-book so I noticed that having the handphone or laptop and the presentation in the same time they kind of trying to find the evidences or clues about what has been explained by their friends.

(Teacher H\_U2, Interview, November 4, 2019)

The teacher explained that she is using an application with her students to share their classroom materials. She also explained that in her classes, she allowed the students to use their smartphones in order to help them in learning or understand the material being presented in the class.

These teachers also take advantage of technology to communicate with the students. For example a teacher said,

Especially if they do not have any-- if they do not understand anything. I ask them to-- you know-- if you prepare for example-- preparing the presentation for example, you have any question, don't hesitate to send me a message even through Whatsapp, I will read it if it's through Whatsapp, because it can stay there, right, for quite a long time.

(Teacher L\_U3, Interview, November 14, 2019)

Besides using WhatsApp for personal communication, these teachers also admit that they created WhatsApp groups with their students in order to give a platform for the students and them to discuss any related classroom matters. As a teacher explained,

They can even text me anytime if they want to if they find some problem. So you have to internalized the language or you have to speak otherwise you will--, okay, you will, you don't know how to speak. So it's the way. I like--, and they have their own group for discussion. Sometimes they ask me and we also have a WhatsApp group.

(Teacher G\_U2, Interview, November 8, 2019)

However, the negative consequence in using these types of technology is that students might be distracted and use them for other purposes that might not relate to their learning. An example can be seen in the observation note below:

11:20 The presenters start the presentation  
       {The teacher took a position at the front corner of the room}  
       {Some students are starting to play with their smartphone}  
 11:37 The presenters ended the presentation. Asking whether there is  
 any question.  
 11:41 T directly asked the floor about what the presentation about.  
 Asking some content of the presentation to the Ss.  
       The T asked one student. She did not response.  
       The teacher asked whether they pay attention to the presentation  
       or not?

(Class H\_U2, Observation Note, November 4, 2019)

I confirmed with the teacher on the interview and she admitted that she was aware when the students were using their smartphones to chat or play with social media. Therefore, she tried to get their attention by asking the students to respond several times to their peers' presentation.

Most of them admit that they will take strict actions, for example teacher H said, '*but in my class when I see that they are not focusing on the lesson any longer, I will ask them to put aside the telephone*'. Despite the challenges in using technology, the teachers are confident because they feel that they can still control the classroom.

#### **4.4.2.5. Students Involvement: Challenges and Teacher's Current Effort**

Researching students' cultures of learning relates closely to involving students' voices in the construction of language instruction. This is a challenging task for teachers since learners have various differences when it comes to learning and it is difficult to think of approaches to accommodate these learning views and preferences. Therefore, in this section I looked at how teachers' views on students' ways of learning might affect the way they involve students in their pedagogy. Students' involvement in the process can be a collaborative engagement between them and the teacher that allows room to explore their thinking about what might work for them and give teachers views in designing teaching materials that suits learners' need to a certain extent (Brooman, Darwent and Pimor, 2015).

Ideally, students' needs consist of what they have to know to function effectively, what they know and do not know already, and what they think they need (Nation and Macalister, 2010). However, the teachers found challenges in identifying these needs due

to their beliefs about students' inability to become involved in the decision-making process. Seven teachers were doubtful about involving their students. One teacher experienced how students are not confident in bringing forward their opinions in the classroom. He said,

Well, sometimes we ask them to know their need in the classroom. What they need more about material or whatever. but yeah, the problem is sometimes they find it they are not confident enough to express, to express what they need. We get impression like they don't need other things. They just follow, they just teach whatever we are teaching. They don't ask about what they need more in the classroom. They don't tell us about what they need more, yeah, they need more to be taught, yeah. So I think the problem is that they are not confident enough to express their opinion, or something like that

(Teacher F\_U5, Interview, November 6, 2017)

Another teacher claimed that the students might not want to be involved because they might not know what would be the best option, which is caused by their lack of knowledge or skill. She said,

It is very often the students, especially my students, they are student teachers, they don't know that becoming a teacher needs this and that

(Teacher C\_U1, Interview, October 11, 2017)

One teacher added that there are some aspects that he cannot involve the students. He said,

I mean they cannot let's say-- we cannot involve them in every part of the class preparation. But for the material, right, I involve them, in their materials. But for example the some, ya, the syllabus-- the syllabus, ya, and the rule of the class, of the learning, it-- of course it is the lecturer to decide it. I do not involve them in every-- let's say-- aspect of the class. For example they do not like my class, but this is actually must be done [00:14:41] they must like it, actually, right. But for the materials, for-- let's say starting the class I often ask them-- depending on the situation for example-- what or where do they like to start, for example.

(Teacher Q\_U4, Interview, November 20, 2019)

The teachers indicated that, although they wanted to involve the students in the classroom instructions, the students might not contribute at all. The teachers also felt that they have the authority to make decisions. Besides these issues that emerge from the students, the

teachers also felt the amount of their time needed to involve the students in their practices was an issue. A teacher explained,

That's actually something that I want to do more often in every semester, because listen to them about something that they really need actually can contribute a bit more on the successful on our teaching process. But again like there is no time that we provide as teachers, especially for the preparation to discuss with the--, to discuss the teaching materials with the students. But what I have just started to do is that I try to give the course outline in the first meeting, in the beginning of the semester

(Teacher E\_U5, Interview, November 15, 2017)

The teachers in this study who were aware of these challenges, admitted that they tended to consider students' needs, although they felt that they had tried to involve the students by giving them the course outlines. The challenge that they face was deciding when to actually discuss the classroom instructions with the students. It seems that teachers found it difficult to manage the time needed to both discuss the syllabus and teach the material to the students.

Although some teachers face challenges in involving students in the classroom, there were 13 teachers who had made the effort to involve students in their pedagogical practices. The interview data showed that the teachers' beliefs in the students being able to learn independently, might have encouraged them to involve the students. They admitted that they did not have a specific framework to identify students' needs, but, they have tried to understand them during their interaction with the students and then implemented a negotiated syllabus. A teacher explained,

usually I consider something according to their preference so that usually when I let them do exercises, I move to one person to another. then usually, mostly I go to the student who weaknesses, so I concentrate on the student weaknesses. I go to them. Like yesterday I went to some student I know they have weaknesses, so I help them one by one. But when we find the student who are clever, or they have good quality, yeah, sometimes we leave them anyway. But mostly we concentrate we help the student who we know that they have weakness. They need help in the classroom. And we know our student before. We know our student. Their ability, their capability, we know before

(Teacher F\_U5, Interview, November 6, 2017)

The teacher explained that the process of identifying students' needs occurred during the teaching and learning in the classroom. They used the knowledge and experience they have had gained with the students to accommodate their needs. Four teachers also mentioned the negotiated syllabus which they implemented at the beginning of every semester. A teacher described,

in my first meeting a I have a negotiating syllabus. Not only that, sometimes during my teaching I asked them if they want to do things, if they want to discuss certain text, they are free to say it to me or even bring the text to the class and discuss the text with their friends whether they agree to discuss the text or not. So that's one thing. The other thing is like, well they are human ((laugh)) I mean, I'd like to place them as a human who has feeling that we need to listen their wants, needs. So sometimes I asked them, well for next week's class they can do blab la bla.. they can choose, do you want to have discussion on text about blab la bla.. The text types I mean.

(Teacher B\_U1, Interview, October 10, 2017)

The teachers only mentioned negotiating students' "want", not what they actually discussed with them students negotiating the syllabus. However, one teacher explained that they might not be able to change the teaching materials because they are in the curriculum, but they are able to negotiate the classroom delivery with their students. For example a teacher said,

That's actually something that I want to do more often in every semester, because listen to them about something that they really need actually can contribute a bit more on the successful on our teaching process. But again like there is no time that we provide as teachers, especially for the preparation to discuss with the--, to discuss the teaching materials with the students. But what I have just started to do is that I try to give the course outline in the first meeting, in the beginning of the semester.

(Teacher E\_U5, Interview, November 15, 2017)

Five teachers however, agreed to the concept of involving students but had never done so in their practices.

## **Summary of Part IV**

In this Part of the findings chapter, I have presented two main themes that emerged from the interviews with the teachers; their actual views, and responses to students' cultures of learning. The teachers in this study indicated that their beliefs about students' cultures of learning especially on their role of affiliating with the students in the classroom, have influenced their choices of features and their practices in involving students in the decision-making process. The choices of teaching approaches and methods used in the classroom are based on the teacher's knowledge and experience, the curriculum and the students' need which is complementary to the literatures. However, regarding students' involvement, the teachers reflected that these adult students seemed not to understand their own needs in the classroom. In addition, the data shows that an important point to be considered when involving students' voices is that teachers are not well-equipped to use this practice, although some teachers in this study admitted having used a negotiated syllabus and tried to understand their students in order to involve them in deciding the most efficient learning approaches in the classroom.

### **4.5. Chapter Summary**

From Part I to Part IV of this findings chapter, I concluded that the main themes that emerged were cultures of learning, students' agency, teachers' perception, and teachers' pedagogical practices. The findings data from the interviews revealed that the main themes overlapped with each other in which cultures of learning are closely related to students' agency, and teachers' perception of their pedagogical practices. Although the main themes covered similar understanding of students' cultures of learning and teachers' pedagogy of curriculum enactment, I presented them separately because of the importance of the weight of evidence that arose about those themes.

As I have presented in this chapter, the interview data which was also supported by the questionnaire, classroom observation, and teacher's reflection sheet, have shown that students from two universities in Indonesia have similar pattern of cultures of learning and both have shown how this affected their learning practices in the classroom, where they mentioned teachers pedagogical control and their attitudes towards certain teaching methods. Additionally, the data presented a strong link between teachers'



perception and their pedagogical practices. This was evident from the way the teachers showed great concern on the way they manage their students and classrooms, and most importantly on how they view and respond to students' cultures of learning in their current practices.

## **CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF CULTURES OF LEARNING AND THE PEDAGOGY OF ENGLISH EDUCATION CURRICULUM ENACTMENT**

The aim of the current study is to identify Indonesian students' cultures of learning and how it affects students' agency and teachers' pedagogical practices. Therefore, this chapter discusses the findings of this study by linking the main themes together in order to better understand the cultures of learning and in turn, involve students' voices in the TESOL context. This chapter highlights the answer to the research questions 1) what are the students' cultures of learning?, 2) What are teachers' perception of students' cultures of learning?, 3) How do cultures of learning affect students' classroom learning? and 4) How do teachers' perception of students' cultures of learning affect their pedagogical practices? and compares the findings with relevant literature. I examine how cultures of learning are reflected in the classroom, particularly in students' agency to understand the Indonesian language learners, and on the other hand taking into account how teachers' perceptions influenced their pedagogical practice in the Indonesian TESOL context.

### **5.1. What are students' cultures of learning?**

As argued in chapter 2, cultures of learning refers to the ways of learning that have cultural origins, which consist of students' beliefs, views, and expectations about learning, good teacher, good student, teacher student relationship, textbook and asking question (Cortazzi and Jin, 1996a, 2013). In chapter 4, part I, I described the pattern of Indonesian cultures of learning which showed an insight into the Indonesian students' ways of learning English that, to a certain extent, cannot be categorized or stereotyped (Cortazzi and Jin, 2017) into those of other Asian students such as China (Cortazzi and Jin, 1996b, 1996a, 2011; Wang, 2013), Japan (Kato, 2001; Falout *et al.*, 2013), Thailand (Huyen and Ha, 2013), Vietnam (Bao, 2013), and Hongkong (Glenwright, 2000). Students' attitudes towards learning as presented in chapter 4 part I indicated that students view learning as an active engagement where it is very much involved with practicing English skills using media such as listening to songs, conversations and reading literary works. These views explained that learning is merely learning what to do rather than learning to learn. On the other hand, although there are different interpretations, typical Asian Chinese learners as I described in chapter 2 section 2.1.3, mostly see learning as a

serious endeavour in the classroom and are teacher dominated (Cortazzi and Jin, 1996a; Confucius, 2000; Shi, 2006). The students in the current study also mentioned the importance of textbooks in helping their learning, which have become an important part of their cultures of learning.

Since religion is also a part of the students' cultural resources, the Islamic, Christian, and Hinduism views that most Indonesian students adhere to cannot be said to have affected the way the students view learning. Christian and Hinduism views emphasize that learning is about learning in a place of community (Miswanto, 2012; Wenas, 2017). In chapter 4, section 4.1.1, students described learning as learning in the classroom, however, this is considered relatively low compared to those that view learning as an active classroom engagement, and who use media as means of learning. Even so, the current study cannot provide any evidence regarding whether the views about learning of the students were affected by their religious beliefs. Also, the Islamic view that learning is a serious devotion, which was not seen in how the students view learning, because most of them consider learning English as fun, engaging, and explorative (see chapter 4, part I, section 4.1.1).

Another important element of students' cultures of learning is the students' view of a good teacher and a good student. In chapter 4 part I, their views on a good teacher showed how the students emphasized teachers' practical knowledge in the classroom. Students have come to consider several dimensions of a good teacher (see chapter 4, Part 1, section 4.1.2) similar to the ones found by Ratih and Laurence (2015), which include the pedagogical knowledge dimension that describes teachers as being able to know how to best teach, personal and contextual knowledge, and sociological and social knowledge. Further, students' views of a good student highlighted an interesting finding that Indonesians have changed from being a weak uncertainty avoidance people (Hofstede, 1986) to being an active, aggressive, emotional and compulsive people, because the participants in this study described a good student as the one with high motivation. As Kumaravadivelu (2006) and Shi (2006) stated Asian students are gradually changing to become more independent, and on the other hand, teachers are becoming more open-minded in their classroom practices and interactions with the students.

Although Indonesian social culture merely focuses on the good characters of either the teachers or the students (Rizal, 2009; Miswanto, 2012; Wenas, 2017) in describing a

good educator and learner as pointed out in chapter 2, section 2.1.3.2, the shift can be argued to be due to the condition that, in current years, Indonesia has been opened to global education policies by encouraging educators to have the ability to compare and analyse different educational policies and practices and the need to maintain an open mind toward different practices while reflecting on one's own (DIKTI, 2014, 2016). Therefore, the students' views to some extent reflected what they see in the classroom, how teachers used variety of practices, and how students best respond to them.

Teacher-student relationships in Indonesian social culture evolve around respect and obedience (Rizal, 2009; Miswanto, 2012; Wenas, 2017). In the findings chapter 4, part I, section 4.1.4, there is no significant number of students who prefer a certain type of relationship with the teacher. In chapter 2, section 2.1.3.3, I pointed out the arguments regarding the different expectations in interaction patterns between teachers' and students' relationships, but these are not necessarily the case in the current study because the variety of responses indicating that the educator – learner, parent – child, and friend – friend type of relationship are all applicable. Within a school community, where there are interactions involved, there would always be (1) respect from the students to their teacher as an educator, (2) a personal and intimate relation as a parent – child, and (3) friendliness between teacher and student (see chapter 4, part II, section 4.1.4). Therefore, as long as those elements revolve around the teacher and student relationship, there should not be any necessity to categorize the teacher – student relationship. However, a larger scale study needs to be carried out to find out which types are more important.

In terms of asking questions in the classroom, Hinduism (Miswanto, 2012), Islamic (Rizal, 2009), and Christian (Wenas, 2017) teachings explain how human beings must make an effort and to seek knowledge as long as they live, even in life hereafter. The students' learning culture in the findings chapter 4 part I, section 4.1.5., indicated that the students were not asking questions due to their lack of confidence in the mastery of their English skills, rather than because they want respect or did not want to criticize or interrupt the teacher (Hofstede, 1986; Cortazzi and Jin, 1996b; Kato, 2001; Shi, 2006). In addition, they ask questions to clarify misunderstanding not to impress the teachers. The lack of questions asked by Asian students, and also the students in the current context is to save "face". However, Western students also consider the risk of losing face, although this is not as powerful or common as the students with collectivist tendency. As I have discussed in Chapter II, section 2.1.3.4, there is a slight difference in the perception of

Asian and Western about losing face. Asians tend to avoid this situation because losing face in front of many people is the same as embarrassing not only themselves but also their family (Braje and Hall, 2016). However, it should also be taken into consideration what King (2013) pointed out in chapter 2, section 2.1.3.4, about the causes of silent behaviour in the classroom. Fear of embarrassment might not be the only cause of students being silent in the class, for they might also indicate boredom, a monotonous teacher-centred method, the non-verbal activities, and even confusion in the classroom. Thus, a further research should be implemented to identify further these causes.

The Indonesian students investigated in this study indicated a unique learning pattern where they view learning as an active engagement and expect teachers to be creative in the classroom. Nevertheless, they believed that learning is also using books and they are very much concerned about “losing face”. As I have argued in chapter 2, section 2.1.2, Indonesia’s social culture is shaped by other cultures and elements which is strongly influenced by economic values, religious values, art values, solidarity values, knowledge values, and power values. These values basically show a strong emphasis on a collectivist, power, structure and masculine way of life. However, throughout the findings chapter, I have shown that the students have a variety of views and preferences in learning, which is mostly less influenced by their social culture and more towards their exposure to years of classroom learning experiences.

The findings of the study in part 4 showed how the students consider learning as something that cannot be separated from the teacher’s control or design and the use of media and their peers, which explains the cultural origin behind the students’ ways of learning. These learning habits were derived throughout years of the students’ education and presumably, the effects of globalisation, showing that their learning cultures did not necessarily originate from their early childhood or early years at school, age, social factors and other practical constraints (Cortazzi and Jin, 1996a, 2013). As described in chapter 1 section 1.2.1 about the history of English Education in Indonesia, Indonesian students have been exposed to communicative approaches in teaching English since 1994 (Bachrudin, 2001) where learning is about using the language based on its function and context, and the emphasis is on student-centred learning.

It is argued that the different ways of learning are a product of interaction prior to school because teachers and students are raised and mentally programmed in their social

transmitted beliefs and expectations (Hofstede, 1986; Cortazzi and Jin, 1996a, 2013; Jin and Cortazzi, 2006; Shi, 2006). However, I have shown throughout the findings chapter that the students' cultures of learning is mostly educational-transmitted experiences and values that learners have with them when learning in the classroom. The teachers themselves took an immense part in shaping the students' beliefs, expectations and approaches to learning. The formulation of small culture as I have explained in chapter 2, section 2.1.1., is related to how these students' ways of learning were drawn into routines, rituals and reifications.

These students' cultures of learning that are less influenced by their social cultures were affected by the fact that the learning of English in Indonesia emphasizes the communicative language teaching (CLT) (Marcellino, 2008; Larson, 2014). As an approach that focuses on communicative practices in the classroom where students have to use pragmatic, authentic and functional language in a productive and receptive way (Brown, 2007, p.243), students' exposure to this approach may have shaped their understanding of what learning should be.

Although students in the current study still feel comfortable using book/textbook in learning, I argue that it is not due to the traditional (Confucius, 2000) or religious views (Buddhism, Islamic, and Christianity emphasize the importance of using books in learning) but merely due to the English language education system in Indonesia that has made textbooks a main source of learning English since the students exposure to English in their primary education. The use of textbooks for teaching is evident way back during the Dutch colony in Indonesia where English was first taught in 1914 when junior high schools were established. English teaching books were buried after the occupation of Japan in Indonesia in order to demolish any British-related culture in Indonesia by the Japanese (Lauder, 2008). Therefore, the use of book/textbook in an education setting is not anything new in the current context.

The student participants from the two universities came from two different socially characteristic backgrounds that distinguish them in terms of their culture. The gap can be seen from the differences in the social system, religion and economy as I described in chapter 1, section 1.2.1. These elements are a part of the students' cultural resources that are influenced by their global position and politics, and personal trajectories (family, ancestry, and peers) (Holliday, 2010, 2013). Looking at the overall data findings that I

presented in chapter 4, part I, there is no indication of differences in students' ways of learning from the two universities, despite the fact that they share totally different beliefs, traditions, and customs. Therefore, the probable explanation is in the process of formatting a small culture; when students enter their learning community in schools, they might have brought with them their cultural resources, however, in the process of routinisation (see chapter 2, section 2.1.1) when these resources are embedded and shared in their new classroom community, the students might have unconsciously erased their cultural traits because of the strong influence of the teacher's pedagogical power and control over the students' classroom endeavours.

. In the current study, the students are in a phase where they have adapted to the small culture within their learning community that is mainly created and shaped by their teachers. Holliday (2013) explained that after the process of routinisation, individuals will experience the process of rituals, reification, and dualities (chapter 2, section 2.1.1) where their routines become formal and normal practices (influenced by issues of hierarchies, obedience) that they might try to adapt or even resist. Studies on cultures of learning of students in their primary or secondary education (Cortazzi and Jin, 1996a; Glenwright, 2000; Kato, 2001; Shi, 2006; Falout *et al.*, 2013; Wang, 2013) have shown a strong influence of students' personal trajectories in learning a new language in the classroom - whereas adult learners as in the current study were already in the process of adapting to the years of their English learning experiences, therefore their beliefs and approaches to learning English are an accumulation of the education-transmitted cultures.

## **5.2. What are teachers' perceptions of students' cultures of learning?**

The Indonesian teachers revealed their understanding of students' approaches to learning, although they were not aware that it is the part of students' cultures of learning. To some extent they agreed and shared similar beliefs, values and expectations towards learning, quality of a good teacher and a good student, asking questions, textbooks, and teacher-student relationship in the classroom, with their students (see chapter 4, part II). The gaps between the teacher and the students (Cortazzi and Jin, 1996a, 2013; Eisenbach, 2012) causing difficulty with having a collaborative engagement between them (Murase, 2012) were not seen in the findings. The findings in this study have shown that the issue

is not regarding the different views between teacher and student but primarily regarding teachers' solid involvement in students learning.

Students' ways of learning as perceived by the teacher as acceptable and understandable is an indication of the teacher's ability to notice their students. On the other hand, this cannot be interpreted as a part of their belief. Although teachers views about their students are derived from their personal knowledge or experiences (Emre Debreli, 2012; Özmen, 2012) which mainly affect their beliefs (Xu, 2012) about teaching and learning, the findings in the current study have shown that noticing the students' cultures of learning does not guarantee that they are convinced that it is best to consider them in their practices. This is evident on the findings of the research question 4 (see chapter 4, part IV, section 4.4.1) where, during the interview, teachers have come up with their actual views of students' cultures of learning. As stated by Borg (2001, p.186) that belief is a strong conviction of what is to be accepted as truth that guides thought and behaviour.

