Improving English as a Foreign Language Teacher Education in Indonesia: The Case of Jambi University

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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August, 2015
Declaration

I certify that except where due acknowledgement has been made, the work is that of the author alone; the work has not been submitted previously, in whole or in part, to qualify for any other academic award; the content of the thesis is the result of work which has been carried out since the official commencement date of the approved research program; any editorial work, paid or unpaid, carried out by a third party is acknowledged; and, ethics procedures and guidelines have been followed.

Urip Sulistiyo

August, 2015
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<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BT</td>
<td>Beginner Teachers</td>
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<tr>
<td>CLT</td>
<td>Communicative Language Teaching</td>
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<td>CBC</td>
<td>Competence-Based Curriculum</td>
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<tr>
<td>CBI</td>
<td>Content-Based Instruction</td>
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<tr>
<td>DGHE</td>
<td>Directorate General of Higher Education</td>
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<td>DoCE</td>
<td>Department of Culture and Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>EFL</td>
<td>English as a Foreign Language</td>
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<td>EFLTEP</td>
<td>English as a Foreign Language Teacher Education Program</td>
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<td>ELT</td>
<td>English Language Teaching</td>
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<tr>
<td>EMEE</td>
<td>Effective Mentoring in English Education</td>
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<td>EMI</td>
<td>English as a Medium of Instruction</td>
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<tr>
<td>ESL</td>
<td>English as a Second Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information and Communication Technology</td>
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<tr>
<td>KAL</td>
<td>Knowledge About Language</td>
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<tr>
<td>KTSP</td>
<td><em>Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan</em> (School-Based Curriculum)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MGMP</td>
<td><em>Musyawarah Guru Mata Pelajaran</em> (School Panel of Subject Teachers)</td>
</tr>
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<td>NNES</td>
<td>Non-Native English Speaker</td>
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<td>PCK</td>
<td>Pedagogical Content Knowledge</td>
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<tr>
<td>PISA</td>
<td>Program for International Student Assessment</td>
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<tr>
<td>RG</td>
<td>Recent Graduate</td>
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<td>SP</td>
<td>School Principal</td>
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<td>SAC</td>
<td>Self-Access Centre</td>
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<td>SLTE</td>
<td>Second Language Teacher Education</td>
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<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<tr>
<td>TE</td>
<td>Teacher Educator</td>
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<td>TEFL</td>
<td>Teaching English as a Foreign Language</td>
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<tr>
<td>TEFLS</td>
<td>Teaching English for Foreign Language Strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEYL</td>
<td>Teaching English for Young Learners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TPU</td>
<td>Teaching Practicum Unit</td>
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<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
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<tr>
<td>UMM</td>
<td>Universitas Muhammadiyah Malang</td>
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<td>UNRI</td>
<td>Universitas Riau</td>
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<tr>
<td>UPI</td>
<td>Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia</td>
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<td>US</td>
<td>United States</td>
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Abstract

This study is an investigation of an English teacher education program at a state-owned university in Indonesia. The aim of this study was to gather information about this teacher education program in order to improve the program. Information was gathered from recent teacher graduates’ and beginner teachers’ perceptions of their experiences as pre-service teachers in the English as a foreign language teacher education program (EFLTEP) of Jambi University. Information was also gathered from school principals’ and teacher educators’ perceptions of EFLTEP graduate as beginner teachers.

This study employed both qualitative and quantitative methods. Document analysis, a survey and interviews were used for data collection. Document analysis was used to explore the aims and content of the English teacher education program and official Indonesian English teacher education curriculum and policies. A survey was conducted to establish how the English teacher education graduates felt about their preparation to teach. Semi-structured interviews were used to expand the survey responses from graduates and collect information from the beginner teachers. Interviews with principals and teacher educators were used to obtain further data and evidence about the beginner teachers’ knowledge and preparedness to teach.

The survey findings indicated that both the beginner teachers and new graduates felt prepared in their English language and language teaching skills. Teaching practicum projects undertaken during the program provided suitable but limited experience for student teachers to translate their knowledge learnt at university into the real practice of teaching at school levels.

The other data revealed program areas in need of improvement to provide optimal support to student teachers. For future improvement of the program, the role of supervising teachers and teacher educators in assisting student teachers during the teaching practicum project should be a priority. The organisation and management of school–university partnerships for schools taking part in the teaching practicum requires attention to maximise benefits to student teachers.

School principals did not always perceive the language teaching skills and language knowledge of new teachers to be adequate for entering the teaching profession. Thus, program resourcing and teacher educator capacities to deliver the program need improvement. In addition, new English language teacher education policy and reform of the teacher education program at Jambi University is recommended to improve the quality of program delivery and its outcomes.
This study makes recommendations to improve the quality of this program. In particular, program curriculum reform for developing language knowledge and language teaching skills was required. In addition, improving the program’s teaching practicum, teacher educator professional development, and teaching and learning resources are crucial to the program’s quality.
Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background of the Study

In the contemporary world, English proficiency is vital for citizens in countries that seek to participate actively in the global economy, and require access to information and knowledge for social and economic development (Burns & Richards, 2009). In responding to the increasing need for English proficiency in this global era, Indonesia, as a developing country, has introduced English as a compulsory subject in junior and senior secondary schools, as well as at tertiary levels of education. However, English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching in Indonesia has experienced limited success. Previous studies have shown that EFL teaching in the Indonesian context has encountered significant problems, such as low teacher competence, low student motivation and low English competence among students (Lengkenawati, 2005; Luciana, 2006; Soepriyatna, 2012).

The ways English is taught plays a crucial role in its position, status and success as a foreign language in Indonesia (Lie, 2007). Students generally only encounter small amounts of English inside and outside classrooms due to English not being used for language instruction in classrooms, nor as a tool of communication during social interaction. This absence places a large responsibility on English teachers to ensure students learn English in a supportive atmosphere, and bring successful language learning into the classroom. Thus, teachers’ language knowledge and teaching skills, together with a suite of other complex skills, are important in the teaching of EFL (Burns & Richards, 2009).

Studies about teaching English in Indonesia (Hamied, 2001; Lengkenawati, 2005; Luciana, 2006) reveal that it is considered to be failing to develop learners’ competence due to factors such as teachers’ insufficient command of English, poor teaching and learning
facilities, and inadequate learning resources (Hamied, 2001; Lengkenawati, 2005). Another important factor that contributes to unsuccessful English language teaching is teacher education programs that are not well designed to produce the desired outcomes among EFL teacher graduates (Luciana, 2006). Yuwono (2005) emphasised that English teaching in Indonesian schools cannot operate successfully when there is an absence of suitably qualified teachers. Due to teacher shortages, some schools in rural areas employ English teachers who do not have English language teacher credentials. These teachers do not have adequate knowledge and skills to teach English to students, which results in less than optimum performance from teachers in helping students learn English.

In response to the importance and challenge of teaching English in Indonesia, over two decades ago, the Indonesian government initiated a policy to improve the quality of relevant teacher education programs. The strengthening of teacher education programs became a centrepiece of Indonesian government policy via a quality improvement campaign by the Ministry of Education and Culture (Nielsen, 1998). According to Nielsen (1998), at this time, Indonesia made serious efforts to improve the quality of its public schools through changes to teacher education. Since 1990, all public school teachers have had to upgrade their education from a two-year diploma to a three-year diploma, and then complete a four-year undergraduate teacher education program.

The literature about EFL in Indonesia suggests that the quality of English teachers who work with students in schools must be improved because they play the most important role in achieving the goals of English teaching and learning mandated by the Indonesian government. One of the most direct ways to improve the quality of English teachers in Indonesia is to improve the quality of the teacher education programs that are responsible for preparing student teachers with adequate English proficiency and teaching skills. Thus, this study focuses on the EFL teacher education program (EFLTEP) at Jambi University and its
effort to prepare EFL student teachers with adequate knowledge and the skills needed to teach English. To do so, this study investigates aspects such as teachers’ language proficiency, knowledge and teaching skills, alongside their teaching practicum experience.

This study is an investigation of an EFLTEP at a state-owned university in Indonesia. It gathered information about this EFLTEP in order to establish areas to improve the program in the future. To do this, the perceptions and experiences of recent graduates and beginner teachers were collected to determine how well they were equipped to teach, as well as principals’ and teacher educators’ judgements of beginner teachers’ preparedness to teach. Several previous studies were relevant to this research because they related to the quality of teacher education—such as those by Darling-Hammond (2006), Slovacek et al. (2003), Cochran-Smith (2001) and Andrew and Schwab (1993). These studies on teacher education are internationally recognised and helped the current research explore the topic of quality more broadly. For example, Darling-Hammond (2006) evaluated program outcomes in the Stanford teacher education program, and found that most employers felt that the program must prepare teacher candidates with knowledge and skills to cope with the responsibilities of school workloads. Slovacek et al.’s (2003) research on the assessment outcomes of pre-service teachers at the Charter College of Education at California State University also indicated that the program was crucial to developing pre-service teachers’ competence.

Other studies in the field of EFL/English as a second language (ESL) teacher education suggest there is a crucial need to equip EFL/ESL student teachers with adequate teaching knowledge and competency to ensure students’ engagement with learning English language in the classroom (Komur, 2010; Zhang & Zhan, 2014). This need also highlights the importance of teachers’ roles in the success of English language teaching and learning. For example, Komur (2010) pointed out that adequate knowledge, skills and competencies constitute the fundamentals of quality teaching. The findings of Komur’s study revealed that,
when student teachers were aware of what was happening in their classroom, through reflection, they developed strategies to cope with the problems and challenges of teaching a target language.

Zhang and Zhan (2014) studied EFL teaching in China to investigate the knowledge base of non-native English-speaking teachers. They found that language proficiency and teaching skills were the two major abilities that a competent EFL teacher should possess. Their findings suggested that teacher educators should consider the kinds of knowledge that non-native English-speaking teachers need for professional success in order to inform teacher education programs about better preparing student teachers for EFL teaching. In alignment with Zhang and Zhan (2014), Marcellino (2007) investigated English teachers’ performance in Indonesian schools, and found that teachers frequently used Indonesian to discuss the topics of the English lessons with the students. Based on the responses of the English teachers, this occurred when the teachers were not sufficiently confident using English as the language of instruction in the classroom because their language proficiency was inadequate. The participants in this study often uttered sentences containing grammatical errors, and often struggled to express their ideas in English.

Another study by Dang, Nguyen and Le (2013) identified reforms needed in English teacher education programs in response to a call for developing qualified teachers to implement the national language education plan in Vietnam. One of the ways to improve the quality of EFL teachers is by using the English as a medium of instruction (EMI) framework (Dang et al., 2013; Werther et al., 2014). This enhances future teachers’ practices, particularly in creating an English-speaking environment for their students. The idea of using EMI is relevant to improving the quality of English teachers’ language proficiency, especially in an EFL context, such as Indonesia, where EFL teachers are required to be role-model English users, as well as language input facilitators, in order to overcome the shortage of
English exposure outside the classroom. All of this emphasises that adequate teacher preparation is the key to improving beginner teacher competence in general, and for EFL/ESL in particular.

In relation to the importance of studies in teacher education, there is a crucial need to undertake studies in an Indonesian context. It is important to investigate and determine the key factors for effective EFLTEPs in Asian countries, such as student teachers’ linguistic knowledge, English proficiency, pedagogical skills, teaching practicum experience, and potential roles as active agents for implementing EFL teaching policy. This will enable determination of the extent to which these factors contribute to preparing student teachers to be equipped with the skills and knowledge they need to be successful EFL teachers.

1.2 Context of the Study

The study reported here is an investigation of an EFLTEP at a state-owned university in Indonesia. It sought to explore how graduates and beginner teachers from this program perceived their English language proficiency, language knowledge, pedagogy and teaching practice experience through the formal learning they received as pre-service teachers. This research investigating the EFLTEP at Jambi University is important to examine the contribution of this program to teacher candidates’ preparedness to teach, and to link it with related research regarding the effect of teacher education on the quality of teachers (as an outcome) (Cochran-Smith, 2001; Darling-Hammond, 2006).

Through its Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Jambi University is similar to other universities in Indonesia that provide teacher education programs. This research on Jambi University’s teacher education program will have broader relevance to other universities that share program features in terms of a similar EFL context and challenges.
Thus, these research findings will provide important information to enrich the teacher education literature both in Indonesia and internationally.

According to Indonesia’s *Educational Law Number 14/2005* (Mulyasa, 2007), as professional educators, teachers are expected to meet prescribed competence requirements. This law specifies that teachers must complete a four-year teacher education program and demonstrate pedagogical, professional and social competence. Pedagogical competence refers to a teacher’s ability to ensure students learn effectively. Social competence is a teacher’s ability to be part of the community, including communicating and socialising effectively with students, fellow teachers, school staff and parents. Professional competence describes a teacher’s ability to master the disciplinary area content and knowledge that must be taught. These requirements are legislated and implemented in the curriculum of the English teacher education program at Jambi University.

Jambi University is located in Jambi province—one of the provinces of Sumatra Island. Through the Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, the university is responsible for producing graduates who meet the demand for professional teachers in Jambi province and other areas of Indonesia. The setting of this study is the EFLTEP at Jambi University—one of nine programs run by the Faculty of Teacher Training and Education. When designing, delivering and assessing its English teacher education program, Jambi University employs similar procedures to other universities, following guidelines published by the Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHE) of Indonesia, in Jakarta.

The EFLTEP is designed to develop the English curriculum based on the guidelines published by the DGHE. The four-year undergraduate program offers four core courses related to the English language. First, the ‘language skills’ core deals with speaking, writing, reading and listening skills, as well as language elements, such as grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. Second, the ‘language teaching’ core deals with language learning and
teaching strategies, such as curriculum in English language teaching, teaching EFL (TEFL), material design and development, language testing and teaching practicum. In addition, pre-service teachers are required to undertake ‘linguistic’ core subjects, such as semantics, sociolinguistics and phonology. Finally, in the ‘English literature’ core, pre-service teachers learn drama and poetry.

However, the content areas that pre-service teachers cover do not appear to be reflected in graduate quality. According to Freiberg (2002), many new teachers enter the teaching field with little experience of how to teach. Based on my experience as a teaching practice supervisor, there appear to be significant gaps between what student teachers learn and the challenges they face in professional life. Thus, the implementation of teaching practicum is important and should be examined more closely because it provides opportunities for student teachers to link what they have learnt theoretically with the practical world of classroom work (Ramsey, 2001).

This study is motivated by my own experience as a teacher educator and teaching practicum supervisor. As a teacher educator, my responsibility includes teaching pre-service English teachers to prepare them to teach and assist Indonesian students to learn English successfully in school. As a teaching practice supervisor, I supervise pre-service English teachers during their teaching practice, when they integrate what they have learnt in the program into the reality of school life as a teacher. Anecdotal comments from mentors, principals and student teachers regarding student teachers’ performance in the classroom during the teaching practicum suggest that pre-service teachers lack adequate subject content knowledge, such as English grammar, to teach students. In addition, the principals commented that student teachers are not confident in managing the classroom or communicating with other teachers in the school. Compounding this difficulty, from student teachers’ perspective, is that they are unsure of what they must teach students when working
with content with which they are unfamiliar. These anecdotal practitioner views led me to undertake this research in order to systematically establish the challenges and gaps in EFL teacher education, and recommend ways to address these matters. The focus of this study is issues regarding teachers’ language proficiency, language knowledge, language teaching skills and teaching practicum experience using practical teaching skills. In order to guide the enquiry, in response to these issues, this study used a sequence of research questions.

1.3 Research Questions

This study focused on the preparation of EFL teachers at Jambi University. The primary focus of the study was to investigate participant and stakeholder perceptions of Jambi University’s EFLTEP for teachers of EFL in Indonesia. The questions that described and bounded the research were:

- What are the aims and content of the EFLTEP curriculum at Jambi University?
- How do recent EFL teacher graduates perceive their English proficiency, language teaching skills and teaching practicum experience during their preparation program in the EFLTEP of Jambi University?
- How do EFL teacher graduates, as beginner teachers, perceive their English proficiency, language teaching skills and teaching practicum experience during their preparation program in the EFLTEP of Jambi University?
- How do teacher educators and principals (as employers) perceive Jambi University EFLTEP’s graduates as beginner teachers in terms of their language proficiency and language teaching skills?
1.4 Significance of the Research

Investigating the quality of EFL teachers in Indonesian schools in terms of their language and pedagogical skills is significant for the following reasons. First, it provides important information for developing and improving the EFLTEP at Jambi University. The findings of the study inform thinking about the quality of the EFLTEP’s outcomes in terms of language proficiency and teaching skills. This information can be used by the program to redesign the curriculum to best meet the demands of the teaching profession today. The research findings related to implementing the teaching practicum can be used as a basis for improving this in the future. Second, the results of this study can be a resource and reference for those interested in researching the field of teacher education in an Indonesian context. There are a limited number of studies conducted on this topic in this context, compared to similar research outputs from other parts of the world. Third, this study’s findings may provide important information for policymakers in their attempts to increase the quality of teachers in Indonesia through policy development, and funding and resourcing teacher education programs in Indonesia.