The teachers in the current study showed a strong confidence towards their own understanding of teaching and their students. As argued in chapter 2 section 2.2, the teacher's perception is in the microlevel of teaching (Van Patten, 1997), which relates closely to their character and level of experience, as well as their interests, attitudes, and judgments. Therefore, their practices were very much contextualized and may differ depending on their interests or attitudes towards certain courses and students. As Meighan (1990 cited in Xu, 2012) pointed out, teachers beliefs about the classroom depend on the way they view their students. He added that teachers practically construct students as resisters, receptacles, raw material, clients, partners, individual explorers, and democratic explorers (see chapter 2, section 2.2.1). The typical students that they conceptualize will determine how they implement their pedagogical practices.

The issue of power also affected how teachers are involved in students' learning. This is evident from the findings chapter 4 part II, section 4.2.1.2, where the teachers indicated how they controlled their classrooms. Although they admitted having noticed the students' cultures of learning, the teachers indicated that they had to take actions that they consider necessary to make sure that the students participate in the classroom activities. For example, a teacher mentioned the word *force* in order to get the students to ask questions in the classroom. However, this cannot be interpreted as having a negative



effect on the students. Power in the classroom may actually improve students' learning repertoires (Richmond, McCroskey and Wagner, 1983; Golish and Olson, 2000; Turman and Schrodt, 2006; Schrodt *et al.*, 2008; Diaz, Cochran and Karlin, 2016). Power becomes an issue if the teachers use it to '(dis)empower their students' (Schrodt *et al.*, 2008, p.185).

Therefore, I used the term teacher affiliation (Brekelmans *et al.*, 2011a) to explain how teachers agreed to students' approaches to learning, however, they do not always consider it as the basis for making decisions about how to teach in the classroom. In the findings (see chapter 4, part II, section 4.2.1), two teachers agreed with the students that a good student is someone who has high motivation (see chapter 4, part I, section 4.1.3), however, they still insist that the main skill that students should have is independence in learning. Looking at the teacher interpersonal circle (Wubbels *et al.*, 2006) in chapter 2, section 2.2.2, the teachers in the current study indicated several behaviours of affiliating with the students in the classroom. In the level of affiliation, the teachers appeared to be steering, friendly, understanding, complying but balancing them on the control level by enforcing, reprimanding, dissatisfied and uncertain.

This then relates to the study done by Hofstede (1986) about cultural differences in teaching and learning, which indicated that the power used by the teachers is more like them saying 'students speak up in class when invited by the teacher', 'teacher is never contradicted or publicly criticized' 'a teacher merits the respect of his or her students' (see Appendix A) which is portraying a different type of power. It was found in findings chapter, part II, section 4.2.1.3 that there is an emphasis by the teacher on the issue of respect in the teacher-student relationship. As argued in chapter 2 section 2.2.2, there are five types of power, the teachers in this study indicated that they have expert power (the teacher's competence and subject-matter knowledge); legitimate power (based upon the teacher's assigned academic role or position); and referent power (cultivated by building relationships and communicating on an authentic level with student) (Schrodt *et al.*, 2008). Most teachers in the current study seemed not to be using the power to dictate or attract certain reinforcement from the students, however, they used their expert power in teaching where they have the legitimate position to make decisions and create culture in the classroom.

I have understood that this is also the reason for how they perceived the students' cultures of learning as a barrier of effective teaching (see chapter 4, part II, section 4.2.2).

The teachers in the study considered that the students' views to some extent are affected by their lack of understanding about the learning of English and their own negative attitudes or characters. This explains what I mentioned earlier about how teachers' perceptions of their students affect their decisions and actions in the classroom. In this particular case, the teachers have believed their students to be resisters, receptacles, and raw material that needed to be controlled (Wubbels *et al.*, 2006). Teachers take on the role of educator with freedom to use their expertise, they therefore believe that decisions they make on pedagogy are based on sound judgments.

Based on the findings (chapter 4, part IV), teachers' decisions are mainly based on the nature of the course and the type of class (curriculum). In chapter 2, section 2.2.2., I emphasized the importance of having a collaborative engagement between the teacher and the student, however, there should be willingness from both, to work collaboratively because teacher perception and student voices are two very different elements that stand side by side and which seem difficult to integrate into the TESOL context, especially in a culture that gives so much power to teachers and whilst valuing students as learners that need no special contribution in the classroom decision-making process. The question is to what extent should teachers practice power, and on the other hand, think about student agency.

### **5.3. How do cultures of learning affect students' classroom practices of learning?**

The educational transmitted experiences and values that the students have were obviously reflected in their agency. In chapter 2, section 2.3.2, I have explained in detail how an individual acquires a second language by describing the theories of behaviourism (Pavlov, 1960), neo-behaviourist (Skinner, 1938), constructivism (Vygotsky, 1962), and cultural dimension (Bruner, 1972). It has been the interest of the current study to focus on the constructivism and cultural dimension of learning that develops the basis for explaining the educational-transmitted cultures of learning of the students. Learning is situated in context and culture (Jarvela and Niemivirta, 1999) and it is an interactional process where the students gain from their environment, in this case the educational environment. The educational process that they have been exposed to has shaped the way they are more or less comfortable with certain activities in the classroom. As Littlewood (2000) and Liu (2001) stated, learning attitudes of the students are basically influenced

by the type of material, the teachers, or even their own motivation. This is the main purpose of recognizing student cultures of learning where teachers – by recognizing positive features of their students’ current learning cultures – can help themselves extend, adapt or adopt new approaches (Cortazzi and Jin, 2013).

As argued in chapter 2, section 2.3.2, the process of an individual’s acquisition of a second language takes the process of cognitive, affective, and social aspects which include psychology, socialisation, and activity theory (Illeris, 2007). Learning is not only seen as a content and incentive process of an individual but is a product of social activity that accounts for the environment, education, culture, and motivation that changes dynamically. Therefore, in the current study, the learning process is seen to be a part of the teachers’ pedagogical control and students’ motivation or how they positioned themselves in their learning community. As seen in the findings of the study (chapter 4, part III, section 4.3.1-4.3.3), and as discussed in chapter 2, section 2.3.1, on metacognitive knowledge, the students actually have their own preferences and have implied certain things that may help improve their learning, as well as receiving feedback from the teachers. Although, there is still much argument about the diversity of belief factors about language learning (Mori, 1999). An issue that emerges from these findings in chapter 4 is that there has not been much space and trust from the teachers to involve the students in the pedagogy. The students too preferred to be directed by the teachers in their classroom learning endeavours (chapter 4, part II, section 4.3.1).

In a traditional Indonesian classroom as discussed in chapter 1, the teacher decides the flow of the class, even when to speak and who should be speaking, hence the reason these approaches might have been carried on into today’s classroom. Although the current educational system in Indonesia is focusing on student-centred learning (see chapter 2, section 2.3.3) that basically encourages teachers to implement classroom activities that stimulate students’ active participation (DIKTI, 2008, 2014), the current condition of higher education in Indonesia is showing that teachers’ lack of understanding and competence is a challenge on its own (DIKTI, 2016). The students in the current study (chapter 4, part III, section 4.3.1) admitted that their lack of participation in the classroom was due to their teachers’ choices of classroom teaching techniques, and their practice of power (Taylor and Robinson, 2009; Seale, 2010; McLeod, 2011). The students who preferred to be “followers” rather than active participants in their own learning adventure, are an indication that the implementation of student-centred learning is not currently

effective enough. “Followers” are those students who are comfortable and obey the decision of the teacher and feel it is unnecessary to use their voices in classroom teaching and learning practices. The teachers so far have taken on the role of facilitator as expected from the Indonesian educational curriculum.

Therefore, these Indonesian teachers’ pedagogic control over their classrooms showed a concern beyond only recognizing the students’ ways of learning that contribute to their English learning competency but also, to some extent, they and the student’s willingness to use it as a teacher–student discussion to develop local, contextualized ways of learning. Concerns that categorizing students’ cultures of learning can hinder teachers’ efforts to improve the teaching and learning quality because teachers cannot in any way change cultural traits (Yuan and Xie, 2013) is basically not the issue because this study has shown evidence that by looking at the students’ agency may give a representation of what the students’ voices might be (chapter 4, part III, section 4.3.1). As it has been argued in chapter 2 section 2.3.4., the students’ voice is an important tool that may improve the quality of the teaching and learning process in the classroom (Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Fiona *et al.*, 2007; Taylor and Robinson, 2009; Nation and Macalister, 2010; Seale, 2010; McLeod, 2011; Brooman, *et al.*, 2015). However, this study can only present findings on how cultures of learning can help teachers to recognize and understand their students’ preferences, not on how these can be used in the development of the English language curriculum.

In chapter 2, section 2.1.3, it has been explained how identifying students’ cultures of learning may neglect the students’ individual agency (Yuan and Xie, 2013), the findings in chapter 4, part III on the contrary, indicated how cultures of learning gave a general picture of students’ attitudes towards certain teaching and learning methods in the classroom where a range of different approaches to learning were found likely to be more or less effective in this particular context. Classroom discussion was admitted by the students as one of the classroom methods that they are most comfortable with, while classroom presentation was seen as a method that hinders their learning (chapter 4, part III, section 4.3.2-4.3.3). Small pair or group discussions were seen as being able to improve the language competence of the students because they can use this particular learning method to share their ideas in smaller groups and ask their friends rather than the teacher to “save face”. While PowerPoint presentations are challenging because the

students' lack of competency in English skills and their lack of confidence cause difficulty for others to understand what is being presented.

As I have mentioned in chapter 4 part III, the cultures of learning were affected by the language learning methods that teachers have been using as a part of the communicative language teaching approach (CLT), where discussions and student presentations are very popular classroom methods in order to strengthen students' communicative competence (Richards, 2006; Brown, 2007; Harmer, 2007). This is also a teaching approach that equipped the Indonesian government's aim to enact the student-centred learning. Therefore, students are more or less familiar and comfortable to certain teaching methods (discussion), and even resist other (presentation) because they know precisely what best work and what might not work in improving their English language competences. Although this can be argued as an indication of Indonesian students being collectivist (Hofstede, 1986), the similar pattern of attitudes or preferences of two different societies have shown that this must be derived from a culture that they both share which in this context is from their curriculum, their teachers, and their teaching learning methods.

The students' cultures of learning have also affected their views of how certain characteristics of their teacher and themselves can hinder the effectiveness of their own learning. The lack of creativity, help and care from the teacher as seen in findings part III, resulted in students' anxiety to participate in classroom activities, such as answering and asking questions. Seemingly, the students are actually trying to "save face" (see chapter 4, Part III, section 4.3.4). Their hesitation to speak to their teacher is due to their lack of confidence in their English skills and also their fear that the teacher might judge them or give a negative response to their questions or answers in the classroom. The current Indonesian higher education curriculum guidebook has identified several issues in the education system which are mainly caused by the teachers pedagogical incompetency (DIKTI, 2014), however the current study suggests that the interpersonal circle of teachers (Wubbels *et al.*, 2006) should also be taken into consideration if wanting to effectively implement student-centred learning.

Therefore, teachers to some extent may be open to understanding different types of voices from the students. As I have mentioned in chapter 2 section 2.3.4, there are different types of students voice; voice-as-strategy (to achieve empowerment,

transformation, equality); voice as-participation (in learning, in democratic processes); voice-as-right (to be heard, to have a say); and voice-as-difference (to promote inclusion, respect diversity, indicate equity) (McLeod, 2011). The teachers focus on voices that are identified through the students learning cultures, which contribute to learning as a democratic process because the students are lacking voice-as-strategy, voice-as-right, and voice-as-difference (see chapter 4, part III). I will discuss this in detail in the next section.

#### **5.4. How do teachers' perception of students' cultures of learning affect their pedagogical practices?**

Teachers' perceptions have always been influential tools in designing appropriate strategies in the classroom, since it is the teacher's power in various forms that makes their understanding of students' cultures so important in order to construct sensible teaching and learning strategies for their students. Teachers' beliefs about learning, whether implied or explicit, affect a whole lot of their classroom practices (Xu, 2012). The teaching approaches a teacher uses in the language classroom reflect his/her beliefs about learning. The teachers in this study indicated that their beliefs about students' cultures of learning, especially in their role of affiliating (see chapter 4, part II, section 4.2.1) with the students in the classroom, have influenced their choices of features and their practices in involving students in the decision-making process.

The teachers' perception of students' cultures of learning in the current study has shown their actual views on ways of learning which might be affected by literature or their pedagogical knowledge that they gained from their own studies and research. As discussed in chapter 2, literature (Brown, 2007; Harmer, 2007; Cook, 2008; Smagorinsky, 2009; Özmen, 2012) has suggested that in the teaching process, teachers take the most important role in deciding the whole teaching and learning process, setting the objectives, decide the teaching approaches and methods, including making assumptions on what is best for the students. When knowledge is built learners should be involved actively in the teaching and learning process and the teacher should take the role of facilitator (Özmen, 2012). Based on findings part IV, section 4.4.1, the teachers in the current study indicated their views that learning is a knowledge acquisition, a social activity and autodidactic. The way they view these types of learning is due to their training, experience and the students' needs, which might be a part of students' learning cultures. The needs might be

influenced by the fact that these particular students were student-teachers. As future teachers the students are encouraged to be independent and collaborative in their ways of learning that in turn become a reflective knowledge about their own or their teachers' or society's ideas of learning as a part of developing their metacognitive awareness (Weden, 1999). Teachers of students from other major studies besides education perspectives might have different perspectives on learning depending on their students' needs. However, further studies should be made to provide evidences on this.

Their perception of students' learning preferences may not have shaped how they implement learning in the classroom because of their views about students and how they practice power, as I have discussed in sections 5.2-5.3 of this chapter. It is an indication of how these views have become a part of their common practices, even though it is arguable that the teachers' understanding of students' ways of learning might have affected the way they use these teaching methods and techniques.

The choices of teaching approaches and methods used in the classroom is based on teachers' knowledge and experience (Huyen and Ha, 2013), the curriculum and the students' needs, which concurs with the literature (Graves, 1996; Bodegas, 2007; Nation and Macalister, 2010). Therefore, these different factors may also contribute to the different choices of teaching methods that they use in the classroom. The findings in chapter 4, part II, section 4.2.1 about teacher affiliation showed the strong influence that teachers have over their own pedagogical practices. Although, some admit and are trying to implement the student-centred learning in their classroom (see chapter 4, part IV, section 4.4.2.2). The teachers have seemingly combined their understanding over students' learning with their expertise to use certain teaching methods and techniques in the teaching of English. The use of technology to support learning is also a part of embracing the digital era and teachers' reflective beliefs about what will work best for their students (see chapter 4, part IV, section 4.4.2.4). As I have described in chapter 2, section 2.1.2.5., 75 million Indonesians has access to the internet (Sutanto, 2016) and the demand of student-centred learning in the curriculum has triggered teachers to use various technology products that, besides to support their practices, also elicit students participation because these technological media are no doubt has become a large part of the students' lives. The use of technology for learning in the digital era, might then, in the upcoming years create a new formation of culture in the classroom. However, further research should be made.

The teachers' actual views of the cultures of learning of the student indicated that they remain aware of the social context, the curriculum and the knowledge of the subject matter (Barnett and Coate, 2005) when implementing their pedagogical practices including enacting the curriculum. As can be seen in the current study (chapter 4, part IV, section 4.4.2.5), regarding students' involvement, the teachers are supportive of this practice and some have even tried implementing it in their classroom. The teachers reflected that these adult students seemed not to understand their own needs in the classroom, as also explained by Nation and Macalister (2010) and Abbasian and Malardi (2013). They explained that the students' lack of knowledge and skill might be the cause of their passivity. It was argued that recognizing students' cultures of learning may to some extent benefit the students so they can increase their repertoires of learning strategies and put forward their voices (Cortazzi and Jin, 1996, 2013; Weeks, 2012). However, this study has shown that the concern is mostly regarding students who are not willing to participate or who are comfortable as "followers" because the students were able to voice their opinions about their classroom experiences and even provide suggestion for the improvement of their learning (chapter 4, part III).

In addition, the findings have shown that an important point to be considered when involving students' voices is that teachers are not well-equipped to use this practice because of the complexity of the design and enactment of the curriculum itself (Barnett and Coate, 2005; Moore, 2012). One teacher out of six in this study admitted having used a negotiated syllabus and trying to understand their students in order to involve them in deciding the most efficient learning approaches in the classroom. However, there has not been a concrete description of students' "needs" that has been discussed in their negotiated syllabus. It is also worth considering that challenges in a negotiated syllabus, as mentioned earlier, arise when students are asked to be involved since not every student will feel that it is necessary to do so, especially when given the responsibility to be involved in a decision-making process because of the weight of the teacher's power (Chapter 4, part III, section 4.3.1). 'What usually happens in EFL classes is that teachers make decisions and determine what students are supposed to do and how they are expected to do them without almost any negotiation with and involvement of students' (Abbasian and Malardi 2013, p.1400).

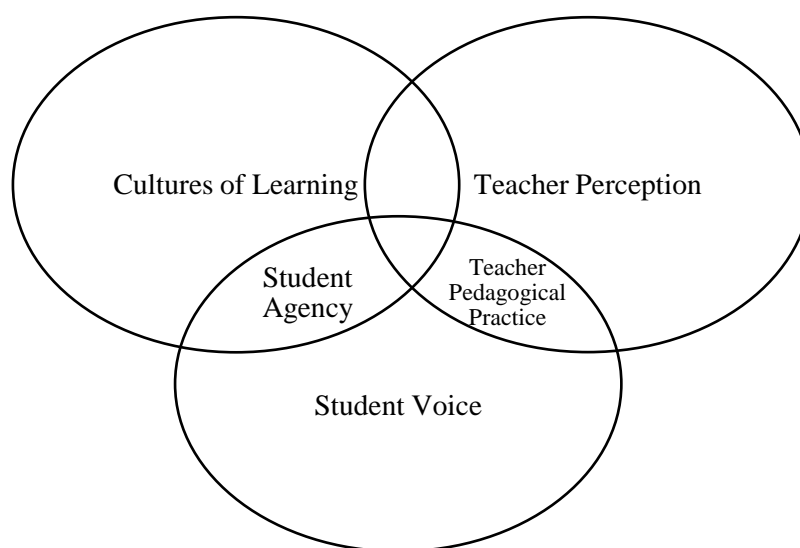
In brief, what I have put forward in this current study is for TESOL professionals to consider when to involve students' voices from their cultures of learning, in a relevant



context beyond Indonesia. Cortazzi and Jin (2013) suggested the need to have a cultural synergy in order for teachers and students to understand and appreciate others' culture without losing their own identity. In addition, researchers argued that active involvement of students in educational development has recently become more prevalent and is widely seen as advantageous. Change based on what students say is more influential and challenges long-held notions of teaching and learning (Cook-Sather, 2006; Brooman, Darwent and Pimor, 2015). Recent research has suggested several ways to generate students' voices such as designing multiple focus group methods that may present an alternative approach to engaging the student voice and provide more than standard feedback mechanisms (Brooman, Darwent and Pimor, 2015), recording the meeting or interview which can take many forms, such as video, note taking, recording to tape or digital recording but needs to be fit for purpose (Fiona *et al.*, 2007), weekly email, conversation, discussion, and analysis of paper at the end of the semester that draws on the email exchange, transcripts, and class discussions (Cook-Sather, 2006; Abd-Kadir and Hardman, 2013) and participatory student voice projects (Taylor and Robinson, 2009; Seale, 2010; McLeod, 2011; Bao, 2013).

However, based on the students questionnaire, interview data from the teachers and students, the classroom observation, and teachers' reflection sheets I conclude that in a culture where classroom understanding and expression is 'ritualized' (see chapter 2, section 2.4.2) (Abd-Kadir and Hardman, 2013) such as in the context of the current study, it is necessary to understand that there is a lack of teacher and student awareness (which is indicated in the overlap space in figure 5.1) between cultures of learning and teacher perception or beliefs. The figure below shows how cultures of learning is related to students' agency, teachers' perception and pedagogy.

Figure 5. 1. Cultures of Learning in TESOL Context



As illustrated in figure 5.1, cultures of learning and teacher perception are two important concepts that overlap with one another. I argue that cultures of learning is an acceptable concept to describe learners' beliefs, expectations and approaches to learning and that these cultural ways of learning are reflected in the students' agency. However, teachers' perceptions or beliefs in the process cannot be neglected, because the principles of course design for language teaching are carried out mainly by the teacher.

As shown in the findings of this study, teachers' perception is the main factor that affect their pedagogical practices when enacting the curriculum. However, one of the aims of this study is to involve students' voices in the process of developing the language curriculum by identifying their cultures of learning, therefore the overlapping space between cultures of learning and teacher perception is an indication that teachers actually know about students' cultures but they are not doing anything about it. In Findings Part IV, I have shown that in the classroom teachers are aware of students' cultures of learning, but also have their own view of learning that they consider more effective in the classroom.

In chapter 4, part IV, section 4.4.2.5, the teachers mentioned one reason that they found it difficult to have discussions with the students about the practicality of teaching and learning in the classroom was due to the availability of time. In English language teaching, teachers normally consider the importance of the sequences in teaching which

include ‘engage’, ‘study’ and ‘active’(Harmer, 2007) and ‘input-output chain’ (Kumaravadivelu, 2006) (see chapter 2, section 2.4.2) where learning is only on the level of how the teacher guides students to learn and practice the language. Therefore, there seemed to be no wider space for teachers to think about how to involve the students as partners in creating the classroom culture.

The other interesting point is that the teachers thought they had discussions with the students, but the students didn’t realize that the teachers were involving them in discussing the curriculum. Perhaps the teachers and students are viewing this differently due to their differing preconceptions of what’s happening. The teacher must take on the role to ‘develop learner’s awareness of the goals of language-learning activities and how these goals can be achieved’ (Nation and Macalister, 2010, p.156). The way teachers communicate is the main cause of misunderstanding between teacher and student. As discussed in Chapter 2, section 2.4.1, in a negotiated syllabus teachers should consider the needs analysis process where they gather the students’ objective and subjective information (Nunan, 1988; Orr, 2001; Nation and Macalister, 2010; Solak, 2012; Whitacre, Diaz and Esquierdo, 2013; Ping *et al.*, 2015; Sunengsih and Fahrurrozi, 2015).