1.5 Overview of the Research Methods

In its investigation of stakeholders’ perceptions of TEFL teacher education in Indonesia, this study employed both quantitative and qualitative approaches. The methods used for data collection were document analysis, questionnaires and interviews. Document analysis was used to describe and analyse the aims and content of the EFLTEP curriculum at Jambi University. The questionnaires were given to recent graduates (beginner teachers) who had been teaching English for approximately two years. The interviews were conducted with beginner teachers, teacher educators and school principals of schools where the beginner teachers were teaching English.
The research design adopted for this study was sequential explanatory design (Creswell, 2009). This consisted of collecting and analysing quantitative data during the first phase, followed by collecting and analysing more substantive qualitative data during the second phase. For the quantitative data, basic descriptive statistics (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011) were used to present the data to enable the researcher to analyse and interpret the data in the form of frequencies and percentages. Document and thematic analysis were used to analyse the data from the qualitative phase.

1.6 Structure of the Thesis

Chapter 1 of this thesis presents contextual information about the research. It discusses teaching and teacher education in Indonesia, outlines the significance of the research, gives an overview of the research methods, and concludes by presenting the structure of the thesis. Chapter 2 presents an overview of English language teaching and EFLTEPs in Indonesia. It provides information about TEFL, English language teaching policy, EFL teacher education, and the teachers’ qualification policy in Indonesia.

Chapter 3 reviews the international literature on EFL teacher education. It also presents a review of the international context of teacher education programs, the knowledge base for language teachers, the language knowledge and teaching skills of new teachers, and student teachers’ teaching practicum. Chapter 4 elaborates on the methodology underpinning the study. It discusses the selection of mixed quantitative and qualitative approaches, together with the rationale for using mixed methods in this study. In addition, it explains the methods and process of collecting data from the questionnaires, interviews and document analysis. Finally, it describes the procedure employed to analyse the data.

Chapter 5 provides an analysis and discussion of the quantitative data regarding new teachers’ language knowledge and language teaching skills. It portrays a snapshot of the
beginner teacher teaching practicum, presenting data as frequencies and percentages in tables and charts. Chapter 6 presents and discusses the interpretation of the qualitative data. It gathers and explores themes gained from the document analysis. This includes the TEFL teacher education curriculum, language knowledge and teaching skills of new teachers, and beginner teachers’ teaching practicum experience.

Chapter 7 presents a discussion of the findings about the policy and curriculum of the TEFL teacher education program at Jambi University. It discusses the study results regarding the English language knowledge and proficiency, language teaching skills and teaching practicum experience of beginner teachers. In addition, it discusses the principal and teacher educator perspectives of the language knowledge and teaching skills of beginner teachers from Jambi University. Chapter 8 provides a conclusion to this study. It discusses the strengths and limitations of the research, as well as its implications for policy and practice, and recommendations for further research.
Chapter 2: English Language Teaching and EFL Teacher Education in Indonesia

2.1 Introduction

Indonesia is the largest archipelago country in the world, consisting of more than 17,000 islands, with a total area of 1.9 million km$^2$. It has 33 provinces and 440 districts or municipalities, and is the fourth most populous nation in the world, with a population of almost 240 million people (Badan Pusat Statistik, 2013). As one of the world’s largest and most diverse countries, Indonesia has a great number of challenges, including its efforts to improve the quality of teaching in schools (Luschei & Zubaidah, 2012). The country’s overall teaching quality is hindered by limited teaching resources, poor infrastructure and low quality teacher education that struggles to prepare teachers to work at primary and secondary levels. This study focuses on an EFLTEP that prepares student teachers to enter the teaching profession as EFL teachers in Indonesia.

This chapter presents an overview of English language teaching and EFL teacher education in Indonesia. It presents information related to the role of EFL in an Indonesian context, English language teaching policy, and teacher education programs for EFL pre-service teachers. It also briefly discusses TEFL in Indonesia, and EFLTEPs.

2.2 Teaching EFL in Indonesia

Unlike in its neighbouring countries—such as Singapore, Hong Kong and Malaysia, where English is widely spoken as a second language—English in Indonesia is more likely to be taught and learnt only as a foreign language. This means that learning and teaching English occurs mostly in classrooms, rather than during daily communication. English
learners in Indonesia do not have ready access to using English as a tool of communication during their daily lives outside the classroom. As stated by Oxford and Shearin (1994), a foreign language in this context is a language learnt only during formal education. As such, English language teaching and learning in Indonesia presents particular challenges that are not encountered in countries such as Hong Kong, where English is more commonly used on a daily basis.

Berns (1990) defined foreign language learning as learning a target language in a country that does not use this language as a speech community. Thus, in a foreign language learning context, there are few opportunities for learners to employ the target language outside the classroom because the language (English, in this case) is not used as the main device of communication among people. When a target language is seldom used outside the classroom, input and language use in the classroom are essential (Suryati, 2013).

According to Sulistiyo (2009) there are several factors creating difficulties for teaching EFL in Indonesia. First, EFL teachers must teach students in large classes, often with more than 50 students. Although the definition of a ‘large’ class in language learning varies (Wright, 2005), this number is not ideal for a language classroom. Second, not all students who attend English classes are motivated. English is a compulsory subject, which means that students must learn the language for examination purposes; however, their exposure to English occurs for only for approximately two hours per week. Students’ low motivation and minimal English learning hours are obstacles not only for teachers, but also for students as learners.

Third, at both school and university, the English-teaching focus is largely on reading skills (Sawir, 2005; Setiyadi, 2001; Sugirin, 1999), with less emphasis on English grammar and vocabulary. This teaching emphasis is based on the assumption that students will understand an English text properly if they know the structure of English and have an
adequate vocabulary. One consequence of this is that the teaching of other skills—such as speaking, writing and listening—is relatively ignored (Sugirin, 1999). English is a compulsory subject taught during junior and senior secondary schools, and at tertiary levels of education in Indonesia. The teaching and learning activities conducted in these classrooms mostly involve memorising vocabulary, studying grammar and reading English texts. This tends to focus on learning the rules of the English language, rather than using English for communication (Sawir, 2005).

In short, there are three factors that may influence the success of EFL teaching in Indonesia. According to Sulistiyo (2009), these are class size, student motivation and teaching focus. These three factors align with Bradford’s (2007) view that less effective English learning and teaching in Indonesia is often due to classroom size and student motivation, although Bradford also includes the factor of teacher qualifications as contributing to the limited effectiveness of EFL teaching in Indonesia.

Several scholars have investigated TEFL in Indonesia. For example, Yuwono (2005) conducted research into English language teaching in Indonesia by obtaining the perspectives of school principals and English language teachers in Salatiga municipality, Central Java. She stated that English teaching and learning in schools in Indonesia, especially in rural areas, is not ideal. She argued that the continually revised curriculum does not seem to seriously consider factors such as teachers’ qualifications, teachers’ time availability, the number of students per class, and the availability of resources and facilities, which all significantly affect the success of teaching and learning English in Indonesian schools. In addition, the curriculum does not provide strategies and alternatives to address problems related to English language teaching.

According to Kirkpatrick (2007), the teaching of English in Indonesian schools and colleges has been less than satisfactory during the last few decades. Lie (2007) reported a
sense of ‘failure’ in TEFL in Indonesia. She stated that, although English is taught and used as a foreign language in Indonesia, and there have been many years of English instruction in formal schooling, the outcomes are unsatisfactory. Previous studies have identified several factors that impede the success of language learning and teaching in Indonesia, including large class sizes, less qualified teachers, a lack of teaching facilities, and low salaries for teachers (Adnan, 2006; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Sulistiyo, 2009).

Since English in Indonesia is taught as a foreign language and learnt mainly in classrooms, the role of teachers is especially important because they are the main source and facilitator of knowledge and skills of this language. An English teacher is expected to play two roles at the same time: (i) teaching English and (ii) making the teaching–learning process as interesting as possible in order to engage students in learning (Kassing, 2011). In an EFL context, students’ exposure to English is limited, and the classroom is usually the only place they have the opportunity to use English. Thus, teachers’ instructions and explanations may be the only language exposure during which students learn to use language for communication (Suryati, 2013).

Mbato (2013) observed similar reasons for the limited effectiveness of EFL learning and teaching in Indonesia. First, EFL learning mostly occurs in the classroom context, with English learners having limited exposure to English for communicative purposes. Second, the only source of learning is from the teachers and learning materials provided in class. Third, students learn English because it is a compulsory part of school curriculum, and subsequently may not be motivated to learn.

In summary, several factors appear to impede the success of teaching and learning EFL in Indonesia. Teacher qualifications and low English proficiency, classroom size, students’ motivation, classroom-oriented learning, and limited sources of learning are factors

This study addresses EFL teacher quality in terms of language proficiency and language teaching skills. Teacher qualifications and English competence—in terms of language use, teaching skills and knowledge of the subject matter—are crucial to assessing what EFL teachers need to learn during their pre-service teacher program. It is essential to consider how to design an EFL TEP that meets the required quality of EFL teachers in Indonesia. The following section discusses English language teaching policy, and informs efforts to improve the quality of EFL teaching and learning in Indonesia.

### 2.3 English Language Teaching Policy

This section explores the policy context of TEFL in Indonesia. It presents the current educational policy related to EFL teaching and teacher qualifications, and its relevance to this study. It begins by discussing the historical context of EFL being introduced to the Indonesian school curriculum.

English was introduced as a taught foreign language not long after Indonesia’s independence in 1945. However, the first English-teaching objectives were only released in 1967, when the Indonesian Ministry of Education issued Decree Number 096/1967 (Masita, 2014). This decree stated that the ultimate goal of English teaching in Indonesian secondary schools was to equip students with language skills, emphasising academic goals, and with the main aim of improving students’ reading skills. The objectives of English teaching at this time were to enable secondary school students to read textbooks and reference materials in English. For university students the objective was that they understand lectures given by foreign lecturers as part of affiliation programs with universities abroad, and communicate with individuals and students from overseas. Also important were introducing the culture of
Indonesia to international communities, and communicating orally with foreign lecturers, other individuals and students during oral examinations and discussions (Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan, as cited in Lowenberg, 1991).

In 1975, the Indonesian Ministry of Education released the first national curriculum for teaching–learning activities in the national school system. In this curriculum, the priorities were similar to the 1967 decree, with the first priority of reading skills, followed by listening, writing and speaking skills. However, the function of English teaching was characterised as not merely for general academic achievement, but also to facilitate the development of advanced science, technology, culture and arts. Another nominated function was to enhance international relationships. The curriculum specified that an audio-lingual approach should be used in classroom activities. In alignment with this suggested approach, students were encouraged to learn English linguistic patterns through habit-formation drills. Additionally, specific numbers of vocabulary items were to be mastered at each level of school—namely, 1,500 words for students in junior secondary schools and 4,000 words for students at senior school levels (Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan, 1975).

Later, in 1984, the Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture released a new curriculum to replace the previous national curriculum. This curriculum maintained the same priorities as the 1975 curriculum in teaching the four macro-language skills and the numbers of compulsory vocabularies to be mastered. The only major change was that teaching shifted to employing a communicative approach. However, Dardjowidjojo (2000) claimed that this new approach was not correctly interpreted by teachers due to insufficient procedural information during its implementation. This resulted in many schools and teachers continuing to use the habit-formation drills that emphasised teaching English structures.

To improve the quality of English teaching in Indonesia, the government revised the curriculum again in 1994. In this new curriculum, the communicative approach was
maintained under the new name of ‘meaningfulness approach’. To make the new approach more compatible with classroom teaching activities, the order of language skill priority was reversed to become reading, listening, speaking and writing. Students were to learn English and how to use it, rather than learning about the language elements. Grammar and elements such as vocabulary, pronunciation and spelling were to be taught to support the acquisition of the four language skills. The numbers of necessary vocabularies were reduced to 1,000 words for junior high school students, 2,500 words for senior high school students majoring in the science and social science streams, and 3,000 words for senior high school students majoring in the language stream (Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan in Mistar, 2005). A significant feature of the 1994 curriculum was its integration of language skills and components in the form of themes. Further, in the GarisBesar Pedoman Pengajaran (General Guidance of the Teaching Implementation), there were recommended topics derived from the listed themes, such as functional skills, examples of communicative expressions, and lists of vocabulary items to be taught.

In 2004, the curriculum was again replaced by another curriculum—the ‘Competence-Based Curriculum’—which was revised in 2006 and renamed the ‘School-level Curriculum’ (‘Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan’). This curriculum had three main objectives for students:

- to develop the ability to communicate in English with speaking, writing, listening and reading skills
- to raise an awareness of the importance of EFL in learning other knowledge
- to build an understanding of the connections between language and culture in a broader sense (Departemen Pendidikan Nasional, 2004).
Several research studies of EFL in Indonesia have shown that the implementation of the national curriculum in Indonesia has encountered many problems. This can be seen in the quality of EFL education in Indonesia compared to other countries. Despite high expectations being placed on the Indonesia’s education curriculum, the results of the secondary school final national examination are far from satisfactory, particularly when compared to other countries in the Asia-Pacific region (OECD, 2014). Based on the results of the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA)—a triennial international survey to test the skills and knowledge of 15-year-old students worldwide by evaluating educational systems around the world—Indonesia was at the bottom of the list for all three assessed skills (science, mathematics and literacy). The 2012 PISA test showed Indonesia to be ranked at 64 of the 65 participating countries (OECD, 2014). According to the Europeiska Ferieskolan English Proficiency Index (2014), for English proficiency, Indonesia ranks at 28 of 63 countries—a ‘moderate’ proficiency rating. In contrast, Malaysia and Singapore rank at 12 and 13 (a ‘high’ proficiency), respectively.

Marcellino (2008) stated that the status of EFL—when it is not used during daily interactions—is further compromised by reduced student motivation to learn the language. Living in an environment in which mastery of English is not an urgent goal likely decreases students’ motivation to learn English, even if it is a mandatory school subject. When English is a foreign language that is hardly used during daily local life, where students have limited opportunity to use and practise the language, this can lead to students thinking that English is not important, especially in remote areas. As a result, they are unlikely to make it a priority to exert energy, time and money to learn English.

It is evident from previous research that many professional English teachers at schools are considered to have inadequate competence to teach English to their students (Lie, 2007; Marcellino, 2008; Soepriyatna, 2012). This research has indicated that a large number
of Indonesian teachers do not feel confident using the target language because they are not comfortable talking and writing in English. Moreover, many teachers are not sufficiently familiar with the active learning and holistic assessments required by the curriculum, and there are few workshops or training opportunities to improve teachers’ abilities in these aspects of teaching.

Based on reports that the quality of EFL teachers in Indonesia is inadequate, the importance of English continues to be encouraged by the Indonesian government, with English lessons included as a compulsory subject for junior and senior high school students (Crystal, 2003). English subjects aim to provide students with the skills to enable them to play an active role in the global community (Mbato, 2013), based on the spread of English in this era of globalisation (Yuwono, 2005), in which the Asian region is a part of economic expansion and development.

As aforementioned, the role of Indonesian teachers is very important in the EFL context because English learning mostly occurs in classrooms. In response to this, the Indonesian government issued Law No. 14/2005, Section IV, Item No. 8, which discusses teachers and lecturers. Based on this law, to become a teacher, one must complete an undergraduate teaching degree or four-year teaching diploma (Undang Undang Guru dan Dosen tahun, 2005). There are four competencies listed in Law No. 14/2005 that are subject to government scrutiny through the Education Minister Regulation (2007). Teachers are expected to demonstrate pedagogic, personal, social and professional competence. For EFL teachers to demonstrate professional competence, they must have knowledge of multiple aspects of the English language, including grammatical competence, linguistic competence, discourse competence and sociolinguistic competence, as well as being able to use English for communication purposes, in both written and spoken forms.
In order to employ professionally equipped teachers to work with students, the recruitment procedure must be improved. It is necessary to develop teachers’ professionalism in order to improve the quality of Indonesian education (Muth’im, 2014). During the current recruitment processes conducted by the Indonesian government, applicants must take a written test that examines their abilities in the Indonesian language, the English language and general knowledge. However, for teacher recruitment, this test is unsuitable for selecting candidates as professional teachers. In order to overcome this, Muth’im (2014) suggested using an additional process when recruiting teacher candidates that requires them to design lesson plans based on the curriculum, and then use those lesson plans to perform teaching practice in a real class. Thus, the recruitment is based both on the results of the written test and teachers’ ability to plan lessons and perform teaching in practice. Muth’im added that, once teachers have been chosen, maintaining, developing and improving their abilities should be a focus of employment. Teachers’ professional abilities must be continuously developed through various activities, such as attending conferences or workshops about teaching, and attending teacher association meetings that focus on improving the quality of their practice.

The Indonesian government’s policy on EFL teaching has received some criticism from research conducted in the areas of teacher competence, curriculum and English language teaching. For example, Halim (2013) claimed that the concept of professional competence proposed by the Indonesian government is too narrow and needs to be understood in the social context of teacher professionalism. The government’s concept of professional competence consists of grammatical, linguistic, discourse and sociolinguistic competence, as well as being able to use English for communication purposes in both written and spoken forms. However, Halim argued that, to be an EFL teacher for students with different cultural backgrounds (in Indonesia), one’s professional competence must encompass a broad range of capabilities. It must include mastery of the materials to be taught,
knowledge of how to teach with the materials, a sense of responsibility, and a sense of being a part of the teaching profession. This wider conception of professional competence focuses more strongly on mastery of the subject matter, mastery of the pedagogy and social responsibility.

In addition, some policies and practices in the EFL classroom in Indonesia lack consistency (Lie, 2007). In response to this problem, Lie (2007) stated that there is an urgent need to better inform and advise policymakers about design, implementation and evaluation of the EFL curriculum. The competence-based curriculum for English instruction in junior and senior high schools, referred to earlier, seeks to provide exposure to English texts and to develop English competence to help students access better jobs in the future (Lie, 2007). However, even though English is officially taught to achieve this goal in Indonesia, the English competence of high school and university graduates in Indonesia remains low (Sawir, 2005; Sulistiyo, 2009).

Lie (2007) pointed out that there are several constraints at work between language policy and language teaching classroom practices in Indonesia. First, students have very different motivations and background traits, which makes it difficult to design and resource a single curriculum that suits all (or most) students across the country. Second, inadequate funds mean low wages for teachers, poor resourcing and the likelihood of large class sizes. Low teacher salaries cause the majority of teachers to work in additional jobs outside of school hours, which reduces the time they can allocate to lesson preparation, efforts to improve teaching practices and undertaking development to enhance their professional knowledge. Third, Lie (2007) stated that the influence of policy and curriculum politics is a constraint to language learning. The Competence-Based Curriculum was created partly in response to the growing and urgent call for decentralisation and more regional autonomy. This has been implemented alongside the school-level curriculum (‘Kurikulum Tingkat
Satuan Pendidikan’), and prescribes teaching competencies for students to acquire. As such, it sets minimal standards for aspects such as teaching materials, and ways to meet the necessary standards. At the same time, the Ministry of National Education has developed guidelines for schools to manage their own needs in accordance with the expanding policy framework.

According to Lie (2007), there is inconsistency between the focus on competence and the policy of implementing the national examinations in secondary high school levels. For example, the average passing grade for the school subjects of mathematics, English and Indonesian for 2006/2007 was 4.25 out of 10. Pressures associated with this affect what teachers decide to do, irrespective of what policy may require or direct them to do. Although teachers are provided with some capacity and encouragement to develop and implement the curriculum based on interest and local need, the national examination policy effectively forces teachers to teach English in a manner that will best prepare students for the national examinations in their last year in school.

In summary, this section has presented several issues related to English language teaching policy in Indonesia. To provide contextual information relevant to this study, it has outlined the historical context of English as a compulsory school subject, the four competencies teachers are expected to be able to demonstrate (more detail on this in the following section), the recruitment of professional teachers to assure the quality of English teaching in schools, and responses from EFL teaching scholars to the Indonesian government’s policy on EFL teaching. The following section provides a review of the teaching profession in the Indonesian context.
2.4 The Teaching Profession in Indonesia

Teacher education has a strategic role in the Indonesian education system in terms of its responsibility to provide preparation programs that produce high-quality outcomes for the teaching profession. In this era of globalisation, highly competent professional teachers are required to provide students with the skills to compete and survive in the contemporary world (Jambi University Curriculum, 2009). To achieve these outcomes, the aim of teacher education programs is to develop and equip teachers to new levels to work with students in this contemporary globalised world. As Darling-Hammond (2006) observed, in a world where education matters, we need extraordinary teachers who can help students obtain the required knowledge and skills.

In producing teachers to work with children, pre-service teacher education programs in Indonesia must prepare student teachers to understand and practice a range of professional competencies. They require advanced pedagogical skills, a thorough knowledge of the subject content and other related competencies (EFLTEP, 2009). In the EFLTEP’s curriculum, student teachers are taught teaching methodology, assessment and evaluation, and how to develop knowledge of their students’ characteristics. At the same time, student teachers learn the content that they are going to teach to students. This knowledge of particular subjects taught in schools becomes a core component of teachers’ specialised expertise in their teaching.

As stated earlier, the teaching of English in Indonesia is best described as TEFL. Berns (1990) defined foreign language learning as learning a target language in a country that does not use that language as a speech community. In other words, it is a foreign language learning context, in which there are few opportunities for learners to use and have language input outside of classrooms because the target language is not widely used as a form of
communication. In this situation, as with TEFL in Indonesia, the role of teachers is crucial in providing English language input for students. It is a major problem when EFL teachers are unable to play this crucial role as both English providers and facilitators in order to ensure the process of learning English in the classroom occurs effectively.

This means that a comprehensible input—as proposed by Krashen (1982, 1989)—is rarely found. Comprehensible input refers to utterances that language learners understand based on the context in which the inputs are used, as well as the language in which they are phrased. Thus, the role of the classroom is very important as a place for students to receive language input. According to Andersen (1990), classroom activities must ensure the access of language input for students to acquire a second or foreign language, and these activities must generate meaningful communicative interaction among students. Importantly, it becomes the teacher’s role to design and manage these classroom activities to provide comprehensible input for students.

As a result of these concerns about effective teacher preparation, the Indonesian government has implemented policies directed at solving the teacher quality problem. These policies are seen as demonstrating the government’s concern for reform of the education system in Indonesia. Rizvi and Lingard (2010) described policy as ‘a pattern of decision in the context of other decisions taken by political actors on behalf of state institutions from position of authority’ (p. 4). Based on this definition, it can be said that the Indonesian government has a political goal to improve teacher quality, which requires a response from teacher education institutions to take steps to achieve what has been mandated through policy. The policies developed by the Indonesian government seek to address the shortage of qualified teachers, and propose a set of professional competencies. Teacher education programs must use these policies to ensure that their curriculum can meet the demand for high-quality teachers in Indonesia. There are three parties involved in this policy
implementation process: the government as policymaker, teachers as the actors to be improved, and teacher education institutions as implementers of the policy.

The National Law No. 14 Year 2005 Teacher and Lecturer (Bill of Teachers and Lecturers) describes teachers as professionals who educate, teach, guide, train and evaluate students from early childhood to senior high school. Based on this definition of the role of teachers, it is evident that the teaching profession requires teachers to have specific knowledge and skills in order to be able to transfer the information needed by students during their development. In order to meet these needs, teachers must have an academic qualification and teaching certificate, meet a prescribed set of professional competencies, and realise the aims of the education system. Academic qualifications can be obtained by teacher candidates through completing a teacher education program at bachelor degree level, or in a four-year diploma program. According to Darling-Hammond et al. (2005), the necessary standard for prospective teachers is completion of a college major in the subject to be taught, and intensive preparation for teaching, including well-defined studies of learning and teaching, together with 15 or more weeks of student teaching.

According to Shulman (1987), the knowledge base for teachers should include content knowledge, general pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), curriculum and PCK, knowledge of learners and their characteristics, knowledge of educational context, and knowledge of educational aims. Day and Conclin (1992) proposed that the knowledge base for English language teachers should include content knowledge of the subject matter, pedagogic knowledge, PCK and support knowledge. This knowledge base is similar to Shulman’s teacher knowledge base; however, Day and Conclin’s formulation is particularly focused on language teachers having support knowledge. This refers to knowledge of the various disciplines that inform an approach to the teaching and learning of English, and
includes psycholinguistics, linguistics, second language acquisition, sociolinguistics and research methods.

It seems that the Indonesian government’s policy position on the quality of teachers has similar aspects to that included by Shulman (1987) and Day and Conclin (1992) in their knowledge base for teachers. The following discussion elaborates on the similarities between the teacher knowledge base proposed by Shulman, and Day and Conclin, and the competencies of teachers required by the Indonesian government. The following is a review of the similarities between the Indonesian government’s mandates of what language teachers should know and be able to do with the knowledge base proposed by scholars, together with other international language teacher education programs’ curricula.

The Indonesian government’s position aligns with the international movement in teacher education because they establish an explicit language knowledge base for language teachers based on content knowledge of the subject matter, curriculum and PCK, as well as other support knowledge (Day & Conclin, 1992; Shulman, 1987). Although there are differences in the use of terms and definitions, the concepts and contents of what teachers should know and be able to do—from the position of the government, scholars and other international teacher education programs—are effectively the same.

In Indonesia, as mandated by the National Law of Teachers and Lecturers (2005), pedagogical competence refers to the ability to manage the teaching and learning process, which encompasses knowing and understanding students or learners, understanding and implementing teaching and learning plans, undertaking student evaluation, and having the ability to facilitate and help students develop their potential. This is similar to Day and Conclin’s (1992) ‘pedagogical knowledge’, which is the knowledge of generic teaching strategies, such as classroom management and motivation.
One example of this is in the policies formulated by the Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (2011), which establishes a knowledge base for teachers in its standards for professional practice for teacher registration, stating that teachers are expected to:

- ‘plan and implement for effective teaching and learning’ (p. 13)
- ‘create and maintain supportive and safe learning environments’ (p. 14)
- ‘assess, provide feedback and report on student learning’ (p. 16).

Further, teachers must undertake pedagogical tasks, such as designing and planning teaching and learning activities using various approaches and strategies—including information and communication technology (ICT)—to support student learning. Teachers must be able to use various techniques and approaches to enable students to learn independently and cooperatively within the dynamics and challenges of contemporary classrooms (Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership, 2011).

According to the *National Law of Teachers and Lecturers* (2004), a teacher must have personal competencies, including being a role model for their students, possessing a good personality, and having patience and understanding. These personal competencies are considered important for assisting students’ development. A study of effective teachers by Liando (2010) suggested that teachers received higher student praise for displaying certain personal attributes than they did for making lessons more interesting. In a study by Spitzer (2009), the participants rated personal knowledge as the most important knowledge possessed by second language teachers. The participants in Spitzer’s study were American volunteers teaching English in Asia, who were asked what personal qualities they relied on the most during their ESL teaching experience.
According to Marchbanks (2000), teachers require certain personality traits—such as being passionate, patient, cooperative, authoritative and creative—in order to teach effectively. These types of traits are needed to meet the higher responsibilities of contemporary teacher professionals in order to teach, educate, discipline and stimulate students in their various phases of learning and development. Similar to Marchbanks (2000), Murphy et al. (2004) stated that the personality traits of successful teachers include being caring, patient, not boring, polite and organised.

In seeking to define the characteristics held by successful teachers upon graduation from teacher education, Cripps-Clark and Walsh (2004) stated that effective teachers should have both content and pedagogical knowledge, as well as teacher personal knowledge and knowledge of context. Across the board, this type of personal knowledge is considered helpful for teachers to engage both in the classrooms where they teach, and in the broader context of education where they are professionally located, among various stakeholders.

Professional competence is referred to as the knowledge of subject matter that a teacher needs to master, as well as strategies for its delivery to students. This competence encompasses the ability to use various teaching aids so that the objectives of teaching and learning can be optimally achieved (National Law of Teachers and Lecturers, 2004). The professional competence required by the Indonesian government is similar to that encompassed by PCK, mentioned by Shulman (1987) and Day and Conclin (1992). They stated that PCK is the knowledge of how to present subject matter in a variety of ways that enables students to understand it. These professional competencies are at the intersection of teachers’ subject matter knowledge and pedagogical knowledge.

This is similar to other teacher professional standards internationally. For example, returning to the Australian case, the Australian Institute of Teaching and School Leadership (2011) stated that the professional knowledge of teachers includes teachers knowing their
students and how they learn, as well as knowing how to teach them. Teachers must hold and exercise knowledge of the learning theories outlined in the pedagogical models that they use in their practice. Teachers are expected to know and exercise principles of teaching, and design models for programs of learning that will engage students in active learning. Teachers must also understand assessment and be able to exercise this while implementing the curriculum to support student learning. In this example from Australia, these ideas are embodied in the registration standards for beginning teachers (Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership, 2011). The standards state that teachers must know the content they teach, which means they must have ‘knowledge and understanding of the concepts, substance, and structure of the content and teaching strategies of the teaching area’, ‘be able to organize content into an effective learning and teaching sequence’ and ‘use curriculum, assessment and reporting knowledge to design learning sequences and lesson plans’ (Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership, 2011, p. 10).

In Indonesia’s National Law of Teachers and Lecturers (2005), it is recognised that, in contributing to the relationship between schools and the community, teachers require good communication skills and the ability to engage in social life. The school is viewed as critical in society as an agent of change, and that, as an educational institution, it must uphold the role of fostering change in the society’s culture in order to alter lifestyles now and in the future. As will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 6, the importance of social competence for teachers was evident in the responses from this study’s interview participants. For example, one participant (TE#1) stated that: ‘social and personal competencies are important beside professional and pedagogical competencies; unfortunately, these two competencies have not been taught properly to our student teachers’. This was in reference to the absence of specific courses related to these competencies in teacher education at Jambi University. In order to meet this need, the program has presented seminars and workshops for student
teachers to gain knowledge of soft skills related to social and personal qualities, which might be useful for them in their future work as professional teachers.

Internationally, the need for social skills among teachers is also discussed in the Australian literature. According to the Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (2011), teachers must be active members of their profession. This means that they must be aware of stakeholders, industrial structures, career opportunities and the regulatory requirements that affect their profession. They must understand the social, political and ethical dimensions of education and, within that framework, must be able to articulate a vision or philosophy of the role of a teacher generally, and of their work specifically.

2.5 EFL Teachers’ Quality and Domains of English Teachers’ Competence in Indonesia

As noted earlier, English is a compulsory subject in Indonesian education. It is formally introduced into primary schools from Year 4 and continues to Year 6. In secondary schools, English is one of the subjects examined during the Final National Examination. At university level, English is a requirement for all faculties and undergraduate majors (Yulia, 2013). Although English is globally known as an international language, in Indonesia, English is considered predominantly a foreign language, where it is commonly taught in schools alongside other subjects, such as mathematics, biology and physics (Sulistiyo, 2009). It is not widely used as a language of instruction in education, nor in activities such as business or governance (Philipson, 1992). Therefore, in the classroom, English teachers in Indonesia must support students who have varied forms of language exposure in order to provide an adequate input for English development.

This section presents a review of studies conducted by Indonesian researchers regarding a number of aspects related to the competence of EFL teachers in Indonesia. The
studies examined are from several educational institutions across Indonesia in order to enable a comprehensive overview of EFL teacher quality from local perspectives to indicate the significance of conducting research on teacher education programs. There are two themes highlighted in this section: (i) EFL teachers’ competence and (ii) the domains of competence that English teachers in Indonesia must know and be able to use.

EFL teachers’ competence is very important (Cahyono, 2014; Soepriyatna, 2012) in terms of the language input for students during their classroom learning (Berns, 1990; Suryati, 2012). However, a study conducted by Lengkenawati (2005) found that most Indonesian teachers lacked competence in some of the English skills they teach. For example, while a teacher may be competent using English grammar, he or she may not be proficient in English listening and reading skills. Analysis from writing tests indicated that the teachers had low knowledge of the organisation of ideas, poor use of grammar, and a very limited range of vocabulary.

Another study investigating EFL student teachers’ competence was conducted by Wiyati (2014). This descriptive study involved six EFL pre-service teachers in their final year of studying English at a higher learning institution in West Java, Indonesia. Data were collected using questionnaires, classroom observations and interviews. This study revealed that the student teachers had an inadequate knowledge of teaching techniques and strategies. In terms of language proficiency, they were not proficient in using English as a subject to teach to students. Further, the student teachers showed very little comprehension of how learner evaluations should be conducted. These EFL pre-service teachers lacked the PCK important both for them as teachers and for their students during the teaching and learning process. They had low competence in using the necessary teaching strategies to cater to the students’ needs, and lacked important characteristics that are needed to engender interest and enthusiasm in students and to perform the various responsibilities of their professional work.
In an effort to identify and document EFL teachers’ competence, Soepriyatna (2012) conducted a study to explore and describe the domains of EFL teachers’ competence in Indonesia. In doing so, Soepriyatna reported on the competencies required by school teachers of English in Indonesia, and described the development of performance tasks used to assess this. Theories of teacher competence proposed by Cross (2003), Mulhauser (1958) and Richards (1998) were used as a framework to underpin this study. The framework of teacher competence comprised three domains: language competence, content knowledge about language, and teaching skills. A survey was used to elicit what the study respondents believed high school teachers of English in Indonesia should know and be able to do. The participants were high school teachers of English, principals, faculty members, teacher educators, supervisors and scholars with an English language teaching (ELT) background. In addition, a performance task was developed to assess the competence dimensions of the teachers.

From this study, Soepriyatna (2012) generated the domains and dimensions of competence required for high school teachers of English in Indonesia. In the English language competence domain, this study claimed that English teachers must have oral and written communication abilities, and linguistic and sociocultural knowledge. In the teachers’ content knowledge domain, they must have text types and grammar points knowledge. In the teaching skills domain, they must know about lesson planning, which encompasses the objectives and material development of the lessons taught. In addition, they must perform their teaching effectively by demonstrating knowledge of learning management, teaching techniques, learning styles, learning strategies and other qualities of engaging teachers. The following matrix of the competence of high school teachers of English in Indonesia was adapted from Soepriyatna (2012).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domains/Characteristics</th>
<th>Operational Definitions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>English Language Competence Domain</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral/written communication</td>
<td>Can understand the main ideas of a discourse, interact with students fluently, and produce clear discourse to present and explain lesson content</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic</td>
<td>Can use vocabulary correctly and appropriately, maintain grammatical accuracy, pronounce words and sentences correctly and naturally, and write accurately</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociocultural</td>
<td>Can express ideas politely in formal or informal expression appropriate to the situation and participants involved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Content Knowledge Domain</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text types</td>
<td>Can inform in a spoken and written text based on the conventions in a particular context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar points</td>
<td>Can show mastery of grammar points being taught</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teaching Skill Domain: Lesson Planning</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objectives</td>
<td>Can formulate statements of intended learning outcomes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Material development</td>
<td>Can produce learning and teaching materials that integrate learning objectives, engaging learning tasks, and assessment related to materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teaching Skill Domain: Teaching Performance</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning management</td>
<td>Can organise pair, group and class work; give classroom commands; time a lesson; and maintain attention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching techniques</td>
<td>Can apply teaching techniques that promote students’ engagement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning styles</td>
<td>Can stimulate students to use multiple modes of information processing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning strategies</td>
<td>Can demonstrate to students how to learn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualities of engaging teachers</td>
<td>Can perform verbal and nonverbal expression to encourage students to participate in learning activities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A teacher’s ability to speak English well will benefit students in an EFL teaching context in two ways. When this occurs, English is used as the classroom medium of instruction, and students are exposed to their teachers as English language role models.
English competence must distinguish English teachers from other teachers. It is critical that student exposure to English language role models occurs, as a defining feature of the EFL classroom.