Studies have shown what a needs analysis should encompass, however, what is lacking is in the cultural background of the students (Bruner, 1996; Hull, 1996; Moore, 2012). As claimed by Hull (1996, p.183) individual learning needs encompass not only the linguistic and functional needs but also the cultural learning needs of the learners. This cultural aspect relates to learners’ ‘own understanding of what it means to be a good teacher or a good student’ (Cortazzi and Jin, 1996a, 2013), which can be said to be their cultures of learning. Culture of learning is ‘the cultural aspects of teaching and learning; what people believe about ‘normal’ or ‘good’ learning activities and processes, where such beliefs have a cultural origin’ (Coleman, 1996, p.230). A culture of learning in the current study is likely to be influenced by the educational-transmitted conditions that so far have affected teachers’ and learners’ goals and strategies.

Although the teachers claimed that they involved students’ needs in their pedagogical practices, an issue in the current study is that I have not investigated more deeply how teachers conduct the needs analysis process. All that can be seen is the relation between students’ cultures of learning and their agency, and teachers’ perceptions of their pedagogical practices, which only showed the current condition of the teachers and

students in responding to the issue of students' voices and how they understand differently what it is like to involve students in the decision-making process. However, this study can contribute in developing a needs analysis for teaching by looking at what is missing from the conventional needs analysis, that is the students' own voices in the form of their cultures of learning.

Therefore, the provisional submission based on this study is for teachers to use their principled practice (Kumaravadivelu, 2006) by combining students' agency (see chapter 2 section 2.3) and teachers' pedagogical practices (see chapter 2, section 2.4) in order to listen to students' voices. A 'principled practice' since it challenges teachers to think about what is appropriate given the unique intersection that their classroom provides for their many and varied students; their beliefs about teaching and learning; the materials available for them to use; and the public, professional, and policy contexts in which they teach. The notion of principled practice focuses on the why of teaching: 'why teaching methods work in particular ways in particular settings' (Smagorinsky 2009, p.20).

As I have mentioned earlier, this is very challenging due to teachers' trust and students being "followers". However, the practice can be implemented to the extent where teachers identify students' cultures of learning through students' agency by taking notes, making reflections, conducting informal needs analysis, or in any form (Abd-Kadir and Hardman, 2013) of their version of the curriculum (see chapter 4 part IV). In doing so, allowing teachers to analyse and reflect on how they teach, and as a result learn to develop appropriate learning outcomes, prepare better learning aids, decide on more contextualized teaching methods and conduct a more valid and reliable assessment.

## **5.5. Chapter Summary**

This chapter highlighted the answer to the research questions by comparing them with relevant literature. Section 5.1 explained the answer to research question 1 where the arguments focused around the educational transmitted cultures of learning of the Indonesian students involved in the current study. Section 5.2 discussed the answer to research question 2, by balancing the issues of teacher control and teacher affiliation. Section 5.3 emphasizes the answer to research question 3 by focusing on students' agency that is more or less affected by their cultures of learning. Section 5.4 discussed the answer

to research question 4 that focused on the practical issue of involving students' voices in the Indonesian TESOL context.

## **CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION, CONTRIBUTION AND REFLECTION**

This chapter summarizes the findings of the study, the contribution of the study, and suggestion for further research.

### **6.1. The Research Findings**

The primary aim of this study was to relook at the concept of cultures of learning from an Indonesian perspective, specifically how teachers perceive them, and the effect they actually have on students' classroom learning and teacher's pedagogical practices.

The findings of research question 1: What are students' cultures of learning, as discussed in Chapter 4 Part I, have shown that the Indonesian students being studied had a particular pattern of learning where they have a variety of preferences in learning English, their values for assessing a good teacher, a good student, teacher-student relationship, textbook, and asking questions. The Indonesian students are most comfortable learning in a relaxed situation when practicing the language, such as listening to songs, speaking with other people, reading literary works, and writing a diary or short stories. They preferred to learn the language where there are media of teaching involved and through classroom discussion, although some chose to learn using old practices, such as making use of textbooks to learn grammar, and learning pronunciation from the teacher. In addition, they categorized their relationship with the teacher as an educator-learner type and were very concerned with losing "face" (Cortazzi and Jin, 1996), where they avoid embarrassment out of respect when learning in the classroom with their peers and teachers (see chapter 4, Part I). The Indonesian students' cultures of learning have given me an overview of how these students' learning is less connected to their social culture but more to their exposure to the learning of English in Indonesia, which is being implemented with communicative language teaching. Interestingly, in the TESOL context students learning cultures cannot be separated from how the teachers perceive them.

The findings of research question 2: what are teachers' perception of students' cultures of learning? revealed in Chapter 4 Part II that the teachers have proved that they are aware of these ways of learning, which was evident in the themes that emerged from

teachers' perception; teacher affiliation, and barriers to effective teaching that indicated teachers' acceptance and control over students learning, despite these ways of learning being rooted in students' cultural origins. Therefore, the current study has shown a different insight where teachers understand and approve of these students' learning approaches, nevertheless, they retained the pedagogical control in their hands. The teachers' affiliation is shown in how teachers do not have that much trust in students, especially in making classroom decisions. Besides the teachers' perception, I have found that students' agency was influenced by their cultures of learning.

The argument is evident in the findings of the research question 3: how does cultures of learning affect students' classroom learning? The main themes that emerged in Chapter 4 Part III, were classroom management and students' preferences, classroom discussions, Power Point presentations and barriers of effective learning. This finding revealed that the students mostly preferred to be "followers" in creating the culture in the classroom (see Chapter 4, Part III) to save their "faces" and preferred not to be involved in giving their voices, although some students just thought that they were not given the opportunity to be involved in any classroom endeavours. Furthermore, this study has indicated a necessary finding that students' learning cultures have an effect on the extent to which they are more comfortable learning in the classroom. It was revealed that the students' preferred way of learning is more collaborative, which impacted on how they benefited from the classroom discussion. In addition, their strong tendency to save "face" had brought them negative attitudes towards classroom presentations. Furthermore, another main finding is that the teachers' perception is linked to their pedagogical practices where the teachers use the control that they have over the classroom and what they view as effective teaching in revealing their actual views on students' cultures of learning.

This was evident in findings of research question 4: how do teachers' perception of students' cultures of learning affect their pedagogical practices? In Chapter 4 Part IV, I have shown that the teachers view learning as a knowledge acquisition, a social activity and autodidactic learning. Therefore, the teachers' responses to students' cultures of learning were reflected in the factors influencing their practices and the approaches and methods they used in the classroom. Finally, this study has shown that students' agency (see Chapter 2, Section 2.3), which in this study is understood as how the students are able to assert their views and values to meet their needs, and teachers' pedagogical

practices influence students' involvement in giving their voices. The students' choice to become "followers" in the classroom (see Chapter 4 Part III, section 4.3.1) challenged the teachers, although this did not prevent the teachers involving the students' voices in the classroom. Their current practices have shown that there was room for students' involvement, however in my findings, the teachers actually know in their heads that they need to involve the students in certain ways that they know how. In this context is by giving the students syllabus (see Chapter 4, Part IV, section 4.4.2), which they feel as the most effective practical actions to take for involving students in creating classroom teaching and learning atmosphere. The conceptual model that emerged from the current study is the inseparable relationship between Indonesian students' cultures of learning and teachers' perception of them. The students' cultures of learning were reflected in their agency and the teachers' perception was associated with their pedagogical practices. Finally, the findings linking the students' agency and the teachers' pedagogical practices looked deeper into the challenges and teachers' current efforts to involve students' voices in the Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) context.

## **6.2. The Contribution of the Study**

Before this present study, studies on cultures of learning have focused on identifying and understanding cultures of learning in Asian countries excluding Indonesia, comparing cultures of learning and exploring changes in cultural heritages and learning (Cortazzi and Jin, 2013). The current study has given an insight of Indonesian students' cultures of learning and the effect on students' agency and teachers' pedagogical practices which other researchers (Glenwright, 2000; Hu, 2002; Shi, 2006; Abd-Kadir and Hardman, 2013; Bacha and Bahous, 2013; Wang, 2013; Bao, 2013; Cortazzi and Jin, 2013; Falout *et al.*, 2013; G. Makhanova and Cortazzi, 2013; Nemati and Kaivanpanah, 2013; Rahim and Manan, 2013) have not taken into account. This is to give teachers an understanding of how students view teaching and their learning preferences in the classroom. An important implication of this study is how cultures of learning is not merely influenced by social culture but is also the product of an educational transmitted one. The findings of the current study have shown that the cultures of learning have an influence on students' attitudes and beliefs which they might not have previously taken into account.



During my study, I have presented two papers of this project in BERA (British Educational Research Association) annual conference 2018 in Newcastle, United Kingdom, and at the ACAS (Asian Conference on Asian Studies) 2019 in Tokyo, Japan. The conferences have resulted in discussion which I think is valuable, to the extent of how it contributed in giving other educational and cultural academies an understanding of Indonesian students. In the ACAS 2019, the participants from Thailand, and Philippines shared how they can relate the characteristics of students and teachers in the current study to their own context.

Furthermore, the current study has shown how teachers may access students' voices through their cultures of learning. Although, as I have discussed in chapter 5, students in ritualized classrooms found it difficult to put forward their voices in the classroom, the teachers may look at ways of how to involve students more by giving them space or time to express their thoughts in the pedagogy of curriculum enactment. I have only involved in this study two universities from two regions in Indonesia, therefore, this study may be used as a guideline draft for teachers to understand their students' wants and needs in the classroom. The questionnaire, interview questions and observation notes in the current study may be used or developed by teachers in order to generate students' voices in the classroom.

### **6.3. Reflection of the Study**

As a researcher, I have reflected on several issues when conducting this research. Firstly, from the literature that I have used as references that culture is a vast concept and that it is fairly complicated to categorize people, in this case students, into certain categories of culture.

Furthermore, the implication of learning of cultures in Indonesia is that the way students learn in the classroom cannot be fully related to their cultural background. As a diverse country with multiple ethnicities and owning a long history of integrating the values and attitudes of other cultures into its own, Indonesia is among Asian countries that reflects a strong practice of power especially in the education context. Therefore, a tension can be seen when one is attempting to study on cultures of learning because it emphasises the importance of involving students' voices, while on the other hand, teacher

power is an aspect that cannot be taken for granted. This seem to signify a challenge on its own. However, it is worth considering that the teachers in the current study have showed an openness towards the student-centred learning. This could be a positive indication and starting point of how Indonesian students' metacognitive awareness can be developed through the recognition of their cultures of learning. In addition, I think it is important to implement learning cultures research on student-teachers because they can potentially gain more reflexive knowledge on different approaches to learning that is influenced by external factors, that in their future practice as a teacher, they may integrate it in the development of their own pedagogical practices and the development of the curriculum.

Secondly, during my fieldwork, I noticed that it is difficult to conduct a study using a purposive sampling because certain factors may hinder the involvement of the sample that fulfil the sampling criteria. The limitation of the study is mainly on the sample of the study, as mentioned in chapter 3 and chapter 4 I have only involved five universities from two different regions in Indonesia and the teachers who participated in the study did not represent the whole population. The students from each region were also dominated by one ethnicity. Therefore, this study is unlikely to represent the overall population of English Education teachers and students in Indonesia. In addition, in analysing the data, I have reflected on the use of different methods in conducting the research, in this case on the implementation of member checking which was not strong due to the difficulties I had in communicating with the participants in the study. The use of triangulation of data, especially the observation data, did not add a great deal to the quality of the research findings. I believe that this has to do with how I designed the instruments, which could have been sharper and more detailed in order to give different perspectives compared to the data gained from the questionnaire and interview.

Thirdly, the overall issue in conducting research that mainly focuses on perception is that the interpretations are heavily dependent on personal biases and idiosyncrasies. Therefore, one of the limitations is that this research project has not looked at the process of needs analysis which the teachers can practice in the classroom using the students' cultures of learning. In this way, there would be evidence of how cultures of learning can be practiced in the classroom.

#### **6.4. Suggestion for further Studies**

I recommend that further research takes a greater sample of teachers and students from other regions and ethnic groups in Indonesia, which will give a variety of sampling that is representative of Indonesia as a whole.

An experimental study can be used in further studies on cultures of learning and the pedagogy of curriculum enactment. Other researchers may experiment on how to use the cultures of learning framework in teachers' formal or informal needs analysis process and investigate how it may have an impact on the development of teachers' teaching and students' learning practices.

## APPENDICES

### Appendix A: Hofstede's Cultural Dimension

Hofstede's Culture Dimension in Teaching and Learning (1986, p.312-315)

COLLECTIVIST SOCIETIES	INDIVIDUALIST SOCIETIES
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• positive association in society with whatever is rooted in tradition'</li> <li>• the young should learn; adults cannot accept student role</li> <li>• students expect to learn how to do</li> <li>• individual students will only speak up in class when called upon personally by the teacher</li> <li>• individuals will only speak up in small groups</li> <li>• large classes split socially into smaller, cohesive subgroups based on particular criteria (e.g. ethnic affiliation)</li> <li>• formal harmony in learning situations should be maintained at all times (T-groups are taboo)</li> <li>• neither the teacher nor any student should ever be made to lose face</li> <li>• education is a way of gaining prestige in one's social environment and of joining a higher status group ("a ticket to a ride")</li> <li>• diploma certificates are important and displayed on walls</li> <li>• acquiring certificates, even though illegal means (cheating, corruption) is more important than acquiring competence</li> <li>• teachers are expected to give preferential treatment to some students (e.g. based on ethnic affiliation or on recommendation by an influential person)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• positive association in society with whatever is "new"</li> <li>• one is never too old to learn; "permanent education"</li> <li>• students expect to learn how to learn</li> <li>•</li> <li>• individual students will speak up in class in response to a general invitation by the teacher *individuals will speak up in large groups</li> <li>• subgroupings in class vary from one situation to the next based on universal criteria (e.g. the task "at hand")</li> <li>• confrontation in learning situations can be salutary: conflicts can be brought into the open</li> <li>• face-consciousness is weak</li> <li>• education is a way of Improving one's economic worth and self-respect based on ability and competence</li> <li>• diploma certificates have little symbolic value</li> <li>• acquiring competence is more important than acquiring certificates</li> <li>• teachers are expected to be strictly impartial</li> </ul>
LARGE POWER DISTANCE SOCIETIES	SMALL POWER DISTANCE SOCIETIES
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Stress on personal 'wisdom' which is transferred in the relationship with a particular teacher (guru)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• stress on impersonal "truth" which can in principle be obtained from any competent person</li> </ul>

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• a teacher merits the respect of his/her students'</li> <li>• teacher-centred education (premium on order)</li> <li>• students expect teacher to initiate communication</li> <li>• students expect teacher to outline paths to follow</li> <li>• students speak up in class only when invited by the teacher</li> <li>• teacher is never contradicted nor publicly criticized</li> <li>• effectiveness of learning related to excellence of the teacher</li> <li>• respect for teachers is also shown outside class</li> <li>• in teacher/student conflicts, parents are expected to side with the teacher</li> <li>• older teachers are more respected than younger teachers</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• a teacher should respect the independence of his/her students</li> <li>• student-centred education (premium on initiative)</li> <li>• teacher expects students to initiate communication</li> <li>• teacher expects students to find their own paths</li> <li>• students may speak up spontaneously in class</li> <li>• students allowed to contradict or criticize teacher</li> <li>• effectiveness of learning related to amount of two-way communication in class</li> <li>• outside class, teachers are treated as equals</li> <li>• in teacher/student conflicts, parents are expected to side with the student</li> <li>• younger teachers are more liked than older teachers</li> </ul>
<b>STRONG UNCERTAINTY AVOIDANCE SOCIETIES</b>	<b>WEAK UNCERTAINTY AVOIDANCE SOCIETIES</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• students feel comfortable in structured learning situations: precise objectives, detailed assignments, strict timetables</li> <li>• teachers are expected to have all the answers</li> <li>• a good teacher uses academic language'</li> <li>• students are rewarded for accuracy in problem solving</li> <li>• teachers are allowed to behave emotionally (and so are students)</li> <li>• teachers interpret intellectual disagreement as personal disloyalty</li> <li>• teachers consider themselves experts who cannot learn anything from lay parents-and parents agree</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Students feel comfortable in unstructured learning situations: vague objectives, broad assignments, no timetables</li> <li>• teachers are allowed to say "I don't know"</li> <li>• a good teacher uses plain language</li> <li>• students are rewarded for innovative approaches to problem solving</li> <li>• teachers are expected to suppress emotions (and so are students)</li> <li>• teachers interpret intellectual disagreement as a stimulating exercise</li> <li>• teachers seek parents' ideas</li> </ul>
<b>MASCULINE SOCIETIES</b>	<b>FEMININE SOCIETIES</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• teachers openly praise good students</li> <li>• teachers use best students as the norm</li> <li>• system rewards students' academic performance</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• teachers avoid openly praising students</li> <li>• teachers use average student as the norm</li> </ul>

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• a student's failure in school is a severe blow to his/her self-image and may in extreme cases lead to suicide</li> <li>• students admire brilliance in teachers</li> <li>• students compete with each other in class</li> <li>• students try to make themselves visible</li> <li>• corporal punishment occasionally considered salutary</li> <li>• students choose academic subjects in view of career opportunities</li> <li>• male students avoid traditionally feminine academic subjects</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• system rewards students' social adaptation</li> <li>• a student's failure in school is a relatively minor accident</li> <li>• students admire friendliness in teachers</li> <li>• students practice mutual solidarity</li> <li>• students try to behave modestly</li> <li>• corporal punishment severely rejected</li> <li>• students choose academic subjects in view of intrinsic interest</li> <li>• male students may choose traditionally feminine academic subjects</li> </ul>
--	---

## **Appendix B: Participant Information Sheet**

### **INFORMATION SHEET FOR TEACHER**

#### **Indonesian Cultures of Learning and the Construction and Enactment of Higher Education Language Curriculum**

You are being invited to take part in my PhD project about the Indonesian cultures of learning and how it influences the construction and enactment of curriculum. Before you decide on whether to take part, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully before you decide whether or not you wish to take part. You are welcome to discuss this project with others if you wish before you make your decision. Please ask me (email: pmah1@leicester.ac.uk) if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information.

#### **Purpose of research**

This is a part of my PhD project that aims at discovering Indonesian students' cultures of learning and how teachers consider it in developing a language curriculum. The focus is on the needs analysis process where teachers gather information about their learners by identifying their expectations, attitudes, beliefs, values, perceptions, preferences, experiences and behaviours with regards to teaching and learning. Involving teachers and students' voices in the language curriculum development will bring a new insight into the development of language curriculum in Indonesia.

This project will be conducted in three phases, consisting of questionnaire, interview and observation.

#### **Participant of research**

Three teachers and students have been selected to participate in this project. You, as the teacher, is the one that teaches the second to third year student at the English Education study program.

It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do decide to take part you will be given this information sheet to keep (and be asked to sign a consent form) and you can still withdraw at any time without it affecting any benefits that you are entitled to in any way. You do not have to give a reason.

If you wish to take part in this project, I will need your time to participate in an interview (approximately 20 minutes) and record one meeting of your classroom teaching and learning activity. On the interview, I will ask questions related to your view on students' approaches to English learning and relate that to your teaching practices. The classroom observation will mainly focus on the interaction between teacher and students, general attitudes to learning and classroom management. The audio and/or video recordings of your activities made during this research will be used only for analysis and for illustration in conference presentations and lectures. No other use will be made of them without your written permission, and no one outside the project will be allowed access to the original recordings. Your names and identifying features about your institution will not be revealed, thus will be identified only by codes.

However, there are no immediate benefits for those people participating in this project, it is hoped that this work will only contribute to the development of English Learning and teaching in Indonesia.

All the information that we collect about you during the course of the research will be kept strictly confidential. You will not be able to be identified in any reports or publications.

Finally, thank you for your willingness to read this information sheet.

Researcher: Priscilla Maria Assis Hornay

University of Leicester

September, 2017



## **INFORMATION SHEET FOR STUDENT**

### **Indonesian Cultures of Learning and the Construction and Enactment of Higher Education Language Curriculum**

You are being invited to take part in my PhD project about the Indonesian cultures of learning and how it influences the construction and enactment of curriculum. Before you decide on whether to take part, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully before you decide whether or not you wish to take part. You are welcome to discuss this project with others if you wish before you make your decision. Please ask me (email: pmahl@leicester.ac.uk) if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information.

#### **Purpose of research**

This is a part of my PhD project that aims at discovering Indonesian students' cultures of learning and how teachers consider it in developing a language curriculum. The focus is on the needs analysis process where teachers gather information about their learners by identifying their expectations, attitudes, beliefs, values, perceptions, preferences, experiences and behaviours with regards to teaching and learning. Involving teachers and students' voices in the language curriculum development will bring a new insight into the development of language curriculum in Indonesia.

This project will be conducted in three phases, consisting of questionnaire, interview and observation.

#### **Participant of research**

Three teachers and 15 students have been selected to participate in this project. You are selected based on the following criteria:

1. Originally come from Indonesia with different backgrounds
2. Students of English Education study program
3. Students who are in mid to late teens, and were old enough to provide some personal insights

#### 4. Students in second to third year study

It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do decide to take part you will be given this information sheet to keep (and be asked to sign a consent form) and you can still withdraw at any time without it affecting any benefits that you are entitled to in any way. You do not have to give a reason.

If you wish to take part in this project, I will need your time to fill in a questionnaire (approximately 30 minutes) and participate in an interview (approximately 20 minutes) and record one meeting of your classroom teaching and learning activity. On the questionnaire, I will ask your information about your approach in learning English. On the interview, I will ask questions related to your view on the approaches to English learning and how it affect your learning. The classroom observation will mainly focus on the interaction between teacher and students, general attitudes to learning and classroom management. The audio and/or video recordings of your activities made during this research will be used only for analysis and for illustration in conference presentations and lectures. No other use will be made of them without your written permission, and no one outside the project will be allowed access to the original recordings. Your names and identifying features about your institution will not be revealed, thus will only be identified only by codes.

However, there are no immediate benefits for those people participating in this project, it is hoped that this work will only contribute to the development of English Learning and teaching in Indonesia.

All the information that we collect about you during the course of the research will be kept strictly confidential. You will not be able to be identified in any reports or publications.

Finally, thank you for your willingness to read this information sheet.