Soepriyatna (2012) suggested that competent teachers must have language content knowledge. Content knowledge enables teachers to help students cope with problems encountered while learning and understanding the topics covered in lessons. Content knowledge includes aspects such as grammar and the other features of language mastery that are necessary for students to build communicative competence in their use of English. Soepriyatna also stated that English teachers require another kind of knowledge—one that enables them to transfer content knowledge to students effectively. In teaching generally, this includes knowledge of techniques relevant to the content involved, which is what Shulman (1986) termed PCK. The findings from Soepriyatna’s (2012) study support Shulman’s (1986) statement that an effective teacher has both subject content knowledge and the ability to transfer this knowledge to students through considered use of appropriate teaching techniques, adjusted to the contextual aspects of their class. For EFL teaching in Indonesia, this knowledge must be developed to align with typical Indonesian classrooms—a context where large numbers of students are in the classroom.

Another conclusion to be drawn is that motivation is an important factor in student engagement, and teachers must develop abilities and skills to stimulate interest in their students. For example, during lesson preparation, teachers must foster student engagement with carefully designed and clearly stated communicative competence intentions. One way of doing this is by outlining standards that students must meet, and the procedures for assessing performance that will demonstrate these standards. In addition, teachers must be able to create an atmosphere in their classroom that is conducive to student learning. In order to
achieve this, competent teachers use a variety of techniques to accommodate and facilitate various learning styles.

To improve and maintain quality with EFL teacher competence in Indonesia, programs such as lesson study and teacher professional development could be useful for teachers to undertake. Lesson study is considered an effective approach for professional development and school improvement in Indonesia (Suratno, 2012). According to Perry and Lewis (2009), lesson study is a cycle of instructional improvement that involves teachers in active learning about the teaching content. It is an intensive, collaborative and practice-based activity that strengthens the professional community and improves use of teaching and learning resources. In the lesson study program, teachers observe each other’s classroom practices and work together to refine individual lessons in order to build strong connections between teachers’ learning about content and students’ learning outcomes (Suratno, 2012).

In relation to EFL teachers’ professional competence, Cahyono (2014) conducted research examining the implementation of lesson study in Indonesia. The lesson study in Cahyono’s investigation sought to improve EFL teachers’ pedagogical content competencies in teaching and learning with senior high schools in Southern East Java. It focused on how EFL teacher training and EFL supervision programs could be implemented to improve pedagogical content competencies. In this manner, the lesson study served as a supportive vehicle for teacher learning. The findings showed that lesson study was useful in helping teachers develop their PCK. Moreover, the participants of the study argued that teacher training and EFL supervision helped them better understand how to apply PCK to design and implement instructional materials. Cahyono’s study suggested that language teachers should and can improve their pedagogical content competence continuously in order to help students meet curriculum requirements. It emphasised the importance of lesson study as a platform for sustaining teachers’ learning in order to develop and improve pedagogical content.
competence. The implication to be drawn from the study findings is that teacher professional development and teacher learning activities must affect teacher quality and student learning.

Programs for teacher professional development—such as lesson study—are considered essential to improving teachers’ competence. According to Richards and Farrel (2005), from an individual teacher’s perspective, improving teaching skills to develop confidence regarding the teaching material will lead to better results for students. They stated that areas for teacher professional development include subject matter knowledge, pedagogical expertise, self-awareness, understanding of learners, understanding of the curriculum and materials, and plans for career advancement. The scope and implementation of teacher professional development in Indonesia has been investigated by several scholars. For example, Irmawati (2014) proposed that models of EFL teacher professional development must be linked to visions for EFL teacher professionalism in an Indonesian context.

While ‘teacher professional development’ is a term used to describe the continuing process of teacher improvement, in the context of EFL teachers, the term is specifically used to refer to the process in which teachers increase their English skills and propositional and procedural EFL knowledge sets. As explained earlier, the position and use of English by teachers in the EFL classroom is the essential source of expertise and knowledge for students to learn and practise the target language. Thus, the role of the teacher in contributing to students’ success in learning the target language in this EFL context is crucial (Irmawati, 2014; Mbato, 2013; Sulistiyo, 2009; Yuwono, 2005). In response to this essential role of EFL teachers, models of teacher professional development proposed by Irmawati (2014) must cover two areas:

- propositional knowledge—encompassing the content subject that teachers teach, such as the English materials they use
• procedural knowledge—related to the processes, procedures and strategies that help teachers perform teaching tasks.

One specific model of teacher professional development includes implementing a ‘critical friends group’, which involves teachers as researchers working with material development activities, where experts are invited into school contexts to join these training and development programs (Irmawati, 2014). All these proposed models seek to help teachers build English competence and English-teaching skills. They also aim to create a change in mindset in relation to strengthening teachers’ identity as English teachers by implementing these models of professional development.

Irmawati (2014) also stated that models that involve colleagues giving feedback and suggestions to each other benefit teachers in many ways. First, teachers gain more objective feedback to enable reflection on their teaching practice, and this objective feedback broadens the ways they can think about how to teach more successfully. Second, teachers can share ideas related to applicable techniques to use more effective and interesting materials during their teaching practice. Having teachers conduct research—particularly action research—is useful because it enables them to identify problems that occur in their own classroom contexts. They are able to build skills and knowledge regarding ways to solve their students’ problems during the learning process. Additional benefits to those from implementing actions following reflection include improved writing skills gained from reporting their research in written form.

Another study that investigated teachers’ professional development occurred in South Kalimantan, Indonesia, conducted by Rahayu (2014). This was undertaken in Hulu Sungai Selatan district with 35 English teachers from several Islamic secondary schools, who completed a questionnaire and took part in an in-depth interview. This study investigated
three categories of teacher professional development: (i) ongoing development, (ii) development through reading and further study and (iii) further skill development. First, in terms of ongoing development, the English teachers completed activities to enhance their professional expertise through personal reflection and collaborative discussion with colleagues. During this collaborative discussion, they undertook informal conversations with their colleagues to share problems and discuss possible solutions to these problems. Most teachers described the benefits as feeling more comfortable in finding a solution to problems and exploring new teaching ideas. Other ongoing development activities—such as peer observation and collecting student feedback—were not undertaken. This was because peer observation was not school policy and they felt uncomfortable with its potential for criticism.

Second, in undertaking teacher development through reading and further study, there were many difficulties to overcome. The participants revealed that, while they read materials related to English teaching, there were limited reference books available. Moreover, internet access was limited and other activities—such as continuing further study and joining a workshop—were difficult to complete due to funding and time problems. Third, further development of teachers’ professionalism activities—such as joining a professional association, sharing techniques and methods, writing in academic journals, undertaking action research, and conducting comparative studies—was not undertaken, except for teachers joining professional associations. However, they did not attend meetings regularly because they were busy with their teaching rosters.

Teacher professional development can also be done by establishing an English teacher working group, or ‘Musyawarah Guru Mata Pelajaran’. In investigating the roles of English teacher working groups to support teacher professional development in Pontianak municipality, Barella (2014) found that this teacher association has contributed greatly to the development of junior high school English teacher professionalism in developing the
syllabus, annual and semester programs, lesson plans, teaching methods, innovative learning modes, use of teaching media and evaluation systems. In addition, it improved general teacher competence. Thus, these activities undertaken by the association contributed greatly to increasing the ability of English teachers to perform their teaching tasks.

In summary, in EFL teaching and learning contexts, teacher competence is essential to facilitating successful English exposure and learning during classroom activities. A number of Indonesian scholars are aware of this importance—for example, Soepriyatna (2012) identified the domains of EFL teachers’ competence in Indonesia. These domains can inform teacher education programs to design the curriculum in ways that align with the needs of EFL teachers during their classroom preparation.

### 2.6 EFL Teacher Education in Indonesia

In response to the increasingly demanding roles required of English teachers in Indonesia, the efficacy of EFLTEPs—as the formal institutional preparation for English language teachers—is critical. In Indonesia, teacher education programs are based on the 2006 national curriculum, which provides national courses in linguistics and pedagogical base knowledge. However, each teacher education program has the authority to design and develop its own curriculum to meet the required standards of teacher quality for local needs. Therefore, it is not unusual for teacher education programs to have different and unique features. According to Zeichner and Conclin (2005), there are frequent distinctions evident among different teacher education programs in their approaches to preparing student teachers to enter the teaching profession. This is reflected in aspects such as the structure of the programs, admission requirements, curricular emphases, conceptual orientations to teaching and learning, focus on what teachers need to know, and the process of learning to teach. The following section discusses these aspects of teacher education. In exploring EFL teacher
education in Indonesia, this section presents topics relevant to this study by addressing teacher educator qualifications and competence, and the curricula of EFLTEPs.

2.6.1 Teacher Educator Qualifications and Competencies

EFLTEPs in Indonesia must prepare student teachers to teach English in the EFL context, and demonstrate high levels of competence in facilitating students’ learning. In doing so, teacher educators who teach student teachers play a significant role (Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013) in assuring that the requirements for effective EFL teachers are met, and that student teachers are well equipped when they have completed their teacher preparation programs. Macalister (2014) proposed a model for what teacher educators should consider when preparing teachers to become qualified, practising language teachers. This model views teacher education programs as an agent of change. Macalister discussed challenges encountered by language teacher educators when preparing pre-service language teachers to have the knowledge and skills needed to be qualified teachers. These challenges include the beliefs about language learning and teaching held by student teachers, the importance of understanding context, and the need to develop appropriate language proficiency.

Three key terms serve as a guide for teacher educators and experienced teachers working with novice teachers: (i) dissonance, (ii) an ethical (or principled) approach and (iii) opportunity. The challenges identified by Macalister (2014) and suggestions to meet those challenges should find resonance in teacher education programs. Macalister implied that teacher cognition, pedagogical competence, competence of context, linguistic competence and reflection are the essence of language teacher education programs. For this reason, language teacher educators must include these elements in their programs in order to produce well-trained language teachers.
According to Mulyasa (2008) teacher education programs have the responsibility to provide schools with qualified teachers who will be able to work well with children in their development. In doing so, teacher education programs must have various resources available, including a well-designed curriculum and appropriate learning and teaching facilities, such as laboratories, microteaching and seminar rooms, and other supporting resources. Above all, teacher educators are essential to implementing the curriculum and using resources to prepare student teachers to have the required professional skills and knowledge.

According to *National Law No. 14 Year 2005*, lecturers or teacher educators must have academic qualifications in order to teach in higher education in universities and at academy level. For diploma and bachelor programs, a lecturer must have graduated from a masters program in a related course, while, for postgraduate programs, a lecturer must have graduated from a doctoral program. However, the pathway to becoming a teacher educator in Indonesia does not usually include teaching experience at school level, as is frequently the case in other teacher education programs around the world. As Zeichner (2005) stated, while the primary qualification of becoming a teacher educator seems to be prior teaching experience, the academic qualification is the main education background component that prospective teacher educators need to meet before entering the profession. Zeichner (2005) further explained that teacher educators need to improve the teaching skills and tools gained from previous teaching experience through thinking about and approaching teaching and learning with the application of professional skills to a dynamic and challenging teaching environment most of which cannot be anticipated beforehand.

In order to provide a broader understanding of teacher educator qualifications and competencies in international contexts, the professional standards for teacher educators proposed by Goodwin and Kosnik (2013) offer a framework for underpinning what teacher educators must know and be able to do. While professional standards for teachers have been
successfully formulated, professional standards for teacher educators seem to be less well established. Like teachers, teacher educators must have a knowledge domain for teaching, as proposed by Goodwin and Kosnik (2013), and must hold personal knowledge, such as the experiential knowledge held by all teachers. Further, Goodwin and Kosnik stated that teacher educators, like teachers, always enter their profession with many implicit theories about what it means to teach and teach well. Those with prior experience as school teachers also draw on that professional experience as part of personal knowledge; thus, their teaching approach will be largely based on meaningful experiences they had when teaching school students. In this sense, teacher educators would benefit from formal preparation in restructuring their cognitive maps with new understandings of teaching other teachers. Prior knowledge and experience as teachers are needed for teacher educators to be well prepared to work with new teachers.

Goodwin and Kosnik (2013) proposed that there are at least three knowledge sets required by teacher educators: contextual knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and social knowledge. For teacher educators, contextual knowledge begins in the classrooms, schools and communities where students are located. It also encompasses the knowledge of student teachers, which includes questions of who they are; how they develop and grow; and how their life experiences shape the ways they perceive, define and undertake teaching and learning. For teacher educators, pedagogical knowledge goes beyond undertaking teaching—it is about mastering the principles of teaching to teach with the requisite skills and character that derive from personal experience. This knowledge is crucial to teacher educators in preparing student teachers to become teachers. In a challenging and demanding profession, teacher educators must be innovative with the curriculum and its application, and be active players in education reform to become ‘pedagogical authorities’ to their students, rather than simply being passive implementers of education policy. In the area of social knowledge,
teacher educators must be adaptable to the challenges of their job. Given that they must prepare future teachers to be ready to play a role as agents of change in the lives of young people, in this sense, teaching can be viewed as related to changing the world. The contributions of teacher educators to the process of societal change must not be underestimated.

In summary, teacher educators have an important role in ensuring student teachers are well prepared for the teaching profession and its social responsibilities. The qualifications and competencies of teacher educators—as written in the National Law of Teachers and Lecturers (2005)—in Indonesia must be reconsidered with the purpose of improving their quality and capacity. The requirement of teaching experience prior to entering the profession is an issue that must be considered alongside the necessary education background required by law. As argued by Goodwin and Kosnik (2013), teachers’ professional knowledge—in terms of personal, contextual, pedagogical and social knowledge—is also an important area of expertise that teacher educators must develop before entering the profession. In addition, teacher education programs need teacher educators who will accept responsibility for big-picture perspectives that inform collaborative approaches when working with curricula. Viewing teacher education in this manner will help reconceptualise the role and necessary preparation and experience requirements for teacher educators to be able to undertake this kind of work.

2.6.2 EFL Teacher Education in Indonesia: Curriculum Development

It is argued that many English teachers in Indonesia have not mastered the language they are teaching (Lie, 2007). This is concerning, given that the position of EFL in Indonesia requires high commitment from teachers to provide English exposure as much as possible during classroom teaching. In response to improving the quality of English teachers in
Indonesia, the Indonesian government issued law *Act No. 74/2008* (Chapter 8) on teachers and *Act No. 14/2005* (Chapter 10) on the four competencies required by teachers. As aforementioned, these four competencies include pedagogical, personality, professional and social competence.

The centrality of these four competencies was actualised by the DGHE through its prescription of four components in the higher education curriculum. These four curricular components include general education units, specialised units, professional units and elective units. It should be noted that the competencies prescribed in the teacher education curriculum components are relevant to both in-service and pre-service teacher education. For in-service learning, the intention is to upgrade and update teacher knowledge and skills during one’s teaching career, while the intention of pre-service teacher education is to acquire knowledge and skills before entering the teaching profession. Pre-service teachers in teacher education programs are required to undertake general education units for instruction related to personality and social competence. The specialised and elective units provide pre-service teachers with instruction related to their professional competence. For building pre-service teachers’ pedagogical competence, instruction comes in the professional units (Lie, 2007).

According to Zein (2012), the Indonesian policy on teacher competency has required pre-service programs to create a new curriculum for EFLTEPs. However, other calls for reform of the content of EFL teacher education have also been made by a number of Indonesian scholars, including Riesky (2013), Luciana (2006), Lie (2007), Bismoko (2003), Madya (2003) and Lengkenawati (2005). The reforms proposed by these scholars focus mainly on efforts to improve the quality of EFL teachers in response to the perceived low effectiveness of teaching EFL in Indonesia. Madya (2003) examined the implications of the *Education Reform Bill* passed in 2003 for EFL teacher competencies in Indonesia. Madya stated that, because TEFL in Indonesia is a core part of the Indonesian education system, any
change in the Indonesian education system will influence this, and require change in the 
TEFL system. One article of the education bill relates to the requirement for teachers to have 
a good command of English. Article 30 of the bill states that English can be used as the 
second medium of instruction during secondary and tertiary education. This indicates that 
EFL teachers need to use as much English as possible during their classes (Madya, 2003), 
and that EFL teachers are legislatively supported and required to create an English learning 
environment that is useful for students to learn and acquire English.

Madya (2003) further argued that the required EFL teacher competencies can only be 
developed through appropriately designed EFLTEPs at both pre-service and in-service levels. 
One of the major reforms of EFLTEPs proposed by Madya concerns the development of 
student teachers’ teaching skills. For example, in the teacher education program at the State 
University of Yogyakarta, the development of teaching skills is articulated in microteaching 
and teaching practicum courses that account for three study credits—one credit for 
microteaching and two credits for the teaching practicum. However, Madya argued that, 
under the new education law, the proportion of microteaching and teaching practicum is 
insufficient for undertaking teaching duties. Madya stated that EFLTEPs must be redesigned 
to meet the standards stipulated in Article 32 of the education bill, which outlines the 
standards for content, personnel, facilities, management, financing and evaluation. In 
referring to this article, Madya stated that there is an urgent need to develop the EFL teacher 
education curriculum; empower EFL teacher educators; and develop and provide facilities, 
equipment and resources to improve the quality of the programs.