Researcher: Priscilla Maria Assis Hornay

University of Leicester

September, 2017

## Appendix C: Consent Form

### CONSENT FORM

#### CONSENT FORM FOR PROJECT ON INDONESIAN STUDENTS' CULTURES OF LEARNING AND THE CONSTRUCTION AND ENACTMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION LANGUAGE CURRICULUM

Please tick the appropriate boxes	Yes	No
<b><i>Taking Part</i></b>		
I have read and understood the project information sheet dated September 2017		
I have been given the opportunity to ask questions about the project.		
I agree to take part in the project. Taking part in the project will include being interviewed and recorded (audio or video)		
I understand that my taking part is voluntary; I can withdraw from the study at any time and I do not have to give any reasons for why I no longer want to take part.		
<b><i>Use of the information I provide for this project only</i></b>		
I understand my personal details such as phone number and address will not be revealed to people outside the project.		
I understand that my name and identifying features of the university will not be revealed, thus will be identified only by codes		
I understand that my words may be quoted in publications, reports, web pages, and other research outputs.		
<b><i>Use of the information I provide beyond this project</i></b>		
I agree for the data I provide to be archived at the researchers' dissertation		
I understand that other genuine researchers will have access to this data only if they agree to preserve the confidentiality of the information as requested in this form.		
I understand that other genuine researchers may use my words in publications, reports, web pages, and other research outputs, only if they agree to preserve the confidentiality of the information as requested in this form.		
<b><i>So we can use the information you provide legally</i></b>		
I agree to assign the copyright I hold in any materials related to this project to Priscilla Maria Assis Hornay.		

Name of participant..... Signature .....Date  
 .....

Researcher: Priscilla Maria Assis Hornay      Signature ..... Date  
 .....

## **Appendix D: Letter of Permission to Conduct Research**

Perihal : Permohonan Ijin Penelitian

Leicester, 24 Juli 2017

Kepada :

Yth.

Di Tempat

Dengan Hormat,

Yang bertanda tangan dibawah ini,

Nama : Priscilla Maria Assis Hornay, S.Pd., MA., M.Ed

Program Studi : Pendidikan

Universitas : University of Leicester

Judul Thesis : Indonesian Cultures of Learning and the Construction and Enactment of  
Higher Education Language Curriculum

Dosen Pembimbing I: DR. Hugh Busher

Dosen Pembimbing II: Prof. Chris Wilkins

Bersama ini saya memohon kepada Bapak/Ibu untuk dapat kiranya memberikan Surat Ijin Penelitian terhitung dari September 2017 – November 2017 berlokasi di Jurusan Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris, xxxx demi kelancaran proses penyelesaian Thesis saya tersebut.

Demikian surat ini saya sampaikan, atas segala perhatian dan kebijaksanaannya, saya mengucapkan banyak terima kasih.

Hormat saya,



Priscilla Maria Assis Hornay, S.Pd.,MA.,M.Ed

### **Tembusan:**

Kepada Yth. Kepala Jurusan Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris

Kepada Yth. Kepala Humas Kantor Urusan Internasional dan Kemitraan

## Appendix E: Questionnaire for Students

### Students' Approaches to learning English

The purpose of this research is to discover Indonesian students' cultures of learning and how teachers consider it in developing a language curriculum. The focus is on when teachers gather information about their learners' expectations, attitudes, beliefs, values, perceptions, preferences, experiences and behaviors with regards to teaching and learning. This questionnaire seeks to find out the students of English Education study program's approaches to learning English.

This questionnaire will take approximately 30 minutes. We will appreciate if you could answer all the questions. Your response will only be used for research purpose and will remain confidential. If you do not want to participate, please hand this questionnaire back to your teacher, however, if you are willing to, you are hereby giving your consent to use this data in the researcher's dissertation.

#### Section A: Your Identity

1. Date of Birth (DD/MM/YY)

--	--	--	--	--	--

2. Gender

- ☐ Female  
☐ Male

3. Which ethnic groups do you belong to?

--

4. What type of high school did you attend?

- ☐ Public Senior High School (*SMA Negeri*)  
☐ Private High School (*SMA Swasta*)  
☐ Vocational High School (*SMK*)

5. Which and where did you attend the following schooling?

Schooling Level	Name of School	Location
Elementary ( <i>Sekolah Dasar</i> )		
Junior High ( <i>SMP</i> )		
Senior High ( <i>SMA</i> )		

## Section B: Your Cultures of Learning English

6. Give some examples of learning

7. Give some examples of successful learning

8. Please indicate how far you agree and disagree with each of the 15 statements below:

	Agree a lot	Agree a little	Disagree a little	Disagree a lot
<b>I learn English</b>				
to become an English teacher	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
to get a good job in the future	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
to prepare myself to study abroad	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
be able to communicate	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
to improve myself	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>A good teacher</b>				
masters his/her subject area	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
caring and helpful	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
humorous	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
explains clearly	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
serious	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
use creative and effective teaching methods	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>A good student</b>				
active in class	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
respects and obey teachers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
learns with others or sociable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
studies independently	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

has a high motivation to study	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
has a good character	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>Teacher – student relationship</b>				
Educator – learner	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Parent – child	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Friend – friend	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	<b>Agree a lot</b>	<b>Agree a little</b>	<b>Disagree a little</b>	<b>Disagree a lot</b>
<b>I practice listening best by</b>				
listening to English language song/music	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
watching English language movies	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
listening to English language CD's on textbook	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
listen to other people speak	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>I practice speaking best by</b>				
speaking with native speakers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
speaking in English with other people	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
speaking in the classroom	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
reading aloud	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
talking to myself in English language	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
repeating what the teacher says	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>I practice reading best by</b>				
reading passages on textbook	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
reading novels or other literary works	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
reading magazines	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
reading academic articles	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>I practice writing best by</b>				
writing based on the textbook	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
writing diary/ short stories	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
writing text assigned by my teacher	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
writing on social medias	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
writing letters to friend	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
		<b>Agree a little</b>	<b>Disagree a little</b>	<b>Disagree</b>

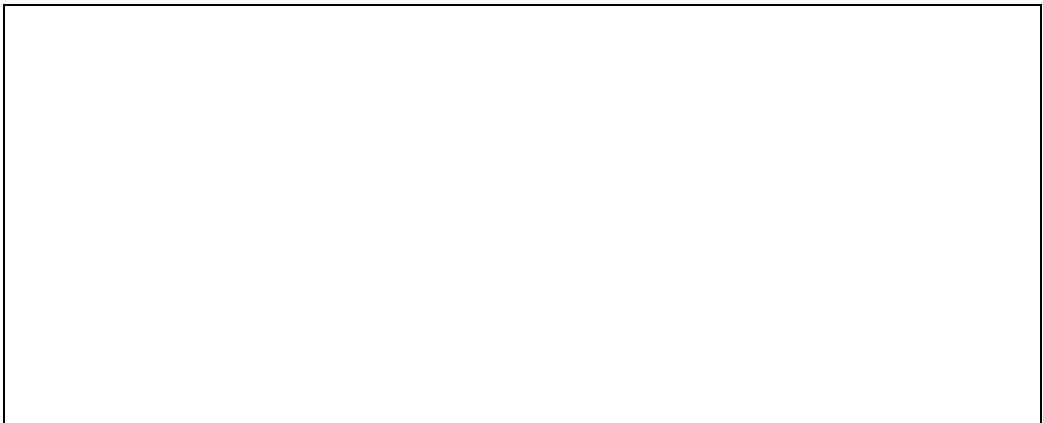
	<b>Agree a lot</b>			<b>a lot</b>
<b>I learn grammar best by</b>				
memorizing grammatical formulas	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
communication	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
doing exercises on textbooks	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>I practice pronunciation best with</b>				
teacher	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
native speakers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
peers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
CD/DVD	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
dictionary	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>I memorize English words by</b>				
using word list that I made	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
using textbook	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>What mostly influences my learning of English</b>				
parents/social environment	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
educational background: the school I attended	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
teachers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
self-exploration	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>I like to ask questions in the classroom</b>				
clarify my misunderstanding about the material	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
the teacher always provides helpful answer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
to be active in the classroom	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
to impress my teacher	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	<b>Agree a lot</b>	<b>Agree a little</b>	<b>Disagree a little</b>	<b>Disagree a lot</b>
<b>I do not like to ask questions in the classroom</b>				
I'm afraid of being mocked by my friends	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I do not want to interrupt the teacher	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
my English is not good enough	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>English textbooks are</b>				
very helpful in learning English	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
not helpful in learning English	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



9. How do you prefer to learn English in the classroom?



10. What are the challenges in improving your English skills?



Thank you for answering this questionnaire.

**If you wish to attend the interview, please indicate your name and contact number.**

Name:

Contact number:

## Appendix F: SPSS Output of Tabular Analysis Sample

### Listening Frequencies

		Responses		Percent of Cases
		N	Percent	
Listening <sup>a</sup>	Listening to Songs	101	30.5%	84.2%
	Watching Movies	95	28.7%	79.2%
	Using CD in Textbooks	50	15.1%	41.7%
	Listening to Other People Speak	85	25.7%	70.8%
Total		331	100.0%	275.8%

a. Dichotomy group tabulated at value 4.

### Speaking Frequencies

		Responses		Percent of Cases
		N	Percent	
Speaking <sup>a</sup>	Speaking with Native Speaker	64	16.0%	53.3%
	Speaking with Other People	84	21.1%	70.0%
	Speaking in the Classroom	76	19.0%	63.3%
	Speaking by Reading Aloud	49	12.3%	40.8%
	Speaking by Talking to Self	78	19.5%	65.0%
	Speaking by Repeating Teacher	48	12.0%	40.0%
Total		399	100.0%	332.5%

a. Dichotomy group tabulated at value 4.

### Reading Frequencies

		Responses		Percent of Cases
		N	Percent	
Reading <sup>a</sup>	Reading from Passages on Textbook	68	26.7%	63.0%
	Reading Literary Works	84	32.9%	77.8%
	Reading Magazines	54	21.2%	50.0%
	Reading Academic Papers	49	19.2%	45.4%
Total		255	100.0%	236.1%

a. Dichotomy group tabulated at value 4.

### Writing Frequencies

		Responses		Percent of Cases
		N	Percent	
Writing <sup>a</sup>	Writing Practice using Textbook	61	18.0%	52.1%
	Writing Diary or Short Stories	86	25.4%	73.5%
	Writing Assigned by the Teacher	76	22.5%	65.0%
	Writing on Social Medias	64	18.9%	54.7%
	Writing Letter to Friend	51	15.1%	43.6%
Total		338	100.0%	288.9%

a. Dichotomy group tabulated at value 4.

### Good\_Teacher Frequencies

		Responses		
		N	Percent	Percent of Cases
Good_Teacher <sup>a</sup>	Masters Subject Area	95	18.3%	75.4%
	Caring and helpful	107	20.6%	84.9%
	Humorous	56	10.8%	44.4%
	Explains Clearly	111	21.3%	88.1%
	Serious	38	7.3%	30.2%
	Creative	113	21.7%	89.7%
Total		520	100.0%	412.7%

a. Dichotomy group tabulated at value 4.

### Good\_Student Frequencies

		Responses		Percent of Cases
		N	Percent	
Good_Student <sup>a</sup>	Active in Class	84	16.4%	68.9%
	Respects and Obey Teacher	94	18.4%	77.0%
	Sociable	96	18.8%	78.7%
	Studies Independently	45	8.8%	36.9%
	High Motivation	104	20.3%	85.2%
	Good Character	89	17.4%	73.0%
Total		512	100.0%	419.7%

a. Dichotomy group tabulated at value 4.

## Appendix G: Observation Note Sheet

### Observation Sheet

This observation sheet will list teachers and students teaching and learning process in the classroom based on the points resulted from the interview.

This observation checklist will focus on:

- Teaching Method and Content (teach based on what has been prepared) coded as **TM**
- Teacher and Student Interaction (teacher student relationship) coded as **TSsI**
- Students' Need (how students need are handled by teacher) coded as **SsN**
- General Attitudes to Learning (students' interest, motivation, participation, etc) coded as **GA**
- Classroom Management (group work, giving and asking questions, etc) coded as **CM**

---

Name of Institution :

Class :

Teacher :

Time	Fact	Interpretation

## **Appendix H: Interview Form for Teachers and Students**

### **Interview Questions for Teachers**

This interview will seek to find out teachers' perception on students' cultures of learning based on the questionnaire filled by the students. The time duration for the interview is 15 minutes.

#### **Teachers' views about learning and teaching:**

5. What is learning in your opinion?

#### **Teachers' perspective on students' belief about teacher and student quality and relationship:**

6. What do you think a good student should be?
7. What do you think a good teacher should be?
8. What do you think the student want from the teacher that may help them to learn?
  - *How do you view your relationship with your students?*  
(This question will be adapted based on students' questionnaire)

#### **Teachers' perception on students' culture in learning English:**

9. What do you think is the most effective language learning for your context?  
(What kind of method that you often use in teaching your class? I noticed you use this method (ie. Presentation, roleplay, video), why do you think it's effective for this class?)
10. What do you think about students' beliefs on a good teacher and student and their relationship with you?
11. What is your opinion about aspects that influence students learning?
  - *Their learning preferences*
  - *The challenges they face in learning English*
  - *Their view on textbook (do you use textbook often?)*
12. What is your opinion about students' not wanting to ask questions in the classroom?  
(This question will be adapted based on students' questionnaire) (One or two asked questions but the same one)

#### **Students' cultures of learning and curriculum design:**

13. What influence your decision about what and how to teach?
  - *Do you always teach based on what you have prepared?*
14. How do you consider students' preferences and needs in deciding what and how to teach?
  - *How do you analyse or identify students' needs?*
15. What is your opinion about involving students' voices in deciding what and how to teach?
  - *Will you consider involving students' voices in deciding what and how to teach?*
  - *Why?(Do the teaching learning process happened based on what you planned?) Is there anything you'd like to change?)*

## Interview Questions for Students

This interview will seek to find out the influence of students' cultures of learning on their classroom learning based on the questionnaire filled by the students. The time duration for the interview is 30 minutes.

### Students' view on learning English:

9. How do you prefer to learn English?
  - *Why this is more preferable?*
10. What are the challenges in learning English?
  - *Why you consider this as a challenge?*

### The influence of cultures of learning in students' classroom learning:

11. What methods do your teachers use?
  - *Which do you like?*
  - *Why do you like them?*
12. Do you feel comfortable with the teaching methods and techniques applied by the teacher?
  - *Why is this kind of teaching comfortable?*
13. Do you ask question in the class? Why?
14. What is your opinion about the materials teacher use in the classroom, does it suit you?
  - *Why does this suit or not suit you?*
15. Is there any group work or group discussion in your class?
  - *Is it facilitating your language competency?*
16. How do you want to be treated by your teacher?
  - *Out of lesson work, how is your relationship with your teacher?*
17. To what extent do you feel involved in constructing culture of the classroom with the teacher?
  - *To what extent do you feel that your voice is being heard in the classroom?*
18. Do you have any suggestion for your teacher about how to make students involve?

## Appendix I: Sample of NVIVO Coding

**Name:** Teacher View\_Teacher actual views of cultures of Learning

<Internals\\Participant 31\_T\_ELL\_UN1> - § 5 references coded [3.40% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.16% Coverage

it's about taking part of the process.

Reference 2 - 0.85% Coverage

Learning is not only about the students doing thing that you ask them to do. You need also to allow them to make some decision about what they would like to learn and how they going to learn in the class.

Reference 3 - 0.34% Coverage

to give them what they actually need, maybe not necessarily what they actually want

Reference 4 - 0.65% Coverage

to me learning is also or should have a bit of autonomy in there, in which learners, you know, have a say what they want to do and how they going to do it.

Reference 5 - 1.40% Coverage

I mean to make sure that student are actually learning things, that they are doing things in the class that they don't only, you know, attend and receive information and then leave the class or return home but there is a changing mindset, there is a changing of attitude or behaviour between before coming to the class and after the class.

<Internals\\Participant 32\_T\_JA\_UN1> - § 1 reference coded [0.53% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.53% Coverage

Learning is an effort to understand something

<Internals\\Participant 33\_T\_SIT\_UN1> - § 6 references coded [4.47% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.91% Coverage

my opinion about learning, general speaking, learning is the kind of process of acquiring knowledge, it happens to everyone, formally and informally.

Reference 2 - 0.88% Coverage

So formally usually they learn things from school and informally usually they learn something outside the formal context of formal institutions.

Reference 3 - 0.22% Coverage

So usually we call it as autodidact.

Reference 4 - 0.14% Coverage

if they can comprehend

Reference 5 - 1.70% Coverage

learning is a long-life process, right, lifelong learning, so not only ended here in the college but in fact this kind of learning, they still can continue on their own after their college years and mostly what benefit them most is things that they can construct on their own.

Reference 6 - 0.63% Coverage

Q: So do you realize that the students face these challenges especially in your class?

A: ah yes yes

<Internals\\Participant 34\_T\_ELV\_UN2> - § 2 references coded [1.61% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.18% Coverage

Learning is first is finding knowledge

Reference 2 - 1.43% Coverage

The second is collaboration. Collaboration means that you cannot work alone, you work with others. You work with--, you need other things to help you. Like, yeah, you need people, you can learn from people, you can learn from book, you can learn from, yeah, you use technology something like that.

<Internals\\Participant 35\_T\_JO\_UN2> - § 4 references coded [1.38% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.23% Coverage

To me learning is the process of understanding something

Reference 2 - 0.25% Coverage

then try to apply the thing that we have already understood.

Reference 3 - 0.47% Coverage

at last at the final result of the learning is actually helping other people with the things that we already know.

Reference 4 - 0.44% Coverage

Yes, that's actually learning process. I think there are steps that every learner should actually take.



<Internals\\Participant 36\_T\_PA\_UN2> - § 1 reference coded [0.58% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.58% Coverage

Learning is when someone learn or study knowledge from someone else, from other people

## Appendix J: Demographic Analysis

### Teacher Participant Demographic Analysis

Teacher Demographic Variable (University 1)	N	Percentage
Gender (n=3) Male Female	0 3	0 100
Age (n=3) 27-32 33-38 Over 49	0 2 1	0 67 33
Highest Academic Qualification (n=3) Master's	3	100
Teaching Experience in Years (n=3) 5-10 11-16 Over 17	0 2 1	0 67 33
Teacher Demographic Variable (University 2)	N	Percentage
Gender (n=5) Male Female	3 2	60 40
Age (n=5) 27-32 33-38 Over 49	1 3 1	20 60 20
Highest Academic Qualification (n=5) Master's Doctoral	4 1	80 20
Teaching Experience in Years (n=5) 5-10 11-16 Over 17	1 3 1	20 60 20
Teacher Demographic Variable (University 3)	N	Percentage
Gender (n=3) Male Female	1 2	33 67

Age (n=3) 27-32 33-38 Over 49	0 1 2	0 33 67
Highest Academic Qualification (n=3) Master's Doctoral	2 1	67 33
Teaching Experience in Years (n=3) 5-10 11-16 Over 17	1 0 2	33 0 67
Teacher Demographic Variable (University 4)	N	Percentage
Gender (n=7) Male Female	3 4	43 57
Age (n=7) 27-32 33-38 Over 49	1 5 1	14 72 14
Highest Academic Qualification (n=7) Master's Doctoral	5 2	72 28
Teaching Experience in Years (n=7) 5-10 11-16 Over 17	1 5 1	14 72 14
Teacher Demographic Variable (University 5)		
Gender (n=3) Male Female	3 0	100 0
Age (n=3) 27-32 33-38 Over 49	1 1 1	33 33 33

Highest Academic Qualification (n=3) Master's	3	100
Teaching Experience in Years (n=3) 5-10 11-16 Over 17	2 1 0	67 33 0

#### Student Participant Demographic Analysis

Demographic Variable (Institution 1)	N	Percentage
Gender (n=55) Male Female Missing	6 48 1	10.9 87.3 1.8
Age (n=55) 18-23 24-29 Over 30 Missing	54 0 0 1	98.2 0 0 1.8
Ethnicity (n=55) Javanese Sumatranese Missing	51 3 1	92.7 5.5 1.8
Type of High School (n=55) Public Private Vocational Missing	51 2 1 1	92.7 3.6 1.8 1.8
Status (n=55) Second Year Third Year Missing	15 39 1	27.7 71 1.8
Demographic Variable (Institution 2)		
Gender (n=72) Male Female	23 49	31.9 68.1
Age (n=72) 18-23 24-29 Over 30	64 5 3	88.9 6.9 4.2

Ethnicity (n=72)		
Floresnese	34	47.2
Timorese	23	31.9
Others	15	20.9
Type of High School (n=72)		
Public	39	54.2
Private	24	33.3
Vocational	9	12.5
Status (n=72)		
Second Year	44	61.1
Third Year	28	38.9

### Appendix K: SPSS Output Of T-Test of Two Universities Sample

Comparison of Two Universities' Approaches to Learning English (  $n_{U1} = 72$ ,  $n_{U2} = 54$  )

Items	Mean		Std. Deviation		Sig. (2-tailed)
	U1	U2	U1	U2	
Listening to songs	3.78	3.78	.451	.502	1.000
Speaking with other people	3.68	3.56	.577	.572	.229
Reading literary works	3.53	3.74	.627	.483	.040
Writing diary or short stories	3.63	3.59	.615	.630	.773
Practice from textbook exercises	3.72	3.72	.537	.492	1.000
Practice with teacher	3.76	3.39	.428	.596	.000
Practicing using word list	3.68	3.43	.526	.742	.034

Comparison of Two Universities' Views on a Good Teacher (  $n_{U1} = 72$ ,  $n_{U2} = 54$  )

Items	Mean		Std. Deviation		Sig. (2-tailed)
	U1	U2	U1	U2	
Masters subject area	3.68	3.56	.577	.572	.229
Caring and helpful	3.79	3.93	.409	.264	.037
Humorous	3.25	3.46	.707	.605	.078
Explains clearly	3.22	3.09	.826	.708	.356
Serious	3.18	3.04	.793	.643	.279
Creative	3.89	3.91	.316	.293	.738

Comparison of Two Universities' Views on a Good Student (  $n_{U1} = 72$ ,  $n_{U2} = 54$  )

Items	Mean		Std. Deviation		Sig. (2-tailed)
	U1	U2	U1	U2	
Active in class	3.81	3.37	.399	.681	.000
Respects and obey teacher	3.76	3.67	.456	.583	.297
Sociable	3.74	3.76	.444	.512	.787
Studies independently	3.22	3.09	.826	.708	.356
High motivation	3.79	3.81	.529	.392	.787

Good character	3.69	3.61	.642	.492	.429
----------------	------	------	------	------	------

Comparison of Two Universities Views on Asking Questions (  $n_{U1} = 72$ ,  $n_{U2} = 54$ )

Items	Mean		Std. Deviation		Sig. (2-tailed)
	U1	U2	U1	U2	
Clarify misunderstanding	3.76	3.76	.459	.547	.959
To get helpful answer	3.68	3.56	.577	.572	.229
To be active in class	3.36	2.93	.737	.866	.003
To impress the teacher	2.53	2.22	.993	.861	.073

## Appendix L: Teacher Reflection

### TEACHER REFLECTION UNIVERSITY 1

#### Teacher's Reflection

**Subject** : English for Instructional Purposes

**Class** : C

**Teacher C**

Today was about opening and closing, especially closing as we hadn't talked about it in the last meeting.

We had Ibu Priscillia from Kupang in the class, Welcome, Ibu.

First, I reminded the students about last two week topic and the simulation they had in the class. Then I told them what to do today. I also mentioned the rancangan tugas for tomorrow morning.

Starting, I gave them a two-page worksheet containing 3 tasks. Since we talked about opening a lesson before, I went directly to the dialog in the first task. I asked volunteers to be the teacher, a student and the class. The class pointed at Ulfa for first performance as teacher. Next, April volunteered herself as the teacher. The last volunteer was Fauzi. They stood up and read the script as teacher. Reading aloud the same script, **the three students had good clarity and volume but need to vary their intonation.** It seemed that they needed more time to understand the situation and the teacher's feeling when speaking. So when the teacher was supposed to sound a bit angry, they did not sound so. Another thing is the use of pause. **I mentioned that pausing can be an effective way to not only gain attention but also emphasize meaning.**

Then I asked them to work in pairs discussing the questions following the dialog. **The questions are about identifying language functions and purposes in using the expressions in the dialog. Ss seemed to have little problem with it. I pinpointed at the expressions used to check students' understanding of the instruction the teacher gave. I mentioned that instead of simply asking 'do you understand?', teacher can ask students to repeat the instruction s/he just gave.**

After that, I asked students to again read aloud dialog 2, now about closing a lesson. Again I asked some volunteers and Retno, April and I forgot who the other is were performing as teacher, standing up in front of their friends. Fluency is not a problem at all, but intonation and tone are the areas to work on.

Then the students were working on the following tasks that is to number the expressions that have similar purposes as those used in the dialog in the same order as they were found in the dialog. It was quick and a student read her answers which were confirmed by everyone else.

The next part is brief simulation.

I wanted to make sure that in every meeting students have to have some sort of simulation. So I prepared 4 different situations, where students find teacher's actions (numbered) in a context. The numbers indicate different language functions and expressions they have to use when role-playing.

So, I made 4 groups, each of which has four different situations. Taking turn, students were role-playing as a teacher and the other members helped by role-playing as students (with

different characters like shy, trouble-maker, etc). **The simulation went well, I guess. They may be enjoyed being drama queens and kings. Some have natural teacher look and voice, some others need to even build their confidence. But putting them all in group has lessen the anxiety. I was just glad that the composition of each group is quite good. The most-active students were distributed evenly in different groups, making the simulations joyous and participatory. Even some groups finished earlier and joined other groups.**

Later, after all groups finished role-playing, I asked the student to return to their chair and highlighted the last situation (D), about ending a lesson. I asked students what they will say as a teacher according to the situation card. For example, I asked every student to say 'goodbye' in different expressions from bye-bye, until then, so long and see you next week. It turned out that they need to read for more variations of expressions from the textbooks.

Finally, I talked about the tomorrow's class activities – what they should do. Before ending the lesson, I responded to students' request for extra time in completing their classroom observation assignment. Then I ended the lesson.

Teaching log

Reviewing opening and closing a lesson

Students read aloud dialogs about opening and closing a lesson and discussed questions that follow

Ss then had one by one simulation in group and received feedback afterward.

Ss were introduced to the topic for next meeting - questioning.



## TEACHER REFLECTION UNIVERSITY 2

### Reflection

The course's name is 'Introduction to Research Methodology'. There are more than 40 students attending the class. The time duration for the class is 100 minutes. I divided the today's meeting into two parts i.e. Student short presentation and lecture on 'Literature Review'.

Student Short Presentation.

**As in previous week's meeting I gave a lecture on 'research design' where I introduced to the students how to plan components of research that need to be taken into account, in today's class I wanted them to show how far they understand the topic.** They were asked to form groups and each group had to prepare a research design to present today. However, none of the groups was ready for that. I was disappointed but there was a lesson to learn from it. **I should have told them that if they are not ready they should remind me two or three days in advance and it will not affect my lesson plan for today.** Nevertheless, I want them to learn how to communicate their problems.

My lecture on 'Literature Review'.

**Because of the delay of the first part, I continued the class with my lecture. As usual, I encourage students' participation in the classroom. I gave them some time to raise questions or comments regarding previous week's topic. What I found was only few students could voluntarily raise questions or comments. Other students would do if I prompt them. The rest just hid themselves in the crowd. I don't want to be too forceful but I think prompting is a good strategy to encourage students' participation in the classroom. Or I should ask them to prepare their comments or questions at home. The comments or questions will be valued.**

## Appendix M : Teachers' Interview Transcript from the first and second Data Collection

Teacher C_U1 from 1 <sup>st</sup> Data collection on October 11, 2017	Teacher H_U2 from 2 <sup>nd</sup> data collection on November 4, 2019
<p>Question : what is learning in your opinion?</p> <p>Answer : Well, actually it's about taking part of the process. Learning is not only about the students doing thing that you ask them to do. You need also to allow them to make some decision about what they would like to learn and how they going to learn in the class. And as teacher our job mainly is actually to facilitate, to give them what they actually need, maybe not necessarily what they actually want. Because what they want may not represent what they really need to achieve the competence that they are required to. But, yeah to me learning is also or should have a bit of autonomy in there, in which learners, you know, have a say what they want to do and how they going to do it.</p> <p>Question : What is a successfull learning then according to you?</p> <p>Answer : Well, there are many indicators, yeah. But usually in the class I love to ask my student whether they are first happy with what they do, what they did in the class, and whether they think what they think useful to them. Of course giving the learning objective I mention before or given the, you know, the competence is that they have read from the syllabus or from the curriculum. So, yeah maybe the simplest way of know whether the learning has been very successfull on student point of view. But to me it's about not only transferring the material but also making them see what I want them see. Like the important of learning something. Sometime it's very easy for my student to simply receive what ever the lecturers telling them without actually knowing why they have to learn those thing in the first place. And making this connection strongly established in the very beginning before they even learn anything, I think it's very important. Because once the student see that whatever they learning are meaningfull to them, I guess they will be more motivated in learning it and they will take some, you know, some level, be more responsible in their learning. I mean they know why they have to do this, and if they know the goal then they can decide what they want to do in learning and how they going to do it, not simply taking what we give. I thinks that, yeah, cutly what makes a learning successful. Of course an addition of meeting a lot document requirment, you know, you have to have some form of asessment at the end of semester or in the mid of semester. Or you should've kind of prove that you are doing some progress asessment or classroom asessment, you know. And of course attendance is also an indicator in my university. It is a must for a teacher to teach for required number of meetings and for the student to attend required number of meeting too. And that can be one indicator for sucessful learning. That's why I told you that there are many variables or many perspectives. Yeah.</p>	<p>Question: the students think that a good teacher is someone who is creative and humorous. How do you respond to this?</p> <p>Answer: Strongly agree. Because if we want our student to be creative, we must creative as well. It's kind of model for them. And in other words, a teacher when we--, of course in learning we want to develop our student competency holistically not only a part. So as we know that in order to know student's competencies, or let say language learning, when they do performances or when they do something and then create something, even as we know in [00:01:36] creating. Yeah, creating is the top cognitive that we should develop. So in my opinion creative is a must. So teacher must be creative, because creative in term of can be start from planning the lesson, teaching materials, and the activities in the classroom. And then even creative to create the student to be creative [Laugh]. Because some how we know that the student very slow in motion or sometimes low motivated. Even sometimes don't know what to do. So they should see or have, what can I say, they know the model on how to be creative. And then we have to provide them an ample of examples of creativities. And then so they know. If they have no ideas at least they have a choice to select. So creativity is a must because truly creativity is so they can develop or somehow people don't know what they are able to do, but by creativity and then they can find themselves, their competencies by themselves. So creativity is a must. And after--, being a teacher, I don't know, I'm not a humorous person. [Laugh]. But somehow I just enjoy my class, and the I let the student talk freely. I mean, not about politeness or impoliteness. But freely means if they have comments of objection or suggestion, I open the class for any comment or critics even. So the atmosphere will be enjoyable. And then so somehow if I do mistakes or I--. Even I'm, even unconscious thing it can be a funny thing that I've done, so I don't know, but they're laughing and then is it--, okay, am I humorous or not I don't know. [Laugh]. But in my opinion I'm not a humorous one. But the main point is that make the class enjoyable. If the class enjoyable and then they feel free to express their ideas or their opinions, and then unconsciously they explore themselves to share or to express their knowledge or what they want to do. Or even in my classes, students often give suggestion, "What about having this, Mam. What about this. Why don't we do this". So if we create this kind of atmosphere in the classroom, enjoyable one, and then, yeah, many opportunities to expand student's competence. That's it.</p> <p>Question: Yeah, that's interesting. Because this relate to one of the question that I asked the students during the questionnaire and also interview about their relationship with the teachers. Most of them said that there are three options, educator-learner, parents-child, and friend to friend relationship. Most of them answer educator-learner relationship, but they emphasize on being appreciated, being treated equally, being valued and so on. And this is exactly what you said. And I actually notice in your class this earlier how you started the class by asking the student to lead a prayer. And then also like when I notice in the second session, the student, she's sleepy and you ask</p>

<p>Question : Well it's really interesting when you said like, you know, defferentiating between what the student want and also student need. Because my next question is what do you thing the student want from the teacher that may actually help them to learn.</p> <p>Answer : Well actually the students want the teacher, well, to help them know what they actually need. But by accomodating what they also want. I think we can not take for granted what the student want because when you give the process that will, you know, interest them or appeal to them and they will be more enthusiastic, yeah, through out the learning process. However is very often the students, especially my student, they are student teaches, they don't know that becoming a teacher needs this and that. They thing it's only about learning English. So sometime I have to make them see that point in the beginning. Maybe what they appreciate more is the fun or the joy in the class when the having, you know, like activities or games or some simulations, but I always have to remind them of the point why they are doing it, and how this will help them in achieving the goal. So I think what the student want from their teacher is to help them know what actually they need. But of course by still taking their want into account. And, yeah, help them along the way to facilitate them learning it.</p> <p>Question : what do you thing a good student should be?</p> <p>Answer : I think a good student in the past would be different from what a good student is like today. But I think one thing that is remind the same I guess, yeah, accross, you know, generation or ages or years, I think is the level of autonomy the student have on their own learning. Good student I believe know what they good at, how they can learn best, and they would try, they would, yeah, make some efforts to give themself opportunities to learn if they don't have that in the class. So I think that makes good learners different from others, because the level of autonomy. They kind of have self regulatory in their learning. They know what they want, the know how they want it, and they can, you know, try to find opportunities that help them learn.</p> <p>Question : Okay. How about a good teacher?</p> <p>Answer : Is like a thesis exam to me (Laughing). I've been teaching for more than ten years. And I think my perspective about what a good teacher is has somehow change from time to time. But in the past we will try hard to cope with the document requirement, and we still do these days. But I think now after ten years of teaching I appreciate more the teachers who pay very carefull attention on the process of learning. I mean to make sure that student are actually learning things, that they are doing things in the class that they don't only, you know, attend and receive information and then leave the class or return home but there is a changing mindset, there is a changing of attitude or behaviour between before coming to the class and after the class. I think the teacher that appreciate that kind of changes that I think makes them a good teacher. Then that way the teacher would try best to provide activities</p>	<p>her to go and freshened up and then you smiled but your laughing and everyone was laughing in the classroom as well. And also I remembered when you asked them to do a task because they weren't really understanding the topic than you given to them. They were like begging you to give them 2 hours. And some of them even are even complaining but they're doing it in front of you. And you responding it by just smiling. And some of them are also late. But you didn't make any face or any expression that kind of--.</p> <p>Answer: Or poses.</p> <p>Question: Yeah, poses or scared them. So what kind of relationship that you are trying to build there.</p> <p>Answer: Relationship--. I just want them to be comfortable in my class. And I don't want them to pretend in my class. Because if the can open up or let say express them genuinely, I mean the truth about themselves, so it's easier for me to do personal approach with them. For example if they have weaknesses or they find their strength or their problem they will open to me anytime. But of course if they have big mistake or, yeah, wrong doing for example, I'll just comment in front of them. And then they--. But we have a kind of agreement like this. What the problem that you have in my class, we will solve it in the class. That's it. So, and they know me so much because I'm not pretending anything. And I don't like pretending, just let them know that I don't like this kind of person, I want to be like this and I want the best for you, and then what I expect for you if you want to learn please come. If you feel it's boring, please let me know. And when they are complaining I just let them know, okay. My goal is this. Do you want to achieve this goal or not? And then when they say okay I want to be like this, so be ready with the consequences. And the consequences are this, this, I'll let them know in the very beginning. And then they know that when I say something they must do it in order to achieve the goals. That's it. That's that, that's the thing. Yeah. [Laugh].</p> <p>Question: Interesting. Because some of the student in the interview when I talked to them, they mention about like teacher having pedagogic control in the classroom. They feel that the teacher are the one who creating the culture. What they want to do is just follow, follow, follow and let the teacher decide. Do you think that kind of indication is seen in your own classroom?</p> <p>Answer: Being the ruler, I mean the one who managed the--, I just a facilitator. I idealized myself as a facilitator only. I just--, for example like this. I give a guidance for example a report must be consisting this and this and this. And then how you develop this report is up to you. Are you going to observe, are you going to read a lot, or are you going to interview someone. Get the information in your convenience. But it must be approvable and based on evidences. Like that. So I give only a guidance and then they do it themselves, and then they will report. And then afterward we will clarify whether it's, let say, based in a truth or evidences or it just on surveys, or--. Like that. We will review it together, [00:09:24]. Like that. So when I say about being the control of the class, I don't thing so. I'm not really controlling my class. But I'm just giving as what I mention in the very beginning, I give them, not a procedure, things to be fulfilled to be successful to achieve the goals. And then I will ask them are you going to achieve this goal with me or not is up to you. If you willing to do this or to achieve this, do it together. But if you lazy or</p>
--	---

<p>that will help the student see or have those changes. I think it's about changes of attitude and changes of mindset before and after coming to the class. Yeah.</p> <p>Question : So I ask them, your student about what a good teacher should be. And most of them said a good teacher should be caring and helpfull and also explain clearly. And when I ask them about what they think about good student, and they said that a good student is student who has high motivation. And, yeah, high motivation and also the other one is sociable.</p> <p>Answer : Sociable. Okay.</p> <p>Question : Sociable. But like, you know, very small percentage of them said that good student is the one who study independently.</p> <p>Answer : Yeah, very least--.</p> <p>Question : What do you think about that?</p> <p>Answer : Yeah. Well, you know, if you are looking at student highly motivated in the class they maybe the most active, the most, you know, participating in the class. But sometime those student who reminds silent but listen very attentively may have, maybe those students who are very autonomous. Maybe they do lots of homeworks outside the class. Maybe in the class they are only listening to you may not be so active or that active compare to other students. Still they do all the homework. They do even extra homeworks, they take the extra miles, maybe the proverb says, to learn. But yeah, but I think it's also true that students with high motivation will usually succeed in their learning. But you asking me about what they think a good teacher?</p> <p>Question : Yes, yes. And they also caring and helpfull and explain clearly.</p> <p>Answer : Well the first two yeah, the second first two. But explaining a lot, well I think it's quite cultural. I mean, you know, Asian students, Indonesian students would love to have teachers coming to the class first explain. Explanation is a must. I mean they can--. Well, it's just like--. You know, you can not do anything before the teacher explain things first. But well I think that's not a problem too, because you know that's part of the cultural trait that the student have already learn from their school experiences. But I think it is the teachers then who should be able to varied their technics of explaining so it doesn't end up, you know, spoon feeding the student with a lot of information. But it's more like making them find the information themself and you just have to mention what the reference sub, where you can find them, how you can be information, and you give some guiding question so the student don't have to always listen to you, telling all the thing. Like in my class that you observed. Actually I gave two main references and when I said that the next meeting would be about opening and closing, so they done some assignment before, so they identify already the expression to open and to close. And when the class is taking place, I can just ask them</p>	<p>even just postpone anything, you won't achieve this on time. And then it will be your consequences, not mine. This is and that's why they just follow the--. Seems they following my instruction but actually they know how to achieve the goals. So I'm not control it a lot, I'm just--. Even--, for example I give them time, okay I'll give you 3 weeks. I provide my time for you, you can come in to my office if I'm free, but I will be available for the class time. I mean for example I have class like this week on Wednesday I have from 8 until 12 for the class, but I give a project for them. You can go anywhere, library, or the field asking for someone, if ISP for specific purposes, if you are going to interviewing someone, observing someone working, it's up to you. If you need my letter or recommendation or let say permission letter from the university, let me know, I'll make it for you. But if not just do anywhere you feel convenience. And then 3 weeks we will meet again and we can discuss. That's it. I'm not controlling how they do it, but I'm just assisting and giving them the rules like this and then again, it's up to you how to handle your work.</p> <p>Question: Having said that, do you actually like view a good student as someone who work independently. Is it how you see it?</p> <p>Answer: Work independently, I'm trying to develop that. Well, the nature of their learning--.</p> <p>Question: Sorry, from you explain what kind of quality then you expect from your students?</p> <p>Answer: First they creative, of course. And then independent learner. And then high order thinking. That's one. And then critical thinking. They should know how to be critical person. I mean what to do next, and then how to handle this, or how to over come this problem, and so on. But of course on the process of making this kind of quality, I need to assisst them and then if they go in the wrong way and then put them back. [Laugh]. Don't do this, and then do this, like that. Just observing ya, observing. Because some students--, and one thing, I make them work in group because [00:12:33] of the, let say, higher achiever, I mean high one and then medium and the the low one. The requirement only one, all of the members must understand what is being learn together. So it's kind of a challenge for the clever one to share the knowledge with the lowest one. That's the process.</p> <p>Question: That's good. Because they can learn from each other.</p> <p>Answer: They learn from each other and it's kind of responsible together. Together, and they have the same responsibility how to make the group successful achieving the goals.</p> <p>Question: Because when I give the question to the student they said that according to them a good student is someone with high motivation and sociable.</p> <p>Answer: Sociable?</p> <p>Question: Uh uh.</p> <p>Answer: Sociable not much--.</p> <p>Question: Because from what you explain, I think high motivation would go in to that.</p>
--	---

to have a simulation but very brief explanation in the beginning. Because they actually have done some homework before they came to the class that day. If not it will take long time to explain all those expressions, you know. So again, it's fine, but, yeah, you have to do it in different ways for different purposes I guess.

Question : Because then I asked them about their learning preferences in the classroom. And most of them said that they like to use media in the classroom. Like 30% of them. And the other one is that they like it when the teachers explain (Laughing). They prefer when the teacher explains. But, you know, I talk to some during the interview and they said what they enjoy about your class is that you came and then you just did, you know, very small explanation but then you make this like communicative activities. And I also notice in your class that I observed that you were doing like role plays simulation, and they said they prefer that a lot. And that's what some of them I quote use the word adore, adore your class. So, I mean like it's interesting, I mean how do you really know that this is what actually your students--.

Answer : Well actually that is clear from the description of the course. The course is about, the course is actually a practice course. So in our curriculum we differentiate between theory class and practice class and my class is actually about practice that's why we have two meetings in a week. And that way it means you have, yeah I think more opportunities for students to have practices and it can be in the form of simulation, role play or maybe we could have also a drama something like that. But the point is basically knowing or maybe understanding first what the course requires the students to be or to have or to be good at is the first key to know what the student actually need, but also at the same time want. And I think because the students nowadays they are, I don't know, they are the 21<sup>st</sup> century generation of course those type of students are those who like doing, who like action more than, you know, thinking to me. That's how I see them. I mean if they have to do a lot of analogical works in the very beginning of the class they might not enjoy that. So I think the explanation is very little because they've done some homework before, that's how I did it. So before I gave a new topic I would like first the student to have a look at the references and I gave them questions to answer, and they have to submit that one. So I knew that the next meeting when I see them they have already learn some expressions from the book now it is about practising and looking how they might do it wrongly or correctly and then that why I'll be able to give clarification of feedback. I think that work better for this type of class. Yeah. But those student, I agree, must love media more than, you know, talking about theories all the time.

Question : when I observed your class you use like this kind of handout. Where did you take that from?

Answer : Well I took from different references for the--.

Question : Is it like a textbook?

Answer: Yes, yes.

Question: But sociable--.

Answer: Sociable is not really the main factor of to be a good student [Laugh]. For high motivated, but what if the condition, what if our student have low motivation. We can say that this student are bad student, right? So having motivation or not is not a kind of guarantee that our student is a good or bad one. So in my point of view a good student is the one who want to develop themselves. Or the one who know what to be learned, or the one who know, who has a purpose of learning. That's a good student. For example like this, okay I am the student, one of the student of your class. Okay, I want to learn about, for example ISP or assessment for example, well I have to or I should be able to do an assessment or creating assessment, develop--. So this is a good student, know what to do or know what she don't know. So it's kind of self reflectioning. Reflective one. Yeah, that's it.

Question: Reflective student.

Answer: Yeah, reflective student.

Question: Okay. Interesting. So we move on to the second part. In the questionnaire and also the interview, the student emphasize on the important of discussion. Because they think that they can share their ideas freely, it can also save their face, like they don't have to speak in front of the class that everyone can listen to them. They could just speak with their peers and--. That's fine. Their English is bad, then--. It doesn't matter. And it also help them communicate. Now in your class just now, I notice that you stressed a lot about discussion, but it's more about you and your student discussing with each other. You did there is this one part where you asked them question and you asked them to think about the answer. And they kind of like talk to each other and discussed it. So why would you do that? You have any specific reason?