In a study about developing standards for language teacher education programs in 
Indonesia, Luciana (2006) examined 10 language teacher education programs in Java, Bali, 
and Lampung, Indonesia, and suggested that English teacher education programs need to 
focus more on equipping student teachers with both knowledge of the English language and
pedagogical skills. She noted that these 10 English teacher education programs used similar curricula that consisted of general courses related to nationalism, religion, ethics, logic and English skills. Luciana’s study showed that the programs largely shared course names, but not course content, so it was misleading to believe that this level of uniformity represented the same standards across the programs. In addition, the programs varied widely in terms of the available human resources. They ranged from educators with good academic qualifications and competence to educators who were poor in these categories. Another feature of the programs was their inadequate development of student teachers’ teaching skills. Despite the presence of teaching practicum as one of the major courses, it seemed that there was a limited link between academic knowledge and practical skills. In addition, there was minimal support from English teachers in schools to facilitate the student teachers’ teaching skills.

At least three primary obstacles to English teacher education programs in Indonesia can be drawn from Luciana’s (2006) study: the varying degree of qualifications and competence, the curriculum for implementing teaching practicum, and low levels of support from the schools when apprenticeship of student teachers occurs. Luciana made recommendations regarding the problems of English teacher education programs in Indonesia by identifying three areas that need improvement: microteaching, teaching practicum and seminars on teaching. First, Luciana recommended that the microteaching course needs to serve student teachers better by following a particular teaching model and critically examining other models in order to develop the capacity to be creative with their own. This means that student teachers must be given various opportunities to adjust and adapt their teaching schemes for particular groups of learners, in working with clearly defined objectives.
Second, Luciana (2006) recommended that the teaching practicum—which is usually conducted at a school during a set period—needs redefinition. The teaching practicum is often considered the only major course to pass. Its aim for developing and sharpening teaching skills and competence often has too much focus on preparing teaching materials and media to increase students’ motivation, with less focus on developing reflective teaching. Reflective teaching requires greater emphasis because it plays an important role in developing student teachers’ capacity to think creatively and self-critically about the beliefs, values and assumptions underlying their classroom practice. In addition, the link between teaching practicum in the English teacher education programs and practicum schools must be established based on mutually beneficial collaboration. This collaboration should involve programs sharing theoretical insights, and schools providing practical aspects of teaching. In acting on Luciana’s (2004) recommendation, there is a need to design coherent curriculum to realise this kind of collaboration.

Third, Luciana (2006) recommended further developing seminars on teaching. It is essential to undertake a seminar on teaching in which student teachers can link to the academic community to engage in a shared dialogue on teaching issues and discussions about practice. They need to be able to observe each other engaging in the practice of teaching, and work together on the curriculum by planning, designing and evaluating the curriculum.

Of course, the main aim of improving the quality of teacher education is to provide student teachers with adequate knowledge and skills so that, after completing the program, they are both qualified and professional in outlook as they begin their journey as teachers. All the research covered here recognises this, and offers insights on how to achieve this. Lengkenawati (2005) pointed out that improving the teaching of English in schools can be achieved by raising teachers’ competence through a well-designed and organised teacher education program. This is crucial because quality teaching will ensure that the
implementation of school curriculum is effective and successful. Lengkenawati stated that curriculum revision is ineffective if not accompanied by important efforts to improve education as a whole. She argued that the central priority must be teacher competence during implementation of the curriculum.

In order to consider a thorough overview of the structure of EFL teacher education in Indonesia, I analysed documents related to curriculum and course structure from three representative EFLTEPs in Indonesia. These teacher education programs included private and state-owned programs on Java and Sumatra islands (which have the two highest populations in Indonesia). This section presents a summary of the programs from each university, followed by an analysis of the similarities and differences in the structure of these programs.

This section first analyses the program offered at the Indonesian University of Education (Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia—UPI). This program is divided into four groups of courses (www.english.upi.edu). In the first group, the program focuses on providing student teachers with general courses in religious affairs, citizenship, sports and health education. The second group of courses is related to the teaching profession, with courses such as psychology in education, student development and introduction to education. The student teachers are also prepared in EFL teaching skills, such as language teaching and learning, research on language teaching, and English material and development. A teaching practicum or professional teaching program is undertaken by student teachers during the last year of their program (in Semester 8, with a total of four credit points). A further group of courses is related to subject content, including foundation of English grammar and English skills for general communication, language acquisition, and discourse analysis. An additional set of extension courses is also available, including include English for business, English of office administration, and theories of interpreting. Student teachers complete the program if
they successfully undertake 144 credits of total courses offered by this EFLTEP program within four years.

Similar to the EFLTEP at UPI, the EFL program at Malang Muhammadiyah University offers four groups of courses (www.english.umm.ac.id). However, this university offers a teaching practicum program in Semester 6. This consists of Teaching Practicum 1 (TP 1), worth two credits, and Teaching Practicum 2 (TP 2), worth four credits. TP 1 is a microteaching course undertaken within the program, while TP 2 involves teaching practice that occurs at a partnership school. Student teachers must complete 150 credits to finish this program.

Riau University’s EFLTEP seeks to be the centre of education, research and teaching for English in the Sumatra region. Like other universities in Indonesia that have English teacher education programs, this university prepares student teachers to be competent in ELT. The structure of the curriculum in this program consists of 64 courses with a total of 155 credits (www.universitas-riau-unri.kpt.co.id). Similar to the University of Muhammadiyah Malang, this programs’ teaching practicum course offers microteaching as a prerequisite before student teachers can enter partnership schools to complete the teaching practicum.

There are two minor differences between these three teacher education programs. First, the total credits of courses that student teachers must complete range from 150 to 165. Second, the duration of the teaching practicum is slightly different at the University of Muhammadiyah Malang compared to the other two universities. Student teachers have two semesters of teaching practicum in the last year of that program, while, at UPI and the University of Riau, the teaching practicum takes place during one semester only. There are also some similarities regarding the structure of these three teacher education programs. For example, microteaching is offered as a prerequisite course before student teachers begin a teaching practicum at a school. Another similarity is that, in the total credits of courses that
candidates must complete, courses related to subject matter knowledge are dominant, rather than pedagogy or other general courses. The effect of focusing more on subject matter courses is discussed further in the following chapter. Overall, the differences between these EFLTEPs can be considered minor, given that the programs are essentially similar in terms of the curriculum, which is based on the curriculum guide published by the government.

2.6.3 Curriculum Reform

A number of studies focusing on EFLTEPs’ curricula have been conducted by Indonesian scholars. For example, Setyono (2014) recommended the establishment of an association of study program in response to the need to standardise the core competencies of university graduates. With a standardised level of competence, it is expected that equal capabilities would be demonstrated by university graduates from the same fields of study throughout Indonesia. To enable this standardisation, the curriculum guide published by the Ministry of Education and Culture in 2012 allows higher education institutions in Indonesia to work collaboratively to formulate the core competencies of their university graduates (Setyono, 2014). However, the current problem is that each EFLTEP seeks to stipulate the core competencies of its graduates based on its own decisions.

With the goal of standardising the curriculum for the education of prospective English teachers in Indonesia, it is hoped that core competencies for teachers will be stipulated by the Association of English Education Study program. If core competencies are developed, the curriculum developers at the level of the study program can continue the process by formulating supporting competencies that best meet the vision, mission and uniqueness of each program, based on the contextual factors of each teacher education program. Thus, any adjustments allowed would accommodate the local needs of each teacher education program.
Setyono (2014) argued that the statements of competence required to be achieved by undergraduate students of English teacher education programs should be at the core of these programs in Indonesia. He argued that statements of competence are an important guide for all English teacher education programs in Indonesia to target their student teachers to achieve those standards. Without a standard for graduate competencies, the capabilities of graduates will vary, which will affect the competitiveness of many graduates. Setyono added that the higher education curriculum should include the expected outcomes for graduates in terms of these competencies. That is, graduates of teacher education programs must be expected to possess general competencies, main competencies and specific competencies. General competencies would constitute the general characteristics of graduates at the national level, main competencies would be the characteristics of a study program at the national level, and specific competencies would represent the uniqueness of the university in alignment with its vision and mission. In addition, the formulation of graduate competencies would contain the four aspects described in the Indonesia Qualification Framework, which are the general attitudes and values that characterise education in Indonesia, the description of work performance, the description of knowledge mastery, and the description of managerial ability.

In line with Setyono (2014), Putri (2014) stated that, in the Indonesian education system, every university with a teacher training and education program has the freedom to create its own curriculum, which results in diverse quality of teachers. She added that, in the field of language teaching, student teachers who have learnt theories in linguistics, psychology and teaching methods should not be satisfied with merely gaining a bachelor degree, as this is just the starting point of their lifelong professional development as a teacher. Putri stated that the professional development program for second language teachers is a significant concern to policymakers who are aware of the importance of quality teachers. She argued that, in order to achieve the aim of creating quality teachers, there must be an
appropriate curriculum for teaching practicum in order to fill the gap between what student teachers have learnt and what actually occurs during teaching practice. She proposed that four activities be included in the design of curriculum for teaching practicum to improve the quality of English pre-service teachers. These activities comprise mentoring to bridge theory and practice, emphasising a culture of teacher collaboration, endorsing supervision as a means to create reflective teachers, and conducting case studies to diagnose students’ issues in learning.

Lengkenawati (2005) also recommended some standards in teacher education institutions to help prepare teachers to meet the demands of a new curriculum. In addition, teachers’ welfare needs to be improved so that teachers can better serve their students. The recruitment and selection system in the teaching profession also needs to be more competitive and selective to ensure the professional quality of those entering the teaching workforce. In addition to Lengkenawati’s (2005) recommendations, Wiyati (2014) recommended that there be a clear and systematic course design to provide students with rich opportunities to deal with language proficiency and content knowledge, especially in ELT fields. In addition, teachers must establish systematic pre-teaching practices prior to actually teaching in schools. In this case, the authority figures in universities can break down pre-teaching practice into several parts before students are ready to undertake their training program. There should also be lecturers available who are proficient in the language and course design materials in ELT fields, who can prepare pre-service students to be well-qualified teachers. Finally, there should be continuous mentoring from lecturers and supervising teachers to provide full support and assistance to pre-service teachers when conducting their teaching practicum.

The literature discussed here raises important issues regarding EFLTEPs in Indonesia. Teachers in Indonesia must possess pedagogical, personal, professional and social competencies. To achieve this, the knowledge and skill base of teacher educators in Indonesia
should be reconsidered. For example, prior teaching experience—as suggested by Zeichner (2005) and Goodwin and Kosnik (2013)—should be an important consideration in the development of recruitment policies for teacher educators in the future. Finally, the curriculum currently used in EFLTEPs in a number of universities offers information regarding the core competencies needed by EFL teachers, and the need for standardisation of the curriculum across Indonesia.

2.7 Summary

This chapter has attempted to locate this study of EFLTEPs in the Indonesian context. It presented three main sections on TEFL, ELT policy and EFLTEPs in Indonesia. The history of policy and practice in TEFL in Indonesia contributes to the difference in its learning and teaching compared to other neighbouring countries, such as Malaysia, Hong Kong and Singapore. The ELT policy in Indonesia has arisen in response to the needs of qualified EFL teachers in terms of the government’s effort to enforce nominated competencies for these teachers. EFLTEPs have responded to the issue of the quality of English teachers by implementing a curriculum that accommodates the four competencies for language teachers in their program.
Chapter 3: Review of the Literature on English Language Teacher Education—The International Context

3.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature reporting on EFL teacher education. This review includes research literature about the international context of EFL in teacher education programs, the language knowledge and language teaching skills of new teachers, the implementation of teaching practicum or clinical experience, and teaching English for young learners. This review is organised into the following sections:

- the international context of EFLTEPs
- the knowledge base of language teachers
- pre-service teachers’ teaching practicum
- teaching English for young learners
- summary of the chapter.

3.2 International Context of EFL Teacher Education Programs

In order to gain an overview of EFLTEPs around the world, this section presents a review of the international literature related to EFL programs. The context of EFLTEPs in developing countries is elaborated to identify similar features with EFLTEPs in Indonesia. In addition, a number of studies in developed countries are discussed to establish what is recognised as ‘best practice’ for teacher education programs in a broader context.
3.2.1 EFL Teacher Education Curriculum

The review begins with several studies conducted in countries such as Vietnam, Thailand and Singapore because they have common features to teacher education programs in Indonesia, and these similarities are important. First, teacher education programs in these countries are designed to prepare student teachers to work with large classes, which is important because of the large number of students in most East Asian countries (Kam, 2002). Second, the condition of having large classes may lead to students having fewer opportunities to interact with the target language being learnt, and less time for teachers to work with students individually (Kam, 2002). Third, most of these countries have introduced English as a subject in the primary school curriculum (Kam, 2002); thus, there is high demand for EFL primary teachers with knowledge of teaching English to young learners (Zein, 2014). Due to these countries’ similar approaches to ELT, a review of their teacher education programs is relevant to my study.

The teacher education curriculum is important, and establishing a knowledge base (what teachers need to know) to form the content of a teacher education program—which becomes the curriculum—is essential to EFL/ESL teacher education (Graves, 2009; Richards, 1998). A mixed-methods study conducted by Nguyen (2013) at Threehills University in Australia and Nam-Do University in Vietnam (both pseudonyms) examined and compared the curriculum of English language teacher education in Australian and Vietnamese universities. This is relevant to be presented first in this review. Threehills University’s curriculum for second language teacher education (SLTE) was a four-year double degree, with education as one of the two majors. In contrast, Nam-Do University’s curriculum was a four-year degree of ELT. This program prepared student teachers to teach English at all levels, from preschool to university. Only a small proportion of student teachers in the Australian program came from a non-English-speaking background, whereas all
student teachers in the Vietnamese program were from this background. This study aimed to identify how the programs were different, and what distinctive contextual factors contributed to those differences.

Nguyen (2013) used Richards’s (1998) framework for the knowledge base of SLTE as a theoretical framework to analyse the two curricula. Richards’s position on the knowledge base that should be included in the content or curriculum of SLTE programs consists of theories of teaching, teaching skills, communication skills, subject matter knowledge, pedagogical reasoning skills, decision making and contextual knowledge. Nguyen analysed curriculum documents from the two programs and coded these against Richards’s domains of the knowledge base of language teachers. The study found that Treehills University integrated contextual knowledge (53%) with pedagogical reasoning and decision-making skills (23%) into the curriculum, while Nam-Do University only integrated 9.4% for each of these domains. Nam-Do University’s curriculum placed greater emphasis on developing pre-service teachers’ knowledge of the subject matter and communication skills than did Treehills University’s curriculum, which offered only 3% of its total credit points to developing communication, and zero credit points to explicitly developing subject matter knowledge for its pre-service teachers. Moreover, while the Australian double degree allocated 47% of its curriculum to a second, non-education area of study—such as business, music and art—the Vietnamese program reserved 30% for core knowledge subjects, such as philosophy, history of the Vietnamese party and physical education.

According to Nguyen (2013), several factors contributed to the high percentage of credit points allocated by Treehills University to developing the student teachers’ contextual knowledge. First, the central role of fieldwork placements was underpinned by a universal agreement among the Australian Council of Deans of Education. Second, as an accredited teacher education program, the large proportion of fieldwork placement in the curriculum
was required to comply with the standards for accreditation of initial teacher education programs in Australia. Moreover, the emphasis of Treehills University’s curriculum on contextual knowledge is consistent with a sociocultural perspective on learning that emphasises learning occurring in specific contexts, such as schools. In contrast, the curriculum placed much less emphasis on the domains of communication skills and research, with each accounting for only 3% of the total credit points. There was no single unit offered to develop student teachers’ knowledge of English language—the subject matter that they were going to teach. The little emphasis given to this domain might be due to it being considered a prerequisite by the university, with applicants to the program required to have completed their prior education in English for a long period, and to have obtained certain grades in their English subjects.

Other domains (such as theories of teaching, teaching skills and pedagogical reasoning and decision making) accounted for between 15 and 24% of the total number of credits. These domains provide student teachers with an understanding of the relevant theories of teaching, and develop their teaching skills. In contrast to Treehills University, the majority of curriculum in English teacher education at Nam-Do University was allocated to the domains of communication skills and subject matter knowledge, with 34 and 40%, respectively. Nguyen (2013) found that the focus given to these domains of knowledge was influenced by contextual factors at institutional and national levels. Data from the interviews showed that pre-service teachers’ low English proficiency—especially in the areas of speaking and listening—upon entering the teacher education program was an important contextual factor that influenced the decision to place great emphasis on developing the pre-service teachers’ English proficiency and communication skills. In addition, at a national level, policy is a major factor that shapes the curriculum structure. The prime minister of Vietnam issued Decision 1400 in 2008, identifying the goals for national English language
education by 2020. This policy aimed to provide a new compulsory English program by schools, so that, by 2020, most Vietnamese students graduating from secondary schools, vocational schools, colleges and universities would be able to use a foreign language confidently during their daily communication, and could study and work in an integrated, multicultural and multilingual environment.

In comparison with the domain of communication skills, the domains of pedagogical reasoning, decision making and contextual knowledge accounted for much smaller proportions (each 9.4%). As a result, the Vietnamese student teachers only had six weeks of professional placement throughout their four years of study and—according to Nguyen (2013)—did not receive adequate opportunity to develop their pedagogical reasoning and interactive decision making on the job. Having less professional placement appears to be a persistent problem in language teacher education in Vietnam. Studies conducted by Pham (2001) and Le (2004) also found that limited time on practicum gave student teachers little opportunity to develop their contextual knowledge or understanding of the realities of teaching in schools. Significantly, this was seen as a missing link between training and the reality of the schools where student teachers will be expected to work.

Nguyen (2013) concluded that Nam-Do University had responded well to its distinctive contextual feature, with its pre-service teachers having limited proficiency and knowledge of the English language upon entry. However, Nguyen suggested that the program needed to pay more attention to developing pre-service teachers’ initial contextual knowledge, such as types of schools, administrative practices, school culture and expectations. Further, it should devote more time to authentic teaching practices because this kind of knowledge enables student teachers to function most effectively in the teaching context.
Dang et al. (2013) conducted a study about the effect of globalisation on EFL teacher education in Vietnam. They found that the spread of EMI in non-English-speaking countries encouraged many universities in developing (non-English-speaking) countries to offer EMI education programs, with the objective of developing national human capital through enhanced proficiency in English. They also revealed the importance of English as a global language, as evident in actions from governments in language planning and policy. By the 1990s, there was a growing realisation in Vietnam that competence in foreign languages was a key factor facilitating the *Đoàn Mới* (‘renovation’) approach and enhancing Vietnam’s competitive position in international economic and political arenas.

The need for reform of English teaching in Vietnam requires pre-service EFL teacher education to provide a more practical orientation to classroom teaching, and focus particularly on renovating teacher education programs with a contemporary approach that closely relates to the real-life context of schools. Reforms should respond to the call for developing qualified teachers who act as active agents to implement the national language education plan. It should be based on the premise that training EFL teachers using an EMI framework will improve future teachers’ practices, especially in creating an appropriate English-speaking environment for their students. This study also suggested that English-teaching resources must be available to EMI programs in Vietnam to support pre-service teachers’ use of English. To do so, EMI program policymakers and planners need to provide pre-service teachers with more relevant resources and facilities for classroom use.

Regarding the content of teacher education curriculum, Peercy (2012) stated that the influence of combined practical and theoretical studies on the emerging identities of pre-service teachers needs further, careful investigation. In her study of how ESL teachers make sense of their pre-service education, Peercy interviewed two pre-service teachers (one male and one female participant) in depth. The male participant stated that the mismatch of
emphasising the theoretical instead of the practical has led to problems in developing the
skills and experience needed to build vocabularies and use grammar correctly. In relation to
the teaching practicum, the male participant felt that the theory did not account for what was
actually observed in teachers’ work. There was a clear slippage between the theory and
practice of language acquisition and actual teacher discussion in the classroom. However, the
male participant was very positive about the ESL endorsement course he took on content-
based instruction. This course provided instruction on the practicalities of preparing and
implementing lessons that promote learner engagement. It dealt with core aspects such as
establishing objectives and selecting reading and learning materials.

The in-depth interview with the female participant revealed a similar view to the male
participant about the methods course, which was considered to be unaligned to the real world
context of everyday teaching. The principles presented did not seem to include the practical
emphasis expected and wanted in that course. The female participant took another ESL
endorsement course on teaching minority language learners, which she found to be more
helpful. This gave insight to the importance and utility of applying the social context of ESL
learners to using techniques in ways that the methods course did not consider. The male
participant wanted more practical learning that was closely connected to the reality of what
occurs in classrooms. This view, along with the female participant’s focus on actualising a
day-to-day activity, provides insights to what they considered valuable and lacking in their
program. These participants understood that what they learnt during these courses would
affect identities as teachers; thus, they wanted practical experience that was as close to reality
as possible.

The male student teacher constructed himself as a motivator focused on skill
development, and was inclined to reject aspects of his coursework that were not directly
related to transferrable strategies for teaching English language learners in the classroom. In
contrast, the female student teacher understood the importance of familial and individual engagements with sociocultural systems to achieve successful outcomes for language learners. Consequently, she saw her role in helping students make sense of these systems as significant in her development as a teacher. Peercy (2012) suggested that there is a need to keep linking theory to practice for teachers during their professional identity development, even though the relation between theory and practice may vary among teachers, depending on how they actualise their roles as teachers.

A study on the ELT curriculum in Singapore by Alsagoff and Low (2007) found that the curriculum had changed its focus from two subjects—teaching the English language and science—to focus only on teaching the English language in order to allow for more curriculum time on ELT units. They examined the development of the curriculum in the National Institute of Education in Singapore. The changes to the curriculum in the postgraduate diploma in ELT at this institute were viewed from two perspectives: educational and economic. Alsagoff and Low suggested that, with the growing status of English as a global language, the goals of pre-service English language teacher education programs around the world share the common feature of focusing on preparing English teachers who are able to equip learners to use English so that they can communicate with English speakers around the world. Further, they found that rapid economic progress in a country may affect the English language learning market. For example, in China—where English has become the dominant foreign language used—English is not simply a subject in the curriculum, but is seen as an important tool for the workplace and daily communication (Alsagoff & Low, 2007).

In summary, in the effort to prepare student teachers to have English proficiency, teacher education programs must pay attention to developing pre-service teachers’ language knowledge and language skills. Student teachers’ initial contextual knowledge of schools,
administrative practices, school cultures and expectations must also be developed in these programs (Nguyen, 2013). In addition, in order to enable adequate practical teaching knowledge, programs must devote more time to authentic teaching because this knowledge enables pre-service teachers to function effectively in their teaching context (Dang et al., 2013). Exploring theory and practice in the courses offered in these programs is an important aspect of designing curriculum because teachers’ understandings of the theory–practice relationship will affect how they identify themselves as teachers (Peercy, 2012).

3.2.2 English Language Teaching

This section presents ELT from an international context. A study on the status of ELT in Vietnam (Hoa & Tuan, 2007) found that the dominant role of English in current international communication has increased the status of English teaching and learning in Vietnam, and encouraged English education to start at an early stage. Since English education was introduced at the primary school level in Vietnam, there has been no legislation regarding policy for teachers and no further instruction on how to undertake this English language learning and teaching. Hoa and Tuan (2007) pointed out that, while teachers are one of the most important factors in ensuring the effective implementation of English education at the primary level, there remains a mismatch between the expected quality of English teachers and the reality of achieving that goal. Primary teachers who are familiar with children’s learning characteristics cannot teach primary English due to their low level of English proficiency. Primary English teachers in Vietnam come from different sources and there is no benchmark to ensure the quality of these teachers. As such, their proficiency in English and ability to teach English are far from satisfactory.

Hoa and Tuan (2007) suggested that the government needs to communicate with relevant parties—such as school principals and teachers—regarding an English education
policy to improve the teaching and learning of English in Vietnam. In addition, specific curriculum guidelines on the requirements for implementing primary English education are needed. Regarding efforts to improve the quality of teachers, Hoa and Tuan recommended that the Ministry of Education and Training provide training at both pre-service and in-service levels in curriculum planning and development. In addition to training in teaching skills, teacher education needs to focus on raising teachers’ level of language competence, as the most obvious challenge to successful classroom teaching.

In line with Hoa and Tuan (2007), Malderez (2009) examined the nature and roles of mentors in the teacher learning process to increase teacher competence. Mentoring is a process crucial to teacher development, and particularly to the teacher’s ability to succeed and grow in a specific workplace context (Malderez, 2009). To do so, mentors are required to play roles such as model, facilitator, supporter, sponsor and educator during their teaching activities. An effective mentor helps teacher learners link classroom experience, research and good practice. However, unlike supervisors, mentors do not seek to assess, correct or intervene in the teacher learner’s practice, but act to facilitate the teacher’s own thinking, judgement and decision making. Malderez described this process as supportive scaffolding of the core skills of professional learning, thinking and action; described how mentors can undertake this role; and outlined the conditions necessary to facilitate it.

Goh and Wong (2014) conducted a study informing the effort to improve teacher quality. This investigated beginner teachers’ conceptions of competency, and the implications of this for educational policy and teacher education in Malaysia. It suggested a need for teachers to be included in quality improvement measures, and for in-service and pre-service teacher programs to focus on ongoing professional learning as a key way to enhance teacher competency. This study used phenomenography with an interpretive approach to reveal what beginner teachers conceived and understood as competence in their daily practice as teachers.
The findings related to the main role played by beginning teachers’ conceptions of competency, and the implications of this for educational policies and teacher education practices.

In a Singaporean context, Choy, Wong, Lim and Chong (2013) conducted a study investigating what beginner teachers perceived about pedagogical knowledge and skills in teaching. This revealed that beginner teachers’ pedagogical knowledge and skills increased significantly in lesson planning, instructional strategies and classroom management by the end of their third year of teaching. The findings suggested that learning to teach is a continuous process that begins with the teacher education program and continues into the initial three years of teaching.

A study by Hu and McKay (2012) reviewed the perceived importance and accelerated spread of English language education in three Asian countries: China, Japan and South Korea. They found common trends and issues that were seen as a response to the increased importance of English in these three countries. The first trend was the introduction of English to the early stage of formal language education. In China, the starting grade moved from Junior Secondary 1 to Primary 3 in the national curriculum. The second trend was the increased prominence of English as a curricular subject, as reflected by the contact hours for primary and secondary English teaching increasing significantly in these three countries. For example, in China, the contact hours increased by more than 80% from 1998 to 2011. The third trend revealed that the governments in these three countries were not satisfied with traditional approaches to English language education. In response, they proposed a new orientation to developing practical competence in using English for communication. The new strategies employed teaching methodologies of Western origins, and promoted them through introducing new syllabuses, text books and assessments. The fourth trend was the movement of these three countries to provide students with some form of immersion in English to give
them the opportunity to use English for communication. Such immersion programs are created mainly via English-medium instruction in the school system. Another similarity shared by these three countries is the role of English proficiency as the gatekeeper. In all three educational systems, English has become a core component of assessments in high school and university entrance examination, while, in the workplace, English proficiency plays a crucial role in each society.

Kam (2002) conducted an overview of ELT in East Asia, presenting the position and status of ELT in 15 East Asia countries: Brunei, Cambodia, China, Hong Kong, Japan, Indonesia, South Korea, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, the Philippines, Singapore, Taiwan, Thailand and Vietnam. According to Kam, English is the first foreign language taught in Indonesia. For a long time, it has been studied in secondary schools; however, it has only been studied in primary schools since 1994. The learning of English in Indonesia has not been considered a success. Factors that contribute to its lack of success in Indonesia are similar to those in other East Asia countries, such as Vietnam, Myanmar and Thailand. Despite the fact that the ELT objectives and conditions of learning English vary among the 15 studied countries’ education systems, average classes in most East Asia countries—including Indonesia, Vietnam, Myanmar and Thailand—remain large, with little opportunity for students to interact or communicate in the target language. Moreover, the opportunity to learn and use English is restricted by the time allocated in the curriculum, ranging from 30 to 40 minutes per class in a week. The lack of teaching and learning facilities is also a common problem in these countries. According to Dang et al. (2013), teacher education programs in Vietnam need to provide pre-service teachers with more relevant resources and facilities in classrooms to increase their English proficiency.

Kam (2002) found several recent trends in ELT across East Asia. First, due to economic globalisation, English has become the most common language of communication.
Correspondingly, the teaching of English continues to spread as a national priority across East Asia. Second, English is increasingly being introduced as a primary school subject in the region. This trend needs to be supported by the availability of local teachers who have the training and competence to teach English. To ensure the success of ELT, the numbers and competence of qualified teachers must be increased. Third, the ELT curriculum in East Asian countries is increasingly characterised by the integration of the concepts of communicative language teaching (CLT) and skills integration.

CLT has become a dominant theoretical model since the 1980s in this part of the world. As an approach, it provides teachers with communicative activities in their repertoire of teaching skills, and gives learners the opportunity to practise their language skills in the classroom. Some countries—such as Thailand, Indonesia and Vietnam—have established CLT as their focus for ELT, and it has been implemented since the 1990s. However, the teaching and learning of English in Indonesia has been less successful, as a result of several aforementioned factors. The main factors include a lack of student motivation, shortage of competent teachers and lack of English-teaching resources (Dardjowidjojo, 1996; Lengkenawati, 2005; Luciana, 2006; Sulistiyo, 2009). The following section presents a review of several studies on English language teacher education programs from international perspectives.

3.2.3 Studies Evaluating English Language Teacher Education Programs

This section examines previous evaluation studies of language teacher education programs, and aims to provide relevant information regarding efforts to improve the quality of these programs in the international context. A review of research in this area of teacher education is important here because it will inform the study of these programs’ features that
should be considered in understanding how to better prepare student teachers for their teaching profession.

A study evaluating an English teacher education program in Turkey conducted by Coscun and Daloglu (2010) aimed to raise awareness of the importance of program evaluation for teacher education, and document student teachers’ and university instructors’ perspectives of components of English teacher education that might be improved in the Turkish context. The findings from this study revealed that the student teachers agreed that the pedagogic component of their program was weak because it did not allow sufficient teaching practice opportunities. The student teachers wanted more emphasis on pedagogic courses and teaching practice in schools. They also argued for the school experience to occur earlier in the program and for more time to be allocated in schools. In addition, the student teachers commented on a perceived overemphasis on theoretical courses, in which assessments were not clearly connected to practice. They found courses that included practical components to be more useful.

In contrast with the students’ perspectives of the program, the university instructors argued that the program focused more on preparing student teachers with teaching skills, and less on their language competence. Requiring student teachers to learn English prior to entering the English teacher education department was seen as a way to improve the student teachers’ linguistic competence. The teaching practicum as the means of experiential learning was important to both the student teachers and university instructors. The student teachers stated that the mentors and administrators at schools were not cooperative and did not seem to understand the contribution student teachers made to their schools. They also claimed that the supervising teachers did most of the work, but were not paid enough for the work they were completing.
Coskun and Daloglu (2010) provided several suggestions to improve the EFLTEP in the Turkish context. They recommended that the courses in the program be redesigned to meet the practical and teaching needs of the student teachers. They also argued that the program needed to balance theory and practice more effectively, including timing school experience earlier in the program and lengthening the time spent in schools. They also identified a need for student teachers to reflect on and share their teaching practice so they can build stronger links between their theoretical and practical knowledge.

In line with Coscun and Daloglu’s (2010) recommendations, Erozan (2005) pointed out that, to better prepare student teachers with the skills they need to teach English, programs need redesigning to implement more practice components into language improvement courses in order to provide a wider variety of authentic materials, and use a larger range of methods and activities to educate student teachers how to teach. In addition, Salli-Capur (2008) asserted that there is a need to revise the course content in English teacher education programs in Turkey in terms of unnecessary overlaps among courses. Further, Salli-Capur added that the practice component of the program needs greater emphasis. Coskun and Daloglu (2010) commented on this as well, adding that, in order to avoid overlaps among different courses, teacher educators need to work in cooperation, collaboration and integration in order to consider overlaps and resolve disagreements in terms of course content. Teacher educators also need to use a variety of teaching approaches and methodologies. Finally, Coskun and Daloglu (2010) identified that the relationship between teacher educators and student teachers was favourable, and that courses related to teaching material development were favoured by both student teachers and their teacher educators. The addition of courses—such as teaching the four skills, literature and language teaching—and separating the listening course from the speaking course in the new program was
regarded as a positive change by the teacher educators. They also stressed that courses related to teaching practice for student teachers should be maintained in the program.

Another Turkish study about teaching knowledge and teacher competencies conducted by Komur (2010) is worth discussing because it provides insights to the strengths and weaknesses of pre-service English teacher programs in Turkey, which are relevant to efforts to improve the quality of Indonesia’s EFLTEPs. The research concluded that course content and curriculum design are the best way to meet the needs of student teachers’ English proficiency and pedagogical skills. Komur’s study involved fourth-year students in the department of English language education in the Faculty of Education at Mugla University, Turkey. Thirty-nine pre-service English teachers participated in this mixed-methods study, which used both quantitative and qualitative data instruments to evaluate the teaching knowledge and teacher competencies of the pre-service English teachers, and record their reflections about teaching practicum.

Komur (2010) pointed out that, although there had been improvements in English pre-service teacher education in Turkey, the connection between theory and practice was not effectively established, and the language teacher training program needed to better integrate theory with practice in the teaching environment, particularly by providing more feedback sessions for teacher candidates. The findings from the quantitative data showed that the scores for teacher competencies and teacher knowledge were high enough to be considered sufficient for entering the classroom, based on current models for language teacher education. However, when the qualitative data from the open-ended questionnaire were analysed, it was evident that pre-service English teachers had experienced many difficulties in teaching grammar, language skills and classroom management during their practicum. Interestingly, the dimensions of teacher knowledge, language learning and phonology received considerably lower scores. A possible reason for this was that, even though the student
teachers had attended related courses in language learning and phonology, the contents of these courses may not have corresponded well with the contents of the teaching knowledge test used in this study. Significantly, the results from a study of this kind serve as feedback for the current syllabi in courses, and their need for revision. As Erozan (2005) noted, to improve language teacher education curriculum by revising courses related to language improvement, a variety of authentic materials and information is needed to bring coherence among the courses.