Answer: Okay. Discussion can be among them, among the students, and then student with teacher. In my class there is a time for having a kind of peer discussion or group discussion or classical discussion. Depends on the time or the subject or the topic of discussion. And then, the previous class, I mean this is a kind of classical discussion because my expectation is that what understanding ya. Because this theory level, theoretical level, so my expectation is about understanding the theories. And then in this case when I asked-- , maybe you notice previously that when I asked personally one to one and then they just nervous and then difficult to express their ideas. But when they talk one and then another one and the continuously adding their friend's opinion, and then they have something in mind. But when I asked them personally, they just-- , first about nervous, and then the second one how they formulate the ideas is little bit difficult, need practices. But having a classical discussion they just can explore further, add ideas, adding ideas. And then afterward is actually mostly we will have a kind of summary, classical summary mostly. So they have to summarize what they have learn or based on discussion session.

Question: Do you think that would help them improve their competence?

<p>Answer : Yeah, we got textbook, we got two references. So basically the idea, the task, I got the task from different textbook, but I also had my own creativity, I mean it would be good if I change little bit from what the book says. I mean the book maybe only says read the dialogue aloud. But I change that into, instead of reading the dialogue aloud I can just ask them to acted out in the role play version. So that's more interactive. Yeah, but yeah, but I had two reference book for me in that class.</p> <p>Question : Yeah. Because it's like 68% of your student said that this kind of handout and textbook are very helpfull for them.</p> <p>Answer : Yup, yup.</p> <p>Question : what is your opinion about student not want to ask question in the class. Like I observed in your class, there are some students who very good. And they really active, they keep asking questions. But how about the one that who doesn't really want to ask question. I ask them them the reason. And 50% of them said that because they are not good in English. And 33% of them said that they don't want to interrupt you while you're teaching. But what like what I see is that one or two students they don't feel like, you know, they either interrupting you when they want to ask question even though you're talking they would just rise their hand and then say something. How about the student that not really ask question?</p> <p>Answer : Well, maybe I should've made it clear to them that is okay to interrupt me while speaking. Well I think I did but maybe because you told me so then maybe I needed to make it more clearer to them. But yeah, I guess not every student has the confident to do that. And again it's been a long time experience yeah maybe for them to always have to listen to that teacher at school and not giving questions. But I don't like to blame, you know, on the experience. I think it has to be difference yeah between school and university. So maybe I should've given them more opportunities to address, or maybe I should point to some people who rarely ask questions so that they are willing to ask me question. But actually I don't really like pointing out student unless I do have to, I mean, like nobody really ask me so I want to, you know encourage one or two to ask me. But usually in the first place I would simply ask do you have any question, I mean, I would like to give the floor opportunity to ask me. Yeah, I want them to feel volunterily to do so. I don't want them to feel that they have to do it. If they don't want to, yeah, that's fine. Because they adult already. They're not young--, they're not teenagers anymore. They have--, that's what I mention, autonomy. If they want it they should've done that one. Yeah.</p> <p>Question : Okay.I also ask your student about their challenges that they face in learning English. And 25% of them said that speaking is the most difficult. Like you said your class is about practices and they feel like their speaking is really bad. So that's the biggest challenge that they face. Because they have to think about the grammar, the have to think about vocabulary. Some even admit that if they like, you</p>	<p>Answer: Improve understanding yes. Because my class is, my lesson is topic. I mean content, it's not about language skills. If it is language skills it will improve their speaking. But since it is content, it will improve their understanding. Yeah because when we say something or construct information by our self or together, they will memorize it longer than if you just memorize and then keep it that way.</p> <p>Question: Is this the reason because this is a content based class. Is this the reason why you use power point presentation? Giving students opportunity to present--.</p> <p>Answer: Yeah, because first, but after reading they have to summarize it. We several books and then I give them topic to be discuss. And then they have to summarize the book or let say take the important point to be shared. Because teaching what you've learn more longer. You memorize it longer. You remember the content longer. That's why I asked them PPT somehow in the form of poster. Depend on the topic. Because this is content and then it's quite comprehensible plan, and then concise one. That's why I asked them to make into power point presentation.</p> <p>Question: Yeah because when I talk to the students they did beside discussion whether they have positive attitude toward discussion. But then they showed some kind of negative attitude toward power point. Because they feel that when their having power point presentation especially when their student, their friend are presenting, they feel that it sometime difficult for them to understand what their peer are saying.</p> <p>Answer: Yeah, that's it.</p> <p>Question: And also it's about when they're the one who has to present, they don't have that confidence.</p> <p>Answer: Okay.</p> <p>Question: And also like they feel like when their friend are presenting they're kind of passive because they don't like ask question and so on. And also some distinct that oh because their friends are the one who are talking, it seems like the classroom is starting to get a bit bored. That's what they said. Now, in your class I think you in the last session you sort of like notice that your student are playing with their phone. Because in the first session they were asking question.</p> <p>Answer: Yes.</p> <p>Question: They were asking question actively. And they were still paying attention. But in the last session, you pointing out I think. I remember you said, "Do you have any question? No? Do you even understand what your friends are presenting? Why you're playing with your phones?", right? So I feel you realize about what is really happening. So can I say that you really agree with what the student said or do you have any other opinion why they have this kind of negative attitude toward power point presentation?</p> <p>Answer: Well, first it depends on the way how the student develop their presentation. If the power point presentation attractive, the student will be pay attention. And then the way how they presenting</p>
--	--

<p>know, if they speak, if they don't want to speak because they're afraid that their friend would like laugh at them, or mock them. And 22% of them said that it's because of the environment, like they don't have anyone to talk to. And, yeah--. What do you think about that?</p> <p>Answer : Well, yeah, first it's amazing that you've done the calculation already. (Laughing) It's just last week. You have to teach me how to do that very quickly.</p> <p>Question : I have. (Laughing).</p> <p>Answer : Okay. Well, maybe some student are not risk taker, they are afraid of making mistakes. And I think we have to understand that there are some students who are just like that and for me it's our job to encourage them more. And I think one technic that I usually do is to mix the composition of the students in a group that's why I don't like to let them choose their group. It doesn't mean that I'm not, you know, like a democracy lady, but I think because usually those student, you know, like together with certain people who are as active as them and that's why it's not good for encouraging, you know, less active student. So that's why usually I like to group the students, you know, randomly or I may have already selected some student who to go with certain people so that they can be more active because their friend are all active then they get, you know, kind of encourage to speak more. But, yeah, I can see that there are different type of students and I think it is important for teacher to address this differences. It's not only the problem that we find in my class. I mean almost classes and that's why that's one of the reason why we have that course, the English for Instructional Purposes because we believe that it is through verbal interaction the teacher manage it's classroom. And some students just don't have, you know, the confident to speak in front of the public. And we hope that through, you know, learning in the class they would have more opportunities to, you know, to excercise with different teaches routines along with the language and expression that teaches commonly use. So when they go to my micro class they will be ready by then.</p> <p>Question : Okay. Interesting. what influence your decission about what and how to teach?</p> <p>Answer : Well, there's a lot of things of course. Well because I'm a teacher myself and I was educated to be a teacher of course I've earn some, yeah, degree and education I learn some pedagogical principal, I know what teacher should do and shouldn't do. So basically theoretically I have the background to do the teaching as it should be done. But an addition to that is of course my experience and my interaction with my own students. I mean my experience has tought me difference type of class, different type of students and how I reacted to different type of classes and students, and then that I think has enrich my teaching repertoire. So I knew--, I think you know that experience is the best teacher because, you know, you blend from your mistakes and from your successes and that makes who you are now. But then what is more important then you experience, all the experiences is itself is the interaction that resulted from your experience. I mean</p>	<p>the material it will very influence you. So if there is negative perspective about the use of presentation, possibly it's because of the way how the presenter is presenting the material, or the way how they design the presentation in attractively.</p> <p>Question: So it's not about the power point presentation.</p> <p>Answer: That's not about the power point presentation, but about the way how it is presented and then how it's designed. For example actually I would like to comment to my student but I don't want to make them feel embarrass or so for, but I mostly will comment them for not reading the power point. But that's I realize that they don't memorize or they don't remember the theory that's why they just read it and then explain to the student. That's why I ask them do you understand or not. But actually they should be able to present, that's why the last presenters develop boring atmosphere or the student get bored and so forth. And then, yeah, that's one of my way, I ask them to summarize the book within one hour. To make them understand the content rather than I just leave it that way and then they got nothing from the presentation.</p> <p>Question: What interesting that I notice about your student in the classroom, is that when they listen to the presentation some of them use their phone and also laptop to look at the presentation.</p> <p>Answer: Yes, exactly.</p> <p>Question: Do you allow them to do so?</p> <p>Answer: Yeah.</p> <p>Question: Why?</p> <p>Answer: Actually we have a Theme. Theme is a kind of Microsoft Office software where they can share information and then even shared on that. And then they have to upload the power point on their slide. And some student, because on the phone they will have the book, the have the e-book so I notice that having the handphone or laptop and the presentation in the same time they kind of trying to find the evidences or clues about what has been explain by their friends.</p> <p>Question: Yeah, because some of them are also open the books.</p> <p>Answer: Yeah, e-books. That's the book. [Laugh]. From the material taken.</p> <p>Question: Because when I asked the student about their references in learning, most of them besides discussion they mention about using media as well as means of learning. So it's not only about listening to teacher explanation but giving them the opportunity to use their phone and so on. Which is why this is kind of interesting because this is the first time I saw it in the class where a teacher actually allow them to use their smartphone to sort of like integrate that in learning. Do you think this is very effective for your student? Maybe you can explain me, I mean, like the background of this idea.</p> <p>Answer: Yeah. The first one for the big class. For the big class or unclear presentation for example, and then we provide--, because I provide several books to be presented. But they have the e-book as</p>
---	---

<p>when teaching you interacted with your student who got feedback whether they like your teaching and at the end of the class some of the students said that oh really love the activities today because and this and that. I just could read how they, you know, reacted to my activities on the day because of their enthusiasm or how they became very active or involve in the class so I knew that this technic could work and this would not really work. And again, yeah, it's about being very sensitive and being aware of what you are doing so you can, you know, appreciate the process. And then take some lesson from those, yeah.</p> <p>Question : Do you always teach base on what you have prepared?</p> <p>Answer : What you you have what?</p> <p>Question : What you have prepared? Do you always do.</p> <p>Answer : Well, I would say 80%, but yes.</p> <p>Question : For your EIP class. Do the teaching learning process happen based on what you have planned?</p> <p>Answer : Well, yeah, 80% yeah I would as planned, but usually I leave the 20% for, yeah, some spontaneous improptu plans coming to my head just, yeah, at the moment. But usually it went out of the way or didn't, you know, got as expected usually because of the time. Also like maybe I fail the need to give more practices, or I would like to address few students who may need more practices so I spend more time, a longer time in that area. And then that made me, you know, unable to finish the lesson as expected. But I don't mind with that. I mean I don't mind with--, I'm not, you know, somebody who sticks with the plan 100%. I mean it's okay to go beyond that. I mean if it is for good thing why not.</p> <p>Question : Now you were saying, we were talking about student want and also student's need. How do you consider your student preferences and needs in deciding what and how to teach?</p> <p>Answer : Yeah, so in the very beginning of the semester we have what we called orientation meeting. So we showed our syllabus. Well, 75% maybe it's quit fix, but what I would say in the first meeting I would say like well, it's the syllabus but we can negotiate this like what you like to do. Maybe the material are something that the students relly on the teachers most, because, you know, as I told you maybe don't know what they actually need to learn. But we can talk about ho we would like to do with, would you like to have, you know, kind of maybe we talk about assignment, what kind of assignment would you like to have in the class for the big one or the major one, or for the minor one. We can also talk about the type of asesment that they wanted to do like would you like to have a big project as your asesment, or would you like to have small one but done, you know, for some times and we can accumulate all those performances as your final asesment. So I did negotiate that first, so they agreed and then through the class or through out the classes they prepare themself to do or</p>	<p>well to make it paperless and then they have the e-books. And then they will search for the information and then to--. Somehow the student's presentation is not that clear. So they will try to find the real explanation from the book. That's the first. But in my class when I see that they are not focusing on the lesson any longer, I will ask them to put aside the telephone.</p> <p>Question: Like you said, you know that they're chatting.</p> <p>Answer: Yes.</p> <p>Question: They starting to chat yeah.</p> <p>Answer: So I can--, that's why somehow I notice, I look around, I observe them. When they are focusing on learning and then using, let say, laptop for searching and so forth for make sure, yeah, for making sure about what they learn, it's okay for me. But when it's disturbing or it's kind of disturbance in class, I will ask them to close everything.</p> <p>Question: Yeah, yeah.</p> <p>Answer: But they afraid to look for information in the internet. But not for chatting. That's it.</p> <p>Question: Interesting.</p> <p>Answer: But it's effective in my class. They know--, I don't about other classes, but in my class they know when to use the handphone or the laptop and when to put it aside and then when I say please give a focus on your friend and so forth, they will be do that.</p> <p>Question: Yeah. They listen to you. And mostly when you said oh you're using the phone to chat, it's only like if I, when I--.</p> <p>Answer: When you observe.</p> <p>Question: Observe. It was only like one or two student. But mostly, mostly, most of your student they actually use that to look at the e-book and also the presentation in front of the class. So only one or two they starting to open WhatsApp. [Laugh]</p> <p>Answer: WhatsApp or Instagram. I know that, that's why--. What I've mention that's the same to them in the very beginning, I know what you do, so don't chat, don't cheat on me [Laugh].</p> <p>Question: That's why.</p> <p>Answer: Don't chat your friend and cheat on me. Yeah. That's it.</p> <p>Question: So, moving on about asking questions. I think that it is a very big part of classroom, English classroom teaching and learning. Because we normally as a teacher we encourage our student participation by--.</p> <p>Answer: Questioning.</p> <p>Question: Questioning, yeah. So in the questionnaire the student said that they do not ask question because the feel like their English is not good enough. Now, in your class one or two student asked question.</p>
---	--



<p>for the assessment. Because they knew it already. They knew it that the final exam would be this role play and they going to do it group but individually taking roles as teachers with different jobs to do in the class.</p> <p>Question : So that's mean what you practicing is you really involving student voices in deciding how and what to teach?</p> <p>Answer : Yeah, we have to and I tried my best to--. The least one we could do was asking them what they want in the beginning of the semester. And yeah, maybe not all of them want that's what I told you. Maybe the materials, the distribution have to be, you know, refer to the curriculum so we can not just change according to what we want. But we can somehow negotiate in term of how they want to do it. And the assignment that they would like to have. And maybe type of assessment they want to have. So this areas are something that they can negotiate with me. And there are some like rules that we build. Yeah, which maybe different from one class to another, like you know lateness and late submission, what happen with late submission, and so on. Yeah.</p> <p>Question : Well this is the last part. Well actually I talk to your student and they said that yes you gave them the chance to like discuss with them about what actually they want during the classroom during the whole semester. Some seems like they don't really know that this is what you doing. Because when I ask them they like start thinking, hmm..I don't know, I think so. Well we did, I think we did discuss something. But some said oh yes, you gave that opportunity. But sometime they never use them. They said that, because I just I don't know, I just I don't know what to say, I'm just listen to her and when she ask I just be quite because I don't know what to say.</p> <p>Answer : Yeah. Well, that's right. Some students do not take that opportunity to use their freedom to negotiate with me. Or maybe because they learn--, usually they didn't do so in another classes. But I love doing so because it makes them feel they are responsible with their own learning. When I said that you have to do this they knew because they have agreed to do so. I mean it's our commitment. We should be both committed to this. I mean it's not only my business, it's your business too. Yeah. And I like to say a lot in the class like, look I have done this and this for you. So you should've done as much as I do for you learning. I mean you should've finished this job, you should've done the reading, how could you not do the reading when I have prepared the worksheet for you. So you didn't prepared yourself while I prepared myself. So it's like, you know, treating them as an adult, somebody who knows what they want to do. I think it's good because they're not children anymore. They're not--. I think they don't really like, you know, being told all the time. Because I think I would feel the same way if I were like them. Yeah.</p>	<p>What interesting is that you encourage them not only by giving them question but also discussing it with them. So you explain the material and--.</p> <p>Answer: What do you think, bla, bla.</p> <p>Question: If they do not respond you would go on and then you would move on to the next question. And they would come up, you know, giving responses even though not only from the whole class but it is still--.</p> <p>Answer: Responses from--.</p> <p>Question: Responses. Did you plan that or not? Did you plan that?</p> <p>Answer: Well, when questioning it's kind of--, I'm not planning the question. But I see from the situation in the classroom. It's seems that--. Situational ya. Situational, so how to encourage them for asking question or how to make sure that the student understand. That's it. Just make sure. If I found that my student is that a bit confuse about the material or just having a half of information and then I'm trying to make sure until they get full understanding. That's the purpose. So, but if they are active and having many question, mostly it happen when the material is really confusing [Laugh]. But if they just have several question, means that it's quite understandable and then just uncertain thing or some difficulties. If they ask a lot of questions, means the material is sound complex or, yeah, need more understanding. They will ask question a lot. That's in my class. But if they ask several questions and already ask by their friend and then they just not asking anything.</p> <p>Question: Yeah. I notice in your class your students when they asked question they don't really mind about the language.</p> <p>Answer: Yes.</p> <p>Question: Like the grammar or vocabulary, they don't really mind about that. Because to some student that I spoke to they said that they don't want to ask question because their English is not too good. Did you feel something, or did you create some kind of culture that kind of like give them the confidence to ask question without bothering about the language?</p> <p>Answer: Yes. I'm not bothering about the language, but I--, if they have mistakes and then they just recommend or ask them, give them option. Which one do you mean? This one or that one. Then so they know, oh I mean this.</p> <p>Question: Because they raise hand as well.</p> <p>Answer: Yeah, yeah.</p> <p>Question: Giving which option is correct, right.</p> <p>Answer: So in the very beginning I develop their understanding because it's about--, teaching content is a bit difficult, because we must make sure that the student understand. And even they able to do it or create it or even evaluate that. That's the main problem in teaching content. Rather than teaching skills. For teaching skill what we develop is language skill. But in my class I should make sure my</p>
--	--

student understand the content and be able to develop the design that create that. So their understanding is the top one. And then the language cross. But how do I develop their language skill is by giving option. When they are making mistake for example, I will ask them, "Do you mean this or this one?". So I'm not answering, I'm just asking them which one they mean by saying that. So in other word they will develop the correct sentence or the correct question and so forth.

Question: Yeah. If I may relate, it relates back to what you said earlier, you want, you emphasize making your class as enjoyable as possible. Because when I talk to some of your students, they said that they are confidence to ask question when the class atmosphere is enjoyable. And, or otherwise they would just ask their peers, or they would just ask the teachers but outside the classroom. Do some of your student do that? Like ask question--, after the class they would come to your room and then ask you--?

Answer: If the time is over. When the time is over. But if the time is a lot in the classroom, they will ask everything in the classroom. But that's--, in my class they will ask every question in the classroom. And then if they still have question and the time is over, and I will suggest them okay please come or please list down your question and then I will discuss it next meeting or outside the class. Or you can, if you still confuse or need to clarify or anything else, just come. Yeah. Extension time for the left one. But everything I'm trying to discuss everything in class because who know that some student having the same question. But if I have question or they have question I will ask them to ask in the group, WhatsApp group or in Theme for example. In Theme is for the group, for the class. And the leave us in the channel and then I will answer that, and then somehow I will have a kind of face to face. For example I'm not available in the campus, outside, and then I'll just face to face and then talk with them. If they have question please put on the WhatsApp group or Themes. So the one who has the same question as you will have the answer.

Question: Interesting. So you have WhatsApp group for the class?

Answer: Uh uh.

Question: Do you have that for every, every--.

Answer: Every classes.

Question: Wow.

Answer: Every classes. So I'm trying to--, because somehow one thing will be the question for every student. So I'll just need one place to answer this question, hopefully it fulfill or answer all question, the same question.

Question: Yeah, yeah. So you initiate to make this or create this WhatsApp group?

Answer: Yeah.

Question: At the beginning--.

Answer: In the very beginning--, yeah.

Question: Every semester?

Answer: Every semester. If I'm teaching the same class again, I just change the name for the class to memorize the class [Laugh].

Question: Okay. Last one.

Answer: Okay.

Question: Do you always teach based on what you have prepared? Like for example in the classroom today, is it really based on what you have planned?

Answer: For plan yeah. In--, I've planned the first, the topic or the theme or what kind of material that should be given to the student. It has been planned. Even how many weeks it should be done. I'm trying to stick on it because I have a plan to reach the goal. So if I'm not fulfilling the plan so I'm afraid that the goal won't be achieve. So that's why for example in assessment, I have 8 week to go and then how to teach them certain things and they're able to design the test, and then how they can administered the test and then di try out and so forth. So I make to be, yeah, realistic on.

Question: Do you also--. When planning your material, do you also consider the student needs like their voices. Do you consider that?

Answer: Yes. First, maybe about the due time. About the due time, and then their activities and you know that in study program having a lot of activities. The study program having a lot of activities and I need to consider okay this date will be this activity, and bla, bla, bla. And afterward I need to consider the time, the length, the duration for finishing the project for example. And then, but overall I will see the need for their future career. So when I--. But in the very beginning as I mention, I will let them know later on if you teacher or lecturer even English practitioners, you will need this and this, and this. And then in this class I'm trying to support you or I'm trying to provide you with knowledge about this. So this keep up fighting for your study. So they know when I give very restrictive time, they know that it means that the time is limited and then they should be stick on the schedule and then do it on time.

Question: So I may say that you really consider about involving student's voices in deciding what and how to teach, right?

Answer: Yes. For example if I'm realizing that my student seems my student couldn't do this, and then I'm just listen the difficulty or, yeah, make it hear or if I see that my student fun and that is too easy and then I just up grade the level of difficulty. And then somehow the student also ask me, "Mam, what about this?". They give suggestion as I mention. What about having this like this, or what about of we do it in the group rather than in peers, or can we do it individually? Like that. But of course I'm trying to consider their opinion but later on I'm thinking about the objective that I would like to achieve. Is it a kind of individual competency or can this competency shared with other, or can it be done in the group or should remain individual.

Question: Yeah.

Answer: So if it is should be individual, I would say to them I'm sorry, it seems that you should work individually because this is, the

objective is this and the you have to do it individually.

Question: So it's on going. It's on going. It's not only--, it doesn't happen only in the beginning of the semester, but on going. Every lesson, in every meeting that you have.

Answer: For example assignment, for the assignment. It still--, when I said it's flexible, it's not that flexible. But we can modify in certain way depends on the condition or the situation this class and even the activity of the campus because we know the student have a lot of activities. That's it.

Question: Wow. Is there anything that you like to add, Ibu?

Answer: About language learning?

Question: Yeah, sure.