Komur (2010) observed that the areas that cover second language acquisition and phonology dimensions are more theory based, and might subsequently remain abstract in the student teachers’ mind. Thus, these areas of language teaching require more attention in teacher training programs and from teacher educators. As Borg (2003) concluded—as have others, such as Tsui (2003) and Freese (2006)—language teachers need the ability to transfer their knowledge in more practical ways. They need both linguistic and pedagogic knowledge. Komur (2010) concluded that teaching knowledge and teacher competencies provide insight to and a base for developing English teacher education programs by emphasising the importance of integrating theory and practice in a way that is useful for student teachers’ teaching practices. To achieve this integration, English teacher education programs must link theory and practice in real classroom teaching by devoting adequate time to observations, feedback sessions and reflection during teaching practice, with the participation of both teaching mentors and teacher educators. In line with that position, Halbach (2000) stated that teaching knowledge and teacher competence are not always directly reflected in actual teaching practice, and that implementing them as practical components of teaching training courses is the best way to provide students with opportunities to compare and connect theory with practice.
In examining the nature of assessment in language teacher education, Freeman, Orzulak and Morrisey (2009) pointed out that the focus of assessment has evolved as a result of development in the nature of language teaching and teacher learning. The focus of assessment is on both teacher knowledge and teaching practice for language teachers. Language is both the content and process of teaching; thus, the areas that are assessed in SLTE must include a focus on language knowledge, teaching practices and learning outcomes. They further argued that the essence of assessment in SLTE must consider the complex intersection between the teacher and teaching. Teaching is not simply combining content with process—classroom processes create content in language teaching; thus, the major challenge in assessing language teacher education is developing new comprehensive theories that locate testing with broader assessment practices of how information is obtained, interpreted, measured and used to account for this complexity.

In discussing the curriculum of SLTE, Graves (2009) considered what comprises the knowledge base of an educational program for language teachers. She offered a model for curriculum planning that takes its starting point from the needs of teacher learners and the kinds of context in which they will work. Questions regarding the who, what and how of language teaching are critical elements of the framework because they form the foundations from which curriculum decisions can be made. The content of SLTE curriculum varies widely, depending on who the teacher educators are and who the teacher learners are, as well as where the teacher educators teach, who they teach and so forth. The issue is not so much what is relevant, but who makes it relevant, and how and why. That is, teachers themselves need to conceptualise and experience the relevance of their practice. Moreover, as a system, the knowledge bases of language teaching are interdependent and contingent. Current instructional practices in SLTE reflect this interdependency. From this position, Graves (2009) stated that a coherent curriculum is not simply a group of courses or activities that
aggregate in the teacher learner, but it must also consider how teacher learners are taught, and find congruence with how they learn.

Therefore, the aspects of the SLTE curriculum consist of understanding teacher learners, defining the goals for teacher learning, knowing what to teach and how to teach teacher learners, and evaluating the effectiveness of the teacher education process. All these aspects of the SLTE curriculum comprise the knowledge base of SLTE. Graves (2009) distinguished between the knowledge base for SLTE and knowledge base for language teaching, with the former referring to what language teacher education involves, and what language teacher educators need to know and do in order to educate student teachers effectively. She further asserted that SLTE curriculum today is enacted in multiple contexts and that, to provide teachers with opportunities to observe and practice teaching, and to learn from those experiences, partnerships with schools are essential. To be effective, these sustained opportunities for practice require ongoing planning and collaboration. In discussing evaluation and curriculum in language teacher education, Graves (2009) stated that program evaluation must consider how effective the program is or was in helping teacher learners and other participants learn. Some considerations for curriculum designers are how to integrate the parts and the whole, assessing individual skills and courses, and assessing the participants’ overall ability to teach. For example, they could consider the relationship between teachers’ linguistic knowledge when assessed on a linguistic test, and their actual ability to teach language.

Graves (2009) noted that conceptualisations of the knowledge base have changed so that the demarcation lines between content and pedagogy have become unclear. She argued that an interconnected system of knowledge bases is now needed to create a comprehensive and effective teacher development curriculum. Similarly, in order to rethink teacher
education, Hammerness, Darling-Hammond, Grossman, Rust and Shulman (2005) stated that a teacher education program needs to incorporate three fundamental elements into its design:

- what should be taught, and how the points of content are connected
- the learning process, in which the curriculum builds on student teachers’ readiness to teach
- the context in which teacher learning is situated to allow the development of expert practice.

The importance attached to school experience for student teachers’ development is another interesting topic in teacher education research. Legutke and Schocker-von Ditfurth (2009) examined school-based experience as a learning context and argued that because, for many teachers, the school is the setting for their professional lives, school experience should be a strong focus when designing SLTE programs. They proposed three principles for designing teacher education programs that give the school experience a central role. The first is to develop a research approach to learning, incorporating a multi-perspective view of the second language classroom. The second is to employ experiential learning in developing action-oriented models for second language classrooms. The third involves experimental learning—developing context-related competencies through cooperation in cross-institutional projects. They gave examples to illustrate how these principles can be applied in SLTE programs. Legutke and Schocker-von Ditfurth stressed that, to facilitate teacher development, collaboration in SLTE is essential. Collaboration is viewed as a process that serves to generate knowledge and understanding, and helps develop collegiality, in which teachers share control. Such collaboration can take many different forms, such as between teacher and teacher, teacher and university researcher, teacher and student, and teacher and other stakeholders (such as parents or administrators).
The following section reviews issues related to EFL teacher education in terms of what aspects should be included in programs, and how these aspects might influence the effectiveness of these programs in preparing student teachers to be ready to teach English to students.

3.2.4 Perspectives of Language Teacher Education

There have been previous efforts to increase the quality of teachers to meet the requirements of the EFL teaching profession (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Erozan, 2005; Luciana, 2006; Zein, 2014). For example, in order to develop SLTE, Freeman (2009) proposed three elements as key dimensions of the expanding scope of SLTE: substance, engagement and influence or outcome. In Freeman’s proposal, ‘substance’ refers to what language teacher education is about and what participants (student teachers) need to learn through specific activities or designs. ‘Engagement’ refers to questions of how professional learning should unfold in both the short and long term, and which learning processes influence professional learning and identity over time (and how these processes do that) through a language teacher education program or over a career. The third element considers the influence or outcomes of language teacher education programs. For questions about teacher quality—which refers to measuring the ability to enable learning in the classroom—it is clear that teaching does influence classroom learning; thus, stronger and weaker claims of how that influence occurs are worth examining and tracking back to antecedents and supports in teacher education.

In a similar way to Freeman (2009), Johnson (2009) reconceptualised the knowledge base of SLTE into the three broad areas of: (i) content (what second language teachers need to know), (ii) pedagogies (how second language teachers should teach) and (iii) the institutional forms of delivery through which the content and pedagogies are learnt. Thus, the
knowledge base of SLTE is the basis upon which we make decisions about how to prepare second language teachers to complete the work of this profession. Johnson (2009) suggested that knowledge of the formal properties of language or theoretical linguistics, and theories of second language acquisition need to be positioned as foundational knowledge for the professional preparation of second language teachers. Thus, the knowledge base for SLTE is based on how language learners acquire a second language, and how second language teaching is learnt or realised in practice.

According to Bardhun and Johnson (2009) one of the challenges of teacher education courses might be that they are too theoretical; thus, novice teachers are not necessarily equipped with the competencies they require. According to Halbach (2000), teaching knowledge and developing teacher competence have not been adequately integrated in language teacher education programs. Halbach gave the example that, while classroom management is taught in the university classroom, it is isolated (as theory) from the real teaching setting. Bardhun and Johnson (2009) suggested a number of areas that must be changed to improve teacher education programs. They stated that there is a need for good levels of language proficiency before non-native language teachers are allowed into teaching programs; improved curriculum content that leans further towards the practical, rather than the academic; retraining of teacher educators; more partnership schemes between national bodies and teacher training institutes; and more funding and scholarships for teachers.

In discussing standards in SLTE, Katz and Snow (2009) defined standards as the necessary tools to be used to improve outcomes. In relation to teacher education, standards for teacher educators could provide a clearer statement of the competencies needed to prepare student teachers for teaching careers. For student teachers, standards establish clear performance expectations, thereby helping them understand what they should know and do to meet professional standards. Katz and Snow were adamant that standards in teacher
education programs are important for several reasons. First, standards outline the array of competencies to prepare teachers for the complexities of the second language classroom. Teacher standards define both what it means to be an effective teacher, and how competencies can be assessed. Second, teachers must have a complete understanding of English learner standards to inform their awareness of what students should learn, the needs of second language learners, and the nature of second language development.

In addition to knowledge about learner standards, teachers must be able to use these standards when planning instruction and assessment in their own classroom. Learner standards, for both content and performance, should inform the design of curriculum, choice of materials and use of instructional techniques and strategies, while also guiding the assessment tools used to measure student progress towards achieving the targeted learning aims. As Cheng (2001) stated, teachers are now required to expand their roles to be curriculum developers and action researchers. In doing this, knowledge about learner standards is important to both inform how curriculum is designed and identify which research topics may be relevant to enhance learners’ learning.

In commenting on issues with the content of language teacher education in relation to non-native English speaker (NNES) teachers, Kamhi-Stein (2009) highlighted two broad themes: (i) language proficiency in teacher preparation programs and (ii) issues of teacher socialisation related to teacher-in-preparation programs in English dominant (or ‘inner-circle’) countries, such as the United States (US), United Kingdom (UK), Canada, Australia and New Zealand. She further explained that emphasis on issues of language proficiency and pedagogy comes from programs in EFL contexts that have produced detailed descriptions of curricula designed to enhance language proficiency. In contrast, language teacher preparation programs in inner-circle countries have not given great attention to issues of language teacher proficiency, but incorporated a language component across the curriculum and helped NNES
teachers develop sociocultural competence by comparing inner-circle and local beliefs as a tool to improve language skills. Kamhi-Stein (2009) argued that language teacher preparation programs in inner-circle and EFL settings have a lot to learn from each another. NNES teachers in both settings would benefit from curriculum that emphasises developing language proficiency, while also enhancing teachers’ self-perceptions by challenging the notion of the native speaker and supporting the notion of teachers’ ownership of the English language. Teacher knowledge about language is essential for student teachers because it is core to teacher preparation programs. In explaining the role of ‘knowledge about language’ (KAL) in SLTE, Bartels (2009) stated that KAL is not only knowledge of grammar, but also of language modes, including speaking, listening, writing and reading. In addition, it is knowledge of how language is used, including pragmatics, discourse analysis, sociolinguistic variation and so forth.

In examining novice and expert teachers, Farrell (2009) focused on the experiences of teachers during their first year of teaching, and highlighted the influence of previous schooling experiences, teacher education experiences and socialisation experiences during the first year. According to Farrell, the first year of teaching is often a challenge for new language teachers, and mentors can play a crucial role in helping novice teachers transition from the preparation program to the classroom. Farrell suggested that SLTE programs could better prepare teachers for their first year of teaching by building a preparatory course that links directly to the curriculum. The next section reviews the knowledge base of language teachers. It considers what language teachers should know and do, as well as other aspects of the teaching profession that student teachers must know about and be able to perform. This will inform discussion of the content of language teacher education curricula, the processes that determine how such knowledge is delivered in programs, and how this content will be assessed to measure student teachers’ performance.
3.3 Knowledge Base for Language Teachers

Questions regarding what teachers should know and be able to do, and their implications for teacher education courses, have been explored by many scholars. For example, Shulman and Shulman (2004) described an accomplished teacher as someone able to understand what must be taught and how to teach it. This is what they referred to as the quality of teachers—it is stated in terms of what they know and are able to do. When examining pre-service ESL teacher education programs, Day (2012) identified two aspects that can be used as assessment. The first is the knowledge base for teachers to teach, and the second is the ways that knowledge is delivered to the students. This section discusses and presents models of a language base for EFL teachers that can be used as a framework to underpin the discussion of language knowledge and language teaching skills for new teachers.

Drawing on Shulman’s (1987) PCK framework, Day and Conklin (1992) pointed to four types of knowledge base for language teachers. First is content knowledge of the subject matter, which refers to the language knowledge that ESL or EFL teachers teach. Second is pedagogic knowledge, which refers to knowledge of generic strategies, or of the ways that teachers teach. Third is PCK, which refers to knowledge of how to present content knowledge in various ways that students can understand, as well as knowledge of what problems they might encounter and how to overcome these. Fourth is support knowledge, which is knowledge of the various disciplines that inform teachers’ approaches to teaching and learning English. Nearly three decades ago, Shulman (1987) proposed that the knowledge base for teachers consists of content knowledge; general pedagogical knowledge; curriculum knowledge; PCK; knowledge of learners and their characteristics; knowledge of educational context; and knowledge of educational ends, purposes and values, and their
philosophical and historical grounds. Shulman further explained that, among those categories, PCK is the knowledge base that brings together subject matter specialists and pedagogy specialists. Teachers must have this knowledge in order to blend what they know of subject matter knowledge with how to deliver that knowledge to students.

The knowledge base for teachers proposed by Shulman (1987) and Day and Conklin (1992) is very similar. However, Day and Conklin’s (1992) formulation is particularly focused on language teachers, and includes support knowledge, which refers to knowledge of the various disciplines that inform approaches to teaching and learning English, such as psycholinguistics, linguistics, second language acquisition, sociolinguistics and research methods. The knowledge base models proposed for teachers by Shulman (1987), Day and Conklin (1992) and Day (2012) underpin the analysis of the data in my study regarding language teachers’ knowledge and teaching skills. Issues of the content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and PCK of new teachers are central to this study of student teacher preparation in the EFLTEP at Jambi University.

Richards (1998) proposed six major domains of knowledge for language teachers, encompassing knowledge of theories of teaching, teaching skills, communication skills, subject matter knowledge, pedagogical reasoning and decision making, and contextual knowledge. He further explained that the teaching skills of teachers include procedural and managerial aspects of teaching, such as lesson planning; rules and routines for classroom management; strategies for creating grouping and seating arrangements; ways to open and close lessons; and techniques for effective questioning, and eliciting and giving feedback. Further, in a more recent article, Richards (2010) proposed the dimensions of teacher knowledge and skill that are at the core of expert teacher competence and performance in language teaching. According to Richards, there are 10 dimensions of teacher knowledge and skill. The first is the language proficiency factor of the teacher. There are several language-
specific competencies that a language teacher needs in order to teach effectively, such as the ability to comprehend texts accurately, provide good language models, and maintain use of the target language in the classroom. Richards pointed out that a teacher’s level of language proficiency will determine the level of that teacher’s confidence; thus, teachers who perceive themselves as weak in the target language will have reduced confidence in their teaching ability.

The second dimension is the role of content knowledge. According to Richards (2010), content knowledge is what teachers need to know about what they teach. Similarly, Day and Conklin (1992) stated that content knowledge of the subject matter is the language knowledge that language teachers teach. Content knowledge for language teachers includes what teachers know about language teaching, and constitutes knowledge that would not be shared with teachers in other subject areas. Interestingly, in explaining the role of content knowledge, Richards (2010) proposed what he called disciplinary knowledge and PCK, in his effort to distinguish between theory and practice issues in language teaching. Disciplinary knowledge is a specific body of knowledge considered essential for the language teacher. This knowledge is acquired by special training and is part of a teacher’s professional education. It does not translate into practical skills. An example of this is knowledge about second language acquisition and sociolinguistics. In contrast, PCK is knowledge that provides a basis for language teaching, which can be applied in different ways to resolve practical issues, such as curriculum planning, assessment, reflective teaching and classroom management. While Shulman (1987) defined PCK as teachers’ understanding of what should be learnt and how it should be taught, Freeman (2002) added that teachers should have mastery of the content to teach and the methodologies to teach it.

The third dimension of teacher knowledge is teaching skills. Richards (2010) stated that teacher training involves developing a great number of teaching skills. These skills can
be obtained by observing experienced teachers, and often by having practice teaching in a controlled setting, using activities such as microteaching and peer teaching. Richards further explained that having opportunities to experience teaching in various situations with different kinds of learners, and teaching different kinds of content, is how a repertoire of basic teaching skills is acquired. According to Richards (1998), teaching skills may include procedural and managerial aspects of teaching, such as lesson planning, rules and routines for classroom management, strategies for creating grouping and seating arrangements, ways to open and close lessons, techniques for effective questioning, and eliciting and giving feedback.

The fourth dimension of knowledge required by language teachers is contextual knowledge (Richards, 2010). Given that teachers teach in many different contexts, in order to function in those contexts, they must acquire appropriate contextual knowledge that will enable them to learn to be effective in different countries, backgrounds and cultures. For example, Faez (2011) stated that contextual factors could play an important role in shaping the knowledge base of SLTE in Canada. Faez identified contextual factors, including the range of student populations and the variety of teaching contexts in which student teachers could work. Richards (2010) further explained that optimum teacher learning occurs through classroom experiences, in which the relationships among teacher educators, fellow novice teachers, and experienced teachers are maintained in schools. Learning to teach in a specific context is a process of socialisation that involves becoming familiar with a professional culture and its goals, while sharing values and norms of conduct. This ‘hidden curriculum’ of professional socialisation is often more powerful than the school’s prescribed curriculum.

The fifth dimension is language teacher identity. According to Richards (2010), this dimension goes beyond skills and knowledge to developing an understanding of what it
means to be a language teacher. That is, it refers to identity that is shaped and reshaped as the student teacher takes on the roles and responsibilities of a classroom teacher.

The sixth dimension is the learner-focused teaching dimension. Regarding this, Richards (2010) explained that teaching is a ‘performance’, whereby the teacher takes account of both the social and learning interests of students, building a community of learners in the classroom. This is undertaken by managing the learning environment, with the aim of creating a pleasant and productive setting.

The seventh dimension proposed by Richards (2010) for language teachers is pedagogical reasoning skills. An important component in the current conceptualisation of SLTE is the focus on teacher cognition. Pedagogical reasoning takes account of the ways in which teachers’ beliefs and cognitive processes shape their thinking and actions in relation to classroom practice.

The eight dimension identified by Richards (2010) is the ‘theorising of practice’. This refers to the ways personal understandings and knowledge (theories) are shaped (at least partly) by practical experience of teaching. This helps make sense of experience and informs classroom practice. This dimension is different from the application of theory, which involves connecting concepts, information and theories with practice (Richards, 2010). Rather, theorising of practice involves reflection on one’s teaching practice in a variety of ways, and theorising about the effect of that practice on learners. This can lead to changes in practice and the implementation of subsequent actions based on this theorising.

The ninth dimension of teacher knowledge and skill proposed by Richards (2010) is membership in a community practice. This dimension is about collaboration and sharing knowledge between professionals—in this case, language teachers. This can lead to enhanced practices through teamwork and group collaboration. According to Richards and Farrel
(2005), membership in a community of practice provides teachers the opportunity to work and learn together in activities with shared goals and responsibilities, including teacher trainers, mentors and team leaders.

The final dimension of teacher knowledge and skill is professionalism. According to Richards (2010):

English language teaching is not something that anyone who can speak English can do. It is a profession, which means that English teaching is seen as a career in a field of educational specialization, it requires a specialized knowledge base obtained through both academic study and practical experience, and it is a field of work where membership is based on entry requirements and standards. (p. 119)

Richards (2010) further stated that:

Becoming an English language teacher means becoming part of a worldwide community of professionals with shared goals, values, discourses, and practices but one with a self-critical view of its own practices and a commitment to a transformative approach to its own role. (p. 19)

More than two decades ago, in describing the knowledge base for second language teachers, Lafayette (1993) proposed three domains:

- subject matter knowledge, which includes language proficiency, civilisation and culture, and language analysis
- language proficiency, which is essential knowledge for language teachers to teach effectively
- familiarity with the culture embedded in the language being taught in order to help students be aware of it in their learning.

In relation to language analysis, Lafayette asserted that language teachers should possess knowledge of language structures and applied linguistics, while understanding second language acquisition, contrastive grammar and error correction.
Similarly, Faez (2011) advocated four domains of the knowledge base for second language teachers: content knowledge, pedagogic knowledge, PCK and support knowledge. These domains were designed for EFL or ESL teacher education programs in Canada. This framework for teacher knowledge was formulated from the work of Day (1993), Day and Conklin (1992) and Lafayette (1993). Faez (2011) also pointed out that content knowledge of language teachers encompasses knowledge of English as the subject being taught, while pedagogic knowledge is teaching practice knowledge. According to Faez, PCK refers to teaching strategies possessed by teachers to deliver English to students, while knowledge in the area of linguistics is categorised as teachers’ support knowledge. Faez stated that teaching skills are essential and a core competency required by teachers. His view on language teacher education, teaching skills include the ability to develop competence using language teaching methods and strategies. It also includes the ability to adapt teaching skills and approaches to new situations. He stated that teacher education programs have a significant role in preparing teachers to develop these appropriate teaching skills.

Another competency that must be possessed by language teachers is communication skills and language proficiency. Developing effective communication skills as a basis for language teachers is important to support effective language teaching. It is essential for teachers to have advanced proficiency in the target language, and the ability to use it as a medium of instruction. However, language proficiency can be an issue for English teachers with a non-native background, with this being their most commonly identified weakness (Luciana, 2006; Tang, 1997). Faez (2011) also highlighted that teachers’ lack of confidence in language proficiency may limit their ability to conduct classroom functions through the medium of the target language. Thus, the language proficiency of teachers is a factor that may affect major aspects of their teaching expertise, including demonstration of teaching skills and subject matter knowledge (Richards, 2010).
Faez (2011) defined subject matter knowledge as the characteristics of language and its usage. This includes understanding phonology, syntax and the aspects of second language learning. Knowledge of the subject matter also encompasses understanding the principles of language teaching, developing curriculum and learning materials, and undertaking assessment and evaluation techniques. In a discussion of teachers’ pedagogical skills and decision making, Faez suggested that language teachers must be able to identify pedagogical issues that may arise, and be able to adjust or adapt their teaching approach as needed, so that the goals of teaching can be achieved. Teachers’ ability to link theories about language, learning and teaching with their actual practice is also part of teachers’ pedagogical reasoning and decision making (Richards, 1998, 2010). According to Faez (2011), a significant component of language teachers’ knowledge is the contextual component of language teaching itself, and the way it is shaped and influenced by social, institutional and community factors. Although analysing the content of language teacher education programs is important, understanding the development of the knowledge base of language teachers involves considering the context of its development when designing EFL/ESL teacher education curriculum (Graves, 2009).

Freiberg (2002) proposed a set of essential skills needed for new teachers entering the field. First is the skill of organising strategies, including planning, lesson design, time use (in terms of time management), considering the time spent on each task, pacing, ‘advancework’ (defined below) and classroom management. The other two skills are in instructing strategies and assessing strategies. According to Freiberg, beginner teachers usually find organising strategies the most difficult skill to master. For example, when planning lessons, beginner teachers spend more time preparing planning instruction than do experienced teachers. In this case, experienced teachers can help beginner teachers with instructional planning—especially unit planning—which may allow new teachers to see the whole picture and make planning
decisions based on contextual aspects of the learning, including the learner, content and context. Freiberg (2002) referred to ‘advancework’ as the work teachers initially undertake to understand the students, school and community in which they teach. Through gathering information about the school community and resources, ‘advancework’ also helps teachers establish a context for teaching and learning. Freiberg also identified classroom management as important to ensure learning happens. He claimed that poor management can cause teachers to have problems using interactive, engaging instructional techniques or approaches that foster student achievement, as well as implementing active learning, such as cooperative grouping, learning centres, projects and experiments.

The second skill proposed by Freiberg (2002) was instructional strategies. Instructional strategies are usually considered in the form of either teacher-centred or student-centred learning. The former refers to the teacher’s role during teaching and learning activities, where they are the source of knowledge, while the latter refers to student-focused activities, such as role play and reflective enquiry, which depend more on students being positioned as the sources of knowledge. According to Freiberg, effective teachers can assess both students’ learning and their own professional learning. However, most new teachers struggle with both types of assessment. Novice teachers need to explore formal and informal measures of learning and practice through constructing various types of assessment. These assessment strategies require a range of options to reflect students’ diverse learning abilities. In undertaking self-assessment, new teachers can gain information about their own performance from a variety of sources, such as through student feedback and class audiotaping. Based on these sources of information, teachers can analyse their lessons and make improvements.

In preparing lessons in the classroom, teachers need to acquire and apply generic teaching skills. According to Moore (2007), there are three generic teaching skills applicable
for all teachers at all levels: pre-instructional skills, instructional skills and post-instructional skills. Pre-instructional skills include planning the lesson, which encompasses writing the lesson goals, selecting learning materials, and structuring the lesson to meet the learning styles of the students. Instructional skills are those applied to implementing the planning in practice, while post-instructional are the skills needed to be an evaluator to assess students’ performance and mastery.

Teaching practicum is considered essential to enable student teachers to implement what they have learnt during their program to real school environments. The following section reviews pre-service teachers’ teaching practicum, covering issues such as its implementation in schools, and partnerships between schools and universities. The literature on student teachers’ practicum is drawn from local and international studies.

3.4 Pre-service EFL Teachers’ Teaching Practicum

According to Darling-Hammond (2006), the major criticism of teacher education is the separation between theory and practice in many programs. For this reason, the teaching practicum project in teacher education programs must be able to bridge the theory–practice gap by optimising experience in the field, so that student teachers can link what they have learnt at university with what they encounter in the field when teaching in schools. From this stance, the teaching practicum is an important project in teacher education to prepare student teachers with real experience of working in schools in order to prepare for the future (White, 2009). Teaching practicum or field experience also offers student teachers a form of transition from student to teacher (Gao & Benson, 2012; Mtika, 2011).
3.4.1 Implementation of the Teaching Practicum

Field experience or student teaching practice is an important part of teacher preparation programs (Guyton & Mclntyre, 1990). Field experience is described in a range of ways, including teaching practice, student teaching, practice teaching, practicum and internship (Darling-Hammond, 1999; Guyton & Mclntyre, 1990; Wickramasinghe, 2004). This study refers to this as ‘teaching practicum’. Teaching practicum is one of the required subjects at Jambi University, and other similar teacher education programs. It aims to provide student teachers with adequate opportunity to practise what they have learnt during their course work program in the real workplace of a school. The implementation of teaching practicum is important to bridge the gap between what student teachers have learnt in the program and the reality of teaching practice in schools (Darling-Hammond, 2006). Literature on teaching practicum in Indonesian and international contexts is relevant to this study in order to frame a broader discussion of how graduates of the EFLTEP of Jambi University experience the teaching practicum during their preparation program.

Astika (2014) reported on student teachers’ reflection on teaching during their teaching practicum. This qualitative case study involved 40 student teachers undertaking teaching practicum during the second semester of the 2011 to 2012 academic year in the English teacher education program of Satya Wacana University (one of the private universities in Indonesia). The interviews with student teachers revealed that the school and mentors played key roles in the models of teaching developed during the teaching practicum, which differed to the models of teaching promoted when studying methodology courses at the university. The study found that the pre-service teachers’ teaching journals contained much reflection on the personal and contextual domain of teaching, indicating that these teachers were concerned with the contextual aspects of teaching that influenced their practice in the classroom. The personal domain of teaching was investigated via questions about how
the pre-service teachers felt about the teaching practicum, what they learnt from their teaching practice, and what they evaluated during their teaching practice.

Astika (2014) found that the pre-service teachers experienced some nervousness on their first day of teaching assignments. They were concerned about their ability to teach, becoming aware that teaching is demanding, feeling doubtful about whether they would be good teachers, feeling the need to learn more about teaching, and feeling happy to work with the mentor teacher. During the teaching practice, the pre-service teachers learnt to improve their teaching skills; understand students’ characteristics; understand class management; respect students, peers and teachers at school; and understand students’ needs in learning. The pre-service teachers also evaluated their teaching preparation, the effects of teaching techniques on student learning, the differences between microteaching and real teaching, and their development and progress in becoming teachers. Interestingly, these reflections from the student teachers highlighted the importance of student extracurricular programs, in which they develop speaking skills and confidence in preparing for the teaching practicum.

In the contextual domain (how concepts, theories and methods affect teaching practice), material preparations and classroom management planning appeared to be the most important aspect of the teaching practicum. The pedagogical role of audio visual aids and teaching materials, as well as the need to attend to students’ individual differences, were the teacher students’ major concerns regarding creating successful teaching and practice in the classroom. Based on the results of this study, the teaching practicum program needs to stimulate students’ awareness of the crucial role of mentor teachers, other school personnel and students at the host schools. In addition, supervision by teachers is required. The teaching practicum creates an individual professional relationship in which student teachers and supervising teachers work together to prepare well-trained future teachers.
Another study conducted in an Indonesian context by Riesky (2013) investigated how EFL student teachers manage teaching difficulties during their teaching practicum. This qualitative case study was conducted in 14 different secondary schools in Bandung, Indonesia. The findings revealed that there are three types of problems faced by student teachers undertaking teaching practicum—problems related to the students, supervising teachers and student teachers themselves. Based on interviews with 14 EFL student teachers at UPI, many kinds of student-related problems were identified, including students’ low basic competence of English, students being passive, students being noisy, students having a lack of motivation, and large class sizes. In relation to supervising teachers, there were at least three crucial issues mentioned during the interviews: lack of guidance, being given a lot of teaching hours, and the enforced use of certain teaching materials. Regarding difficulties related to the student teachers themselves, the ability to manage the class and apply suitable teaching strategies were the most commonly identified issues, followed by issues regarding teaching material development and designing lesson plans.

Riesky (2013) concluded that teacher educators and supervising teachers need to pay more attention to improving the quality of their supervision. Student teachers require adequate guidance in their teaching practicum. Improving quality time working with student teachers, and commitment are critically important. Further, the quantity and quality of courses on specific issues—such as how to effectively manage students with different characteristics—needs to be redesigned in the curriculum, particularly in the teacher education program course, in terms of basic pedagogical knowledge and skills.

In examining mentoring during the teaching practicum, Putri (2014) pointed out that there is a need for the teaching practicum program to equip student teachers to deal with the dynamics of ELT, and it is important to include mentoring as one of the indicators of success among student teachers. Mentoring will allow student teachers who are still learning to teach
to gain useful information about teaching from senior teachers, through idea sharing. The teaching practicum is an opportunity for student teachers to fill the gap between the theories they have learnt and their teaching practice (Martinez & Mackay, 2002). Therefore, teacher educators need to be urged to mentor student teachers during the peer-teaching session. Then, during the teaching practicum, the sharing process of mentoring should be undertaken before, during and after the teaching practice (Putri, 2014). Mentoring by senior teachers—in this case, teacher educators and senior teachers—is important to implement during the teaching practicum (Darling-Hammond, 2005). However, teacher educators’ and senior teachers’ roles as mentors need to be well defined to assist and facilitate student teachers’ teaching practicum.

In an effort to put exposure to the culture of teachers’ collaboration into the teaching practicum, Putri (2014) suggested that teacher collaboration via an on-campus teaching practicum could be undertaken by allocating time for student teachers to work collaboratively in relation to their teaching preparation, such as by developing teaching media and preparing lesson plans. For onsite teaching practicum, supervising teachers need to be given authority to serve as facilitators to create a culture of teacher collaboration on a daily basis. This could be done by brainstorming and discussing what student teachers experience after conducting teaching, and what issues they deal with during the teaching practicum.

Sunggingwati (2014) conducted a study on pre-service teachers’ perceptions of teaching in the English department at Mulawarman University, Indonesia. Pre-service teachers at this university are required to complete a course on microteaching before undertaking a teaching practice program at a secondary school. In this course, they learn how to teach through peer teaching, which focuses on features of teaching such as preparing before teaching, main teaching activities, teaching strategies, using media, student participation, assessment, using language and closing the lesson. As Turnbull (2002) pointed
out, student teachers need to learn explicit skills and competencies for teaching before undertaking their teaching practicum. Sunggingwati (2014) stated that the teaching knowledge of pre-service teachers has an important role in generating classroom atmosphere as a learning input for students. Sunggingwati’s findings imply that the studied pre-service teachers were able to ascertain the importance of each of the teaching features, highlight what students’ desire from their teachers, and broaden their expectations of what teachers need to do in the classroom. The pre-service teachers perceived that teaching preparation meant preparation aimed at readiness both students and teachers.

Regarding teaching and learning practice in classrooms, Sunggingwati (2014) asserted that the main activities in the classroom should be relevant to student characteristics and contextual factors, and that multiple teaching activities should be applied. Teachers should select teaching strategies that best meet student learning, and the use of media is imperative to this as a means for pre-service teachers to facilitate effective teaching. Assessment is seen as beneficial for evaluating and monitoring the effectiveness of teaching, and this study observed that students learn English not only from classroom activities, but also from their teachers as role models.

Goh and Matthews (2011) conducted a study of student teachers’ experiences during their teaching practicum in a Malaysian context. They examined the concerns and experiences of 14 Malaysian student teachers during their practicum through a reflective journal, in which they documented their teaching concerns and confidence to teach. Goh and Matthews identified four themes among the student teachers’ concerns: classroom management and student discipline, institutional and personal adjustment, classroom teaching, and student learning. The study participants reported that classroom management was their most critical issue. They were also concerned about the transition from being a student teacher to teacher. The journals indicated that they also had adjustment concerns,
both personal and institutional, such as being worried about adjusting to the school environment, concern about being unable to undertake their responsibilities, and fear of not being accepted by the other teachers. In addition, the student teachers had to make personal and emotional adjustments, and were concerned about meeting the expectations of their school-based mentors, and being accepted by both staff and students. This was not unexpected, given that student teachers need to learn the expectations, responsibilities and tasks relating to the practicum (Turnbull, 2002).

Regarding classroom teaching, the participants were concerned about the limitations and frustrations of their teaching situation. As stated by Buchanan (2006), student teachers may feel ill prepared to meet the demands of teaching, and worry about how and what to teach. Choosing the correct methodology and techniques, as well as creative ways of teaching, were the student teachers’ main concerns in this area. They tried to improve their teaching performance and were aware of the need for adequate preparation. They also raised concerns about the use of English in the classroom, and the indicated that they lacked confidence in their English vocabulary and grammar, as well as their knowledge of the content and teaching materials. It is important that student teachers have English proficiency and adequate subject matter knowledge because these knowledge bases will affect their confidence in teaching (Richards, 1998, 2010).

In relation to student learning outcomes, Goh and Matthews (2011) pointed out that the participants in their study were concerned about their students’ understanding of the subject matter, personal growth and moral development. In order to improve students’ understanding, one student teacher attempted to instil interest among her students by being creative in her teaching. Another student teacher took steps to make the lesson interesting to enable her to engage students in the hope that they would develop to being stronger academically.
Goh and Matthews (2011) recommended that teacher educators endeavour to recognize the issues that student teachers experience during their teaching practicum. Important concerns raised by all their practicum students related to managing students’ behaviour and discipline, and other aspects of classroom management. They claimed that, given the increasing diversity of student populations, student teachers require assistance understanding classroom management as a means to develop a positive learning environment, rather than simply as a discipline