Answer: About language learning. A language teacher must be, first, creative and then enjoy the class. You should enjoy what you do. That's it. If you're not enjoying what you've done or what you're doing at this moment and then you will feel I'm tired, I don't want to do this and do that.

Question: And my student are--.

Answer: Yeah. Oh my student very lazy and I don't want to teach them. I want to be a clever student--. I'm not an ideal person, let say perfectionist, but I'm just having one purpose of teaching is that how to make my student are able to use the language. Or to communicate in the language. Or do something using the language. That's it. That's language teacher [Laugh]. Because if I'm not--. What I want, I really want my student they learn the language but do something with the language. Not only knowing or doing something. They can create something. That's why the purpose on the top is creativity. Creativity through the language, whatever the form. It can be the book, it can be medias, or even everything. Vlog and something. Do something with the language. Not only the language, not only knowing the grammar, the vocabulary, but use it. Do something to make it useful.

## Bibliography

- Abbasian, G.-R. and Malardi, P. (2013) 'The Effect of Negotiated Syllabus on EFL Learners' Writing Ability and Self-efficacy', *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 3(8), pp. 1399–1405.
- Abd-Kadir, J. and Hardman, F. (2013) 'Reforming teacher education in East Africa: the importance of socio-cultural context', in Cortazzi, M. and Jin, L. (eds) *Researching Cultures of Learning*. Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan, pp. 80–94.
- Alexander, H. A. (2006) 'A view from somewhere: Explaining the paradigms of educational research', *Journal of Philosophy of Education*, pp. 205–221. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9752.2006.00502.x.
- Alif, A. (2016) *Pengaruh Perkembangan Teknologi Terhadap Budaya Bangsa Indonesia*, WordPress. Available at: <https://adamalif.wordpress.com/2016/04/30/pengaruh-perkembangan-teknologi-terhadap-budaya-bangsa-indonesia/> (Accessed: 7 July 2017).
- Alisjahbana, T. (1982) *Perkembangan Sejarah Kebudayaan Indonesia Dilihat dari Jurusan Nilai-Nilai*. Jakarta: Rineka Cipta.
- Atkinson, D. (1999) 'TESOL and Culture', *TESOL Quarterly*, 33(4), pp. 625–654. doi: 10.2307/3587880.
- Avis, M. (1995) 'Valid arguments? a consideration of the concept of validity in establishing the credibility of research findings.', *Journal of advanced nursing*, 22(6), pp. 1203–9. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2648.1995.tb03123.x.
- Bacha, N. and Bahous, R. (2013) 'Cultures of Learning in Academia: A Lebanese Case Study', in Cortazzi, M. and Jin, L. (eds) *Researching Cultures of Learning*. Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan, pp. 116–135.
- Bachrudin, M. (2001) 'Communicative Language Teaching in Indonesia: Issues of Theoretical Assumptions and Challenges in the Classroom Practice', *Journal of Southeast Asian Education*, 12(2), pp. 184–193.
- Bachtiar, H. and Soebadio, M. (1987) *Budaya dan Manusia Indonesia*. Yogyakarta: PT Hanindita Graha Widya.
- Ballard, B. (1996) 'Through language to learning: Preparing overseas students for study in western universities', in Hywel Coleman (ed.) *Society and the Language Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 148–168.
- Bao, D. (2013) 'Voices of the Reticent? Getting Inside Views of Vietnamese Secondary Students on Learning', in Cortazzi, M. and Jin, L. (eds) *Researching Cultures of Learning*. Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan, pp. 136–154.
- Barnett, R. and Coate, K. (2005) *Engaging the curriculum in Higher Education*. Berkshire: Open University Press.
- Basharina, O. (2009) 'Student Agency and Language-Learning Processes and Outcomes in International Online Environments', *CALICO Journal*, 26(2), pp. 390–412.
- Baskerville, R. . (2003) 'Hofstede never studied culture', *Accounting, Organizations*

*and Society*, 28, pp. 1–14.

Bassey, M. (1999) *Case study research in educational settings*, *Teacher Development*. doi: 10.1080/13664530000200293.

Bell, J. (2010) *Doing your Research Project Fifth edition*, *British Journal of Educational Technology*. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8535.2006.00650\_12.x.

Benson, P. and Lor, W. (1999) 'Conceptions of language and language learning', *System*. doi: 10.1016/S0346-251X(99)00045-7.

Bernat, E. (2007) 'Bridging the gap: Teachers' and Learners' diversity of beliefs in SLA', in *20th English Australia Education Conference*, Sydney.

Bernstein, B. (1974) 'Sociology and the sociology of education: a brief account', in Rex, J. (ed.) *Approaches to Sociology: An Introduction to Major Trends in British Sociology*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, pp. 145–59.

Black, I. (2006) 'The presentation of interpretivist research', *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*, 9(4), pp. 319–324.

Bodegas, I. D. N. y (2007) 'From curriculum to syllabus design: The different stages to design a programme', *TESOL Newsletter*, 12(5), pp. 275–290.

Borg, M. (2001) 'Teachers' beliefs', *ELT Journal*, 55(2), pp. 186–188. doi: 10.1097/01.chi.0000187243.17824.6c.

De Bot, K. (1996) 'The Psycholinguistics of the Output Hypothesis', *Language Learning*. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-1770.1996.tb01246.x.

Braje, S. E. and Hall, G. C. N. (2016) 'Coping as a Mediator Between Losing Face and Depressive and Social Anxiety Symptoms Among Asian Americans', *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 47(8), pp. 1114–1129.

Breen, M. P. (2008) 'Contemporary Paradigms in Syllabus Design. Part I', *Language Teaching*, 20(02), p. 81. doi: 10.1017/S0261444800004365.

Brekelmans, M., Mainhard, T., Brok, P., Wubbles, T. (2011) 'Teacher Control and Affiliation: Do Students and Teachers Agree?', *Journal of Classroom Interaction*, 46(1), pp. 17–26.

Brooke, M. (2013) 'Which Research Paradigm for TESOL?', *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 3(3), pp. 430–436.

Brooman, S., Darwent, S. and Pimor, A. (2015) 'The student voice in higher education curriculum design: is there value in listening?', *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*. doi: 10.1080/14703297.2014.910128.

Brown, A. L. and Campione, J. C. (1996) 'Psychological theory and the design of innovative learning environments: On procedures, principles, and systems', in Schauble, L. and Glaser, R. (eds) *Innovations in learning. New environments for education*. Mahwah: NJ: Erlbaum.

Brown, H. D. (2007) *Principles of language learning and teaching*, *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. doi: 10.2307/327571.

Bruner, J. (1972) *The Relevance of Education*. Cambridge, MA: Belknap Press.

- Bruner, J. (1996) *The culture of education*. London: Harvard University Press.
- Burnett, G. and Lingam, G. I. (2012) 'Postgraduate research in Pacific education: Interpretivism and other trends', *Prospects*, 42, pp. 221–233. doi: DOI 10.1007/s11125-012-9230-1.
- Busher, H., James, N., Piela, A. and Palmer, A. (2014) 'Transforming marginalised adult learners' views of themselves: Access to Higher Education courses in England', *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 35(5), pp. 800–817. doi: 10.1080/01425692.2014.919842.
- Busher, H. and James, N. (2012) 'The ethical framework of research practice', in Briggs, A., Coleman, M., and Morrison, M. (eds) *Research Methods in Educational Leadership and Management*. 3rd edn. London: Sage.
- Busher, H., James, N. and Piela, A. (2015) 'On reflection: mature students' views of teaching and learning on Access to Higher Education Courses', *International Studies in Sociology of Education*. doi: 10.1080/09620214.2015.1083405.
- Calderhead, J. (1996) 'Teachers: beliefs and knowledge', in Berliner, D. C. and Calfee, R. C. (eds) *Handbook of Educational Psychology*. New York: Macmillan, pp. 709–725.
- Canagarajah, A. S. (1993) 'American textbooks and Tamil students: Discerning ideological tensions in the ESL classroom', *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 6(2), pp. 143–156. doi: 10.1080/07908319309525145.
- Canagarajah, A. S. (1999) *Resisting Linguistic Imperialism in English Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Carrió-Pastora, M. L. and Skorczynskab, H. (2015) 'Collaborative learning and communication technologies in teaching business English', *Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 178, pp. 32 – 37.
- Catania, A. C. (1980) 'Operant Theory: Skinner', in Gazda, G. M. and Corsini, R. J. (eds) *Theories of Learning*. Illinois: F.E Peacock Publisher, Inc.
- Chan, E. (2006) 'Teacher experiences of culture in the curriculum', *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 38(2), pp. 161–176. doi: 10.1080/00220270500391605.
- Chang, H. (2008) 'Culture: A web of self and others', in Chang, H. (ed.) *Autoethnography as Method*. Walnut Creek, CA: Left Coast Press, pp. 15–29.
- Choi, J. and Nunan, D. (2018) 'Language learning and activation in and beyond the classroom', *Australian Journal of Applied Linguistics*. doi: 10.29140/ajal.v1n2.34.
- Chowdhury, I. A. (2015) 'Issue of Quality in a Qualitative Research: an overview', *Innovative Issues and Approaches in Social Sciences*, 8(1), pp. 142–162.
- Cohen, L. and Manion, L. (1989) *Research Methods in Education*. 3rd edn. London: Routledge.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. (2011) *Research Methods in Education, Education*. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8527.2007.00388\_4.x.
- Coleman, H. (1996) 'Society and the language classroom', *loc.gov*. Available at: <http://www.loc.gov/catdir/samples/cam034/97158510.pdf>.

- Confucius (2000) *The Analects*, Oxford Worlds Classics. doi: 10.1016/j.jcrysgro.2010.11.159.
- Converse, J. and Presser, S. (1986) *Survey Questions: Handcrafting the Standardized Questionnaire*. Sage Unive. Beverly Hills: Sage.
- Cook-Sather, A. (2006) “‘Change based on what students say’: Preparing teachers for a paradoxical model of leadership”, *International Journal of Leadership in Education*. doi: 10.1080/13603120600895437.
- Cook, T. (2009) ‘The purpose of mess in action research: building rigour though a messy turn’, *Educational Action Research*, 17(2), pp. 277–291. doi: 10.1080/09650790902914241.
- Cook, V. (2008) *Second Language Learning and Language Teaching, Empirical approaches to Language Learning ECML*. doi: 10.2307/358567.
- Corbetta, P. (2003) ‘Social Research: Theory, Methods and Techniques’, *European Urban and Regional Studies*, 10(3), p. 340. Available at: [http://books.google.es/books?id=i6eWT-K0R\\_YC](http://books.google.es/books?id=i6eWT-K0R_YC).
- Cortazzi, M. (1993) ‘Using activity cards on training courses for language teachers’, *The Teacher Trainer*, 7(1), pp. 15–19.
- Cortazzi, M. and Jin, L. (1996a) ‘Cultures of Learning: Language Classrooms in China’, in Coleman, H. (ed.) *Society and the Language Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 169–208.
- Cortazzi, M. and Jin, L. (1996b) ‘State of the art article: English teaching and learning in China’, *Language Teaching*, 29(2), pp. 61–80.
- Cortazzi, M. and Jin, L. (2001) ‘Large classes in China: “Good teachers” and interaction’, in Watkins, D. A. and Biggs, J. B. (eds) *Teaching the Chinese learner: psychological and pedagogical perspectives*. Hong Kong: Comparative Education Research Centre, University of Hong Kong, pp. 115–34.
- Cortazzi, M. and Jin, L. (2011) ‘Conclusions: What are we learning from research about Chinese learners?’, in Cortazzi, M. and Jin, L. (eds) *Researching Chinese learners: Skills, perceptions and intercultural adaptations*. London: Palgrave Macmillan, pp. 304–318.
- Cortazzi, M. and Jin, L. (2013) *Researching cultures of learning: international perspectives on language learning and education*. Houndmills: Palgrave MacMillian.
- Cortazzi, M. and Jin, L. (2017) ‘Practising cultures of learning in internationalising universities’, *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 38(3), pp. 237–250.
- Cotterall, S. (1995) ‘Readiness for autonomy: Investigating learner beliefs’, *System*. doi: 10.1016/0346-251X(95)00008-8.
- Cresswell, J. W. (2003) ‘Qualitative, Quantitative. and Mixed Methods Approaches’, in *Research Design, Second Edition*. doi: 10.3109/08941939.2012.723954.
- Denzin, N. K. (2002) ‘The Interpretive Process’, in Huberman, M. and Miles, M. (eds) *The Qualitative Researcher’s Companion*. Thousand Oaks, London, New Delhi: Sage



Publications, pp. 349–366.

Diana, P. *et al.* (2015) 'Teaching migration studies through collaborative learning practices in an intercultural environment: The case of the Erasmus ip sono un migrante', *Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 174, pp. 510 – 517.

Diaz, A., Cochran, K. and Karlin, N. (2016) 'The Influence of Teacher Power on English Language Learners' Self-Perceptions of Learner Empowerment', *College Teaching*. doi: 10.1080/87567555.2015.1126801.

DIKTI (2008) 'Buku Panduan Pengembangan Kurikulum Berbasis Kompetensi Pendidikan Tinggi. The Guide for the Development of Competency Based Curriculum in Higher Education. Translated by Hornay, P.' Indonesia. Available at: [www.unm.ac.id/files/surat/BUKU-Panduan-KBK.pdf](http://www.unm.ac.id/files/surat/BUKU-Panduan-KBK.pdf).

DIKTI (2014) 'Buku Panduan Kurikulum Pendidikan Tinggi. The Guidebook for Higher Education Curriculum. Translated by Hornay, P.' Indonesia. Available at: <http://www.slideshare.net/DennyHelard/buku-panduankurikulumdiktipembelajaran2014>.

DIKTI (2016) 'Buku Panduan Kurikulum Pendidikan Tinggi. The Guidebook for Higher Education Curriculum. Translated by Hornay, P'. Indonesia. Available at: <http://www3.upi.edu/main/file/akademik/63f58-panduan-penyusunan-kurikulum-pt.pdf>.

Dillenbourg, P. (1999) 'What do you mean by ' collaborative learning '?', *Collaborative learning Cognitive and computational approaches*, 1(6), pp. 1–15. doi: 10.1.1.167.4896.

Direktorat Akademik, D. (2008) 'Panduan Pengembangan Kurikulum Berbasis Kompetensi Pendidikan Tinggi.', *Group*, p. 49. Available at: <http://www.unud.ac.id/ind/wp-content/uploads/buku-panduan-kurikulum-kbk.pdf>.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007) *Research methods in applied linguistics: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methodologies*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. doi: 10.5054/tj.2010.215611.

Dubin, F. & Olshtain, E. (1997) *Course Design: Developing Programs and Materials for Language Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Duranti, A. (1997) *Linguistic anthropology, Cambridge textbooks in linguistics*. doi: 10.1525/aa.1998.100.3.798.

Eisenbach, B. B. (2012) 'Teacher Belief and Practice in a Scripted Curriculum', *The Clearing House*, 85(April 2015), pp. 153–156. doi: 10.1080/00098655.2012.663816.

Ellis, R., Tanaka, Y. and Yamazaki, A. (1994) 'Classroom Interaction, Comprehension, and the Acquisition of L2 Word Meanings', *Language Learning*. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-1770.1994.tb01114.x.

Emre Debreli (2012) 'Change in beliefs of pre-service teachers about teaching and learning English as a foreign language throughout an undergraduate pre-service teacher training program', *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 46(367 – 373).

Fairfield, C. and Richards, B. (2007) 'Reported voice difficulties in student teachers: A questionnaire survey', *British Journal of Educational Studies*. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8527.2007.00387.x.

- Falout, J., Murphey, T., Fakuda, T. and Trovela, M. (2013) 'Japanese EFL Learners' Remotivation Strategies', in Cortazzi, M. and Jin, L. (eds) *Researching Cultures of Learning*. Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan, pp. 328–350.
- Fatihi, A. R. (2003) 'The role of Needs Analysis in ESL program design', *South Asian Language Review*, 13(1 & 2), pp. 39–59.
- Fink, A. (2003) *How To Design Survey Studies, Design*. doi: 10.4135/9781412984447.
- Fiona, C., Beasley, L., Eland, J. and Rumpus, A. (2007) *Hearing the student voice*. Edinburgh: Napier University.
- Flick, U. (2007) *Designing qualitative research, The Sage qualitative research kit*. doi: 10.4135/9781849208826.
- Flick, U. (2009) 'An introduction to qualitative research', *Sage*, 4th, p. 529. Available at: <http://books.google.cz/books?id=sFv1oWX2DoEC>.
- Flick, U. (2011) 'Mixing Methods, Triangulation, and Integrated Research: Challenges for Qualitative Research in a World of Crisis', in Denzin, N. K. and Giardina, M. D. (eds) *Qualitative Inquiry and Global Crises*. California: Left Coast Press.
- Fox, H. (1994) *Listening to the World: Cultural Issues in Academic Writing*. Chicago: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Furrer, O. (2000) 'The relationships between culture and service quality perceptions: Basis for cross-cultural market segmentation and resource allocation', *Journal of Service Research*, 2(4).
- Gabrenya, W. K. J. (2003) *Research Skills for Psychology Majors: Everything You Need to Know to Get Started*. Melbourne: Florida Institute of Technology.
- Garna, J. (1991) *Beberapa Dasar Ilmu-Ilmu Sosial*. Bandung: Universitas Padjadjaran.
- Garna, J. (1993) *Tradisi, Transformasi, Modernisasi dan Tantangan Masa Depan di Nusantara*. Bandung: Universitas Padjadjaran.
- Gass, S. M. (1997) *Input, interaction, and the second language learner*. Mahwah: NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Gass, S. and Varonis, E. M. (1984) 'THE EFFECT OF FAMILIARITY ON THE COMPREHENSIBILITY OF NONNATIVE SPEECH', *Language Learning*. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-1770.1984.tb00996.x.
- Gillham, B. (2000) *The Research Interview*. London: Continuum.
- Glenwright, P. (2000) *The Hong Kong 'Culture of Learning': Origins and Effects*. University of Leicester.
- Golafshani, N. (2003) 'Understanding Reliability and Validity in Qualitative Research', *The Qualitative Report*.
- Golish, T. D. and Olson, L. N. (2000) 'Students' use of power in the classroom: An investigation of student power, teacher power, and teacher immediacy', *International Journal of Phytoremediation*. doi: 10.1080/01463370009385598.
- Goodman, J. F. and Eren, N. S. (2013) 'Student agency: success, failure, and lessons learned', *Ethics and Education*, 8(2), pp. 123–139.

- Goodwin, A. . (2010) 'Globalization and the preparation of quality teachers: rethinking knowledge domains for teaching', *Teaching Education*, 62(4). doi: 10.1080/10476210903466901.
- Grant, B. M. and Giddings, L. S. (2002) 'Making sense of methodologies: A paradigm framework for the novice researcher', *Contemporary Nurse*, 13(1), pp. 10–28.
- Graves, K. (1996) 'A framework of course development processes', in Graves, Kathleen (ed.) *Teachers as Course Developers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 12–38.
- Graves, K. (2000) *Designing Language Courses*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Grimshaw, T. (2007) 'Problematizing the construct of "the Chinese learner": insights from ethnographic research', *Educational Studies*, 33(March 2015), pp. 299–311. doi: 10.1080/03055690701425643.
- Gullberg, M., Roberts, L., Dimroth, C., Veroude, K. and Indefrey, P. (2010) 'Adult Language Learning After Minimal Exposure to an Unknown Natural Language', *Language Learning*, 60(2), pp. 5–24.
- Harmer, J. (2003) 'The Practice of English Language Teaching', *ELT Journal*, 57(October), pp. 401–405. doi: 10.1093/elt/57.4.401.
- Harmer, J. (2007) *How to Teach English*. Essex: Pearson Education Limited.
- Hearn, M. and Foucault, M. (2004) 'Society Must Be Defended: Lectures at the Collège de France, 1975-76', *Labour History*. doi: 10.2307/27515985.
- Hernawan, A. H. and Susilana, R. (2010) *Konsep Dasar Kurikulum*. Pamulang: Penerbit Universitas Terbuka.
- Hofstede, G. (1986) 'Cultural Differences in Teaching and Learning', *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 10, pp. 301–320.
- Holliday, A. (2010) 'Cultural descriptions as political cultural acts: an exploration', *Language and Intercultural Communication*, 10(3), pp. 259–272. doi: 10.1080/14708470903348572.
- Holliday, A. (2013) *Understanding intercultural communication: Negotiating a grammar of culture*. New York: Routledge. doi: 10.4324/9780203492635.
- Horwitz, E. K. (1999) 'Cultural and situational influences on foreign language learners' beliefs about language learning: A review of BALLI studies', *System*. doi: 10.1016/S0346-251X(99)00050-0.
- Horwitz, E. K. (1988) 'The Beliefs about Language Learning of Beginning University Foreign Language Students', *The Modern Language Journal*. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1988.tb04190.x.
- Hu, G. (2002) 'Potential cultural resistance to pedagogical imports: The case of communicative language teaching in China', *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 15(2), pp. 93–105.
- Hull, L. (1996) 'A Curriculum Framework for Corporate Language Programs', in Kathleen Graves (ed.) *Teachers as Course Developers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Hussein, A. (2009) 'The use of triangulation in social sciences research: Can qualitative and quantitative methods be combined', *Journal of Comparative Social Work*, 1, pp. 1–12.
- Huyen, L. T. T. and Ha, P. Le (2013) 'Problematizing the Culture of Learning English in Vietnam: Revisiting Teacher Identity', in Cortazzi, M. and Jin, L. (eds) *Researching Cultures of Learning*. Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan, pp. 248–265.
- Illeris, K. (2007) *How We Learn: Learning and Non-learning in School and Beyond*. Oxon: Routledge.
- Indonesia-Investments (2016) *Penduduk Indonesia*. Available at: <http://www.indonesia-investments.com/id/budaya/penduduk/item67> (Accessed: 11 May 2016).
- Izumi, S. (2003) 'Comprehension and Production Processes in Second Language Learning: In Search of the Psycholinguistic Rationale of the Output Hypothesis', *Applied Linguistics*. doi: 10.1093/applin/24.2.168.
- Jarvela, S. and Niemivirta, M. (1999) 'The changes in learning theory and the topicality of the recent research on motivation', *Research Dialogue in Learning and Instruction*, 1, pp. 57–65.
- Jin, L. and Cortazzi, M. (2006) 'Changing practices in Chinese cultures of learning', *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 19(1), pp. 5–20. doi: 10.1080/07908310608668751.
- Joannides, V., Wickramasinghe, D. and Berland, N. (2012) 'Critiques on Grayhofstede's Model: What impact on cross-cultural accounting research?', in *Comptabilités et innovations*. Grenoble, France, pp. 1–42.
- Johnson, R. K. (ed.) (1989) *The Second Language Curriculum*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kalaja, P. (2003) 'Research on Students' Beliefs about SLA within a Discursive Approach', in. doi: 10.1007/978-1-4020-4751-0\_4.
- Kane, R. G. and Chimwayange, C. (2014) 'Teacher action research and student voice: Making sense of learning in secondary school', *Action Research*, 12(1), pp. 52–77. doi: 10.1177/1476750313515282.
- Kato, K. (2001) 'Exploring "Cultures of Learning": A case of Japanese and Australian classrooms', *Journal of Intercultural Studies*, 22(1), pp. 51–67. doi: 10.1080/07256860120037445.
- Kecskes, I. (2015) 'How does pragmatic competence develop in bilinguals?', *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 12(4), pp. 419–434.
- KEMENDIKBUD (2012) 'DOKUMEN KURIKULUM 2013. Curriculum Document 2013. Translated by Hornay, P.' Indonesia. Available at: <http://tania.fkip.uns.ac.id/wp-content/uploads/dokumen-kurikulum-2013.pdf>.
- King, J. (2013) 'Silence in the second language classrooms of Japanese Universities', *Applied Linguistics*. doi: 10.1093/applin/ams043.
- Kirk, J. and Miller, M. (1986) *Reliability and Validity in Qualitative Research*. doi: 10.4135/9781412985659.

- Koentjaraningrat (1966) *Pengantar Antropologi*. Jakarta: Penerbit Universitas.
- Koentjaraningrat (1974) *Kebudayaan, Mentalitas dan Pembangunan*. Jakarta: PT Gramedia.
- Koentjaraningrat (2015) *Pengantar Ilmu Antropologi*. Jakarta: PT Rineka Citra.
- Kuhn, T. (1970) *The structure of scientific revolutions*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003) 'Problematizing cultural stereotypes in TESOL', *TESOL Quarterly*, 37(4), pp. 709–719. doi: 10.2307/3588219.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006) *Understanding Language Teaching: From Method to Postmethod*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Larson, K. (2014) 'Critical pedagogy(ies) for ELT in Indonesia', *TEFLIN Journal*, 25(1), pp. 122–138.
- Lauder, A. (2008) 'The status and function of English in Indonesia: A review of key factors', *Sosial Humaniora*, 12(1), pp. 9–20. doi: 10.1145/2461121.2461144.
- Lave, J. and Wenger, E. (1991) *Situated Learning: Legitimate Peripheral Participation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lee Abbott, M. and McKinney, J. (2013) *Understanding and Applying Research Design, Understanding and Applying Research Design*. doi: 10.1002/9781118647325.
- Lewis, R. B. (2004) 'NVivo 2.0 and ATLAS.ti 5.0: A Comparative Review of Two Popular Qualitative Data-Analysis Programs', *Field Methods*. doi: 10.1177/1525822x04269174.
- Lin, H.-J. (2011) 'Language Learning Strategies in Adult L3 Acquisition: Relationship between L3 Development, Strategy Use, L2 Levels, and Gender', in Sanz, C. and Leow, R. P. (eds) *Implicit and Explicit Language Learning Conditions, Processes, and Knowledge in SLA and Bilingualism*. Georgetown: Georgetown University Press, pp. 207–218.
- Lincoln, Y. . and Guba, E. . (1985) *Naturalistic Inquiry*. London: Sage.
- Littlewood, W. (2000) 'Do Asian Students Really Want to Listen and Obey?', *ELT Journal*, 54(1), pp. 31–36. doi: 10.1093/elt/54.1.31.
- Liu, J. (2001) *Asian Students' Classroom Communication Patterns in U.S. Universities: An Emic Perspective*. Westport, CT: Ablex.
- Loschky, L. (1994) 'Comprehensible Input and Second Language Acquisition: What Is the Relationship?', *STUDIES IN SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION*.
- Mackey, A. (1995) *Stepping up the pace: Input, interaction and interlanguage development, an empirical study on questions in ESL*. University of Sydney.
- Madya, S. (2002) 'Developing standards for EFL in Indonesia as part of the EFL teaching reform', *TEFLIN Journal*, 13(2), pp. 142–151.
- Makhanova, G. and Cortazzi, M. (2013) 'Kazakh Students' Perceptions of Good English Teachers: Multiple Heritages', in Cortazzi, Martin and Jin, L. (eds) *Researching Cultures of Learning*. Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan, pp. 179–202.

- Makhanova, G and Cortazzi, M. (2013) 'Kazakh Students' Perceptions of Good English Teachers: Multiple Heritages in a Culture of Learning In (Eds.), *Researching Cultures of Learning* (pp. ). : Macmillan.', in Cortazzi, Martin and Jin, L. (eds) *Researching Cultures of Learning*. Houndmills: Palgrave, pp. 179–202.
- Marcellino, M. (2008) 'English Language Teaching in Indonesia: A Continuousn Challenge in Education and Cultural Diversity', *TEFLIN Journal*, 19(1).
- Mardiana (2008) 'Culture-oriented in EFL curriculum for secondary schools in Indonesia', *Lentera Pendidikan*, 11(1), pp. 115–128.
- Mason, J. (2006) 'Mixing methods in a qualitatively-driven way', *Qualitative Research*, 6, pp. 9–26.
- Mat, A. C., & Soon, G. Y. (2010) 'Grammar in the classroom: students expectation and reality', *Novitas-ROYAL (Research on Youth and Language)*, 4(1), pp. 51–63.
- Matsumoto, D. (2000) 'Culture and Psychology: People Around the World', *Culture and Psychology*, p. 570.
- Mattarima, K. and Hamdam, A. (2011) 'Learners' motivationand learning strategies in English foreign language (EFL) in Indonesia context', *Journal of Edupres*, 1, pp. 100–108.
- Maxwell, J. (2002) 'Understanding and validity in qualitative research', in Huberman, M. and Miles, M. (eds) *The Qualitative Researcher's Companion*. London: Sage Publications, pp. 37–64.
- McLeod, J. (2011) 'Student voice and the politics of listening in higher education', *Critical Studies in Education*. doi: 10.1080/17508487.2011.572830.
- McSweeney, B. (2002) 'The essentials of scholarship: a reply to Geert Hofstede', *Human Relations*, 55, pp. 1363–1372.
- Melissa, E. (2010) *Budaya Digital dan Perubahan Konsumsi Media Masyarakat*. Tangerang.
- Miswanto (2012) 'Dunia Pendidikan dalam Perspektif Hindu', in *Seminar Nasional Pendidikan*. Banyuwangi. Available at: <https://www.scribd.com/doc/89585625/Dunia-Pendidikan-Dalam-Perspektif-Hindu>.
- Moore, A. (2012) *Teaching and learning: pedagogy, curriculum, and culture*. Second Edi. Abingdon, Oxon: Routledge.
- Mori, Y. (1999) 'Epistemological beliefs and language learning beliefs: What do language learners believe about their learning?', *Language Learning*. doi: 10.1111/0023-8333.00094.
- Mulder, N. (1989) *Individual and society in jawa: a cultural analysis*. Yogyakarta: Gadjah Mada University Press.
- Murase, F. (2012) 'Learner Autonomy in Asia: How Asian Teachers and Students See Themselves', in Muller, T. et al. (eds) *Innovating EFL Teaching in Asia*. London: Palgrave Macmillan, pp. 66–81.
- Nabhani, M., Busher, H. and Bahous, R. (2012) 'Cultures of engagement in challenging circumstances: Four Lebanese primary schools in urban Beirut', *School Leadership and*

*Management*, 32, pp. 37–55.

Nasrin, H. T. (2007) 'Chaos / complexity theory in second language acquisition', *Novitas-ROYAL*, 1(1), pp. 10–17.

Nation, I. S. P. and Macalister, J. (2010) *Language Curriculum Design, World Englishes*. doi: 10.1136/bmj.326.7383.268.

Nemati, M. and Kaivanpanah, S. (2013) "“He or She?” Examining Cultural Influences on Iranian Language Learners’ Perceptions of Teacher Efficacy", in Cortazzi, M. and Jin, L. (eds) *Researching Cultures of Learning*. Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan, pp. 203–221.

Nes, F. van *et al.* (2010) 'Language differences in qualitative research: is meaning lost in translation?', *Eur J Ageing*, 7, pp. 313–316.

Nunan, D. (1988) 'The learner-centred curriculum: A study in second language teaching', *Booksgooglecom*, p. 196.

Nwanyanwu, A. (2017) 'The Effective Teaching of English Language in Multicultural L2 Classrooms: The Nigerian Perspective', *International Journal of English Language Teaching*, 5(4), pp. 26–31.

Olson, M. and Hergenhahn, B. R. (2009) *An introduction of theories of learning*. 8th edn. New Jersey: Pearson Education Limited.

Orr, T. (2001) 'English Language Education for Specific Professional Needs', *IEEE Trans. Prof Comm*, 44(3), pp. 207–211.

Özmen, K. S. G. E. T. (2012) 'Exploring Student Teachers’ Beliefs about Language Learning and Teaching: A Longitudinal Study', *Current Issues in Education*, 15(1), pp. 1–15. Available at:  
<http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=ofm&AN=88843585&lang=es&site=ehost-live>.

Patten, B. (1997) 'How language teaching is constructed: introduction to the special issue', *Modern Language Journal*, 81, pp. 1–5.

Patton, M. Q. (2002) *Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods*. 3rd edn. California: Sage Publications.

Pavlov, I. P. (1960) *Conditioned Reflexes*. New York: Dover Publications.

Perry, W. (1999) *Forms of Ethical and Intellectual Development in the College Years*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Ping, A. M., Baranovich, D., Manuelli, M. K. and Siraj, S. (2015) 'Promoting Self-Regulation in Vocabulary Learning among Chinese EFL Learners: A Needs Analysis', *Asia-Pacific Edu Res*, 24(1), pp. 137–146.

Pishghadam, R., Zabihi, R. and Shayesteh, S. (2014) 'The Perception-Practicum Interface Revisited: Life-wise Language Teaching Perceptions and Teacher Burnout', *Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*. doi: 10.1007/s40299-013-0104-y.

Rahim, H. and Manan, S. (2013) 'Towards Transformative English Language Education: Evolving Glocalization in Textbooks Used in Malaysia', in Cortazzi, M. and Jin, L. (eds) *Researching Cultures of Learning*. Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan, pp.

155–178.

Ranjabar, J. (2016) *Sistem Sosial Budaya Indonesia*. Bandung: Alfabeta.

Rast, R. (2010) 'The Role of Linguistic Input in the First Hours of Adult Language Learning', *Language Learning*, 60(2), pp. 64–84.

Ratih, K. and Laurence, T. (2015) 'Pedagogy and English language: examining the synchronicity of global and local teacher education policy and EFL teacher education in constituting quality EFL teacher in indonesia', in *9th International Conference on Researching Work and Learning*. Singapore: Unknown, pp. 793–806.

Richard Pring (2010) *Philosophy of Educational Research*. 2nd edn. London: Continuum International Publishing.

Richards, J. C. (2006) *Communicative Language Teaching Today*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C. (2013) 'Curriculum Approaches in Language Teaching: Forward, Central, and Backward Design', *RELC Journal*, 44(1), pp. 5–33. doi: 10.1177/0033688212473293.

Richards, J. C. (2017) 'Teaching English through English: Proficiency, Pedagogy and Performance', *RELC Journal*. doi: 10.1177/0033688217690059.

Richmond, V. P., McCroskey, J. C. and Wagner, J. P. (1983) 'The impact of perceptions of leadership style, use of power, and conflict management style on organizational outcomes', *Communication Quarterly*. doi: 10.1080/01463378309369482.

Richterich, R. (1980) 'Definitions of Language Type of Adults', in Trim, J. L., M. R. Richterich, J. A. Van Ek, D. A. W. (ed.) *Systems Development in Adult Language Learning*. Oxford: Pergamon Press., pp. 31–88.

Rizal, H. (2009) *Tafsir Tarbawi, Pendidikan dalam Perspektif Al'Quran*, WordPress. Available at: <https://hasanrizal.wordpress.com/2009/10/21/tafsir-tarbawi-pendidikan-dalam-perspektif-al-qur'an/>.

Rizvi, F. (2011) 'Beyond the Social Imaginary of "Clash of Civilizations"?', *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 43(3), pp. 225–235. doi: 10.1111/j.1469-5812.2009.00593.x.

Ross, D. N. (1999) 'Culture as a context for multinational business: A framework for assessing the strategy-culture "fit"', *Multinational Business Review*, 7(1), pp. 13–19.

Sahiruddin (2013) 'The Implementation of the 2013 Curriculum and the Issues of English Language Teaching and Learning in Indonesia', in *The Asian Conference on Language Learning 2013*. Osaka.

Saziye, Y. (2016) 'A study on reflection as a source of teacher development: Pre-service and experienced teachers', *Educational Research and Reviews*. doi: 10.5897/err2016.2634.

Schrodt, P., Witt, P. L., Myers, S. A., Turman, P.D, and Barton, M. H. (2008) 'Learner empowerment and teacher evaluations as functions of teacher power use in the college classroom', *Communication Education*. doi: 10.1080/03634520701840303.



- Scollon, S. (1999) 'Not to waste words or students: Confucian and Socratic discourse in the tertiary classroom', in Hinkel, E. (ed.) *Culture in Second Language Teaching and Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 13–27.
- Seale, J. (2010) 'Doing student voice work in higher education: An exploration of the value of participatory methods', *British Educational Research Journal*. doi: 10.1080/01411920903342038.
- Seymen, S. (2012) 'Beliefs and expectations of student teachers' about their self and role as teacher during teaching practice course', *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 46, pp. 1042 – 1046.
- Shaw, A. M. (1977) 'Foreign-language syllabus development: some recent approaches.', *Language Teaching*, 10(4), pp. 217–233.
- Shenton, A. K. (2004) 'Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research projects', *Education for Information*, 22, pp. 63–75.
- Shi, L. (2006) 'The successors to Confucianism or a new generation? A questionnaire study on Chinese students' culture of learning English', *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 19(1), pp. 122–147.
- Da Silva, V. M. (2015) 'Development professional program in teaching grammar: (re)construction of EFL teacher's pedagogical practices', *ECCOM*, 6(12), pp. 39–50.
- Silverman, D. (2013) *Doing Qualitative Research*. 4th edn. London: Sage Publications.
- Skinner, B. F. (1938) *Behavior of Organisms: An Experimental Analysis*. New York: Appleton Century Crofts.
- Smagorinsky, P. (2009) 'Is It Time to Abandon the Idea of "Best Practices" in the Teaching of English?', *English Journal*, 98(6), pp. 15–22.
- Solak, E. (2012) 'A Study of Needs Analysis at Turkish Gendarmerie in Terms of English for Specific Purposes', *The Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 8(2), pp. 48–63.
- Soruc, A. (2012) 'The Role of Needs Analysis in Language Program Renewal Process', *Mevlana International Journal of Education*, 2(1), pp. 36–47.
- Spack, R. (1997) 'The Rhetorical Construction of Multilingual Students', *TESOL*, 31(4), pp. 765–774. Available at: <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3587759>.
- Strauss, A. L. and Corbin, J. M. (2008) *Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990)., Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques*. Newbury. doi: 10.4135/9781452230153.
- Sub-directorate of Statistical Compilation and Publication (2018) *Statistical Yearbook of Indonesia 2018*. Edited by Sub-directorate of Statistical Compilation and Publication. Jakarta: BPS-Statistics Indonesia. Available at: <https://www.bps.go.id/publication/2018/07/03/5a963c1ea9b0fed6497d0845/statistik-indonesia-2018.html>.
- Sukardi, T. and Subandowo (2014) 'Mencari Format Baru Pendidikan Berbasis Multikultural di Indonesia', *Sosio Didaktika*, 1(1), pp. 99–110.
- Sulistiyo, U. (2015) *Improving English as a Foreign Language Teacher Education in*

- Indonesia: The Case of Jambi University*. RMIT University, Melbourne, Australia.
- Sumartono (2009) 'Sifat, perilaku dan pandangan masyarakat Jawa dalam kehidupan bermasyarakat yang multikultural', in Hermaji, B. and Saddhono, K. (eds) *Peran bahasa, sastra, dan budaya Indonesia dalam menciptakan kedamaian hidup masyarakat multikultural*. Cakra Books. Available at: [http://perpus.upstegal.ac.id/files/e\\_book/artikel\\_102.pdf](http://perpus.upstegal.ac.id/files/e_book/artikel_102.pdf).
- Sunengsih, N. and Fahrurrozi, A. (2015) 'Learners' Language Needs Analysis of English Subject in Azkia Integrated Islamic Primary School', *Indonesian Journal of English Education*, 2(1), pp. 86–100.
- Sutanto, T. (2016) 'Budaya Digital Indonesia', *Republika*, April. Available at: <https://republika.co.id/berita/o5va0622/budaya-digital-indonesia>.
- Swain, M. (2005) 'The output hypothesis: Theory and research', in *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning*.
- Tarone, E. and Liu, G. (1995) 'Situational context, variation, and second language acquisition theory', in *Principle and Practice in Applied Linguistics: Studies in honour of H.G. Widdowson*.
- Taylor, C. and Robinson, C. (2009) 'Student voice: Theorising power and participation', *Pedagogy, Culture and Society*. doi: 10.1080/14681360902934392.
- Tsui, A. B. M. (1996) 'Reticence and anxiety in second language learning', in N., K. B. D. (ed.) *Voices from the language classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 145–167.
- Tsui, A. B. M. and Ng, M. M. Y. (2010) 'Cultural Contexts and Situated Possibilities in the Teaching of Second Language Writing', *Journal of Teacher Education*, 61(4), pp. 364–375.
- Turman, P. D. and Schrodt, P. (2006) 'Student perceptions of teacher power as a function of perceived teacher confirmation', *Communication Education*. doi: 10.1080/03634520600702570.
- UN (2014) *The Millennium Development Goals Report 2014*. New York: United Nations.
- UNESCO (2014) *EFA, Global Monitoring Report*. Paris: UNESCO.
- Vaus, D. de (2014) *Surveys in Social research*. 6th edn. Oxon: Routledge.
- Victori, M. and Lockhart, W. (1995) 'Enhancing metacognition in self-directed language learning', *System*. doi: 10.1016/0346-251X(95)00010-H.
- Vygotsky, L. (1962) *Thought and Language*. Cambridge, MA: Massachusetts Institute of Technology Press.
- Wang, J. (2013) 'Understanding the Chinese Learners from a Perspective of Confucianism', in Cortazzi, M. and Jin, L. (eds) *Researching Cultures of Learning*. Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan, pp. 61–79.
- Wartomo (2016) 'Wartomo', in *Prosiding Temu Ilmiah Nasional Guru (TING) VIII*. Jakarta, pp. 265–275.

- Weeks, F. (2012) 'How does a Culture of Learning Impact on Student Behaviour?', *Journal of Social Sciences*, 8(3), pp. 332–342.
- Welle-Strand, A. and Tjeldvoll, A. (2003) 'Creativity, Curricula and Paradigms', *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 43(3), pp. 359–372.
- Wenas, M. L. (2017) 'Signifikansi pendidikan anak dalam perspektif alkitab', *Evangelikal*, 1(2), pp. 118–128. Available at: <https://journal.sttsimpson.ac.id/index.php/EJTI/article/download/69/pdf>.
- Wenden, A. L. (1999) 'An introduction to Metacognitive Knowledge and Beliefs in Language Learning: beyond the basics', *System*. doi: 10.1016/s0346-251x(99)00043-3.
- Weyers, M., Strydom, H. and Huisamen, A. (2008) 'Triangulation in social work research: The theory and examples of its practical application', *Social Work*, 44(2), pp. 207–222.
- Whitacre, M., Diaz, Z. and Esquierdo, J. (2013) 'Pre-Service Teachers: An Analysis of Reading Instruction in High Needs Districts Dual Language Classrooms', *International Journal of Instruction*, 6(1).
- Woods, P. (1996) *Researching the Art of Teaching: Ethnography for Educational Use*. London: Routledge.
- Wragg, E. C. (1999) *An Introduction to Classroom Observation, Education*. doi: 10.4324/9780203018958.
- Wubbels, T., Brekelmans, M., Brok, P. D. and Tartwijk, J. (2006) 'An interpersonal perspective on Classroom Management in Secondary Classrooms in the Netherlands', *Handbook of classroom management: Research, Practice, and Contemporary Issues*.
- Xinping, Z. (2002) 'Interpretivist Research, Positivist Research, and Field Research', *Chinese Education & Society*, 35(2), pp. 39–46.
- Xu, L. (2012) 'The Role of Teachers' Beliefs in the Language Teaching-learning Process', *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2(7), pp. 1397–1402. doi: 10.4304/tpls.2.7.1397-1402.
- Yang, N. D. (1999) 'The relationship between EFL learners' beliefs and learning strategy use', *System*. doi: 10.1016/S0346-251X(99)00048-2.
- Yin, R. . (1994) *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*. London: Sage Publications.
- Yin, R. K. (2009) *Case study research : design and methods, Applied social research methods series* ; doi: 10.1097/FCH.0b013e31822dda9e.
- Yin, R. K. (2014) *Case study: design and methods*. 5th edn. California: Sage Publications.
- Yuan, Y. and Xie, Q. (2013) 'Cultures of Learning: An Evolving Concept and an Expanding Field', in Cortazzi, M. and Jin, L. (eds) *Researching Cultures of Learning*. Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan, pp. 21–40.
- Yuliawati, S. (2011) 'Measurement of sociocultural dimensions in the province of East Nusa Tenggara (a visit to domestic strategic study activities)', *Jurnal Penelitian dan Evaluasi Pendidikan*, 15(1), pp. 139–154. Available at: <https://journal.uny.ac.id/index.php/jpep/article/download/1091/1143>.

Zhu, W. . (1992) 'Confucius and Traditional Chinese Education: An Assessment', in *Education and Modernization: The Chinese Experience*. Oxford: Pergamon Press., pp. 3–22.

Zulu, B. M., Urbani, G., Merwe, A. V. D. and Walt, J. L. V. D. (2004) ' Violence as an impediment to a culture of teaching and learning in some South African Schools', *South Afr. J. Education*, 24, pp. 170–175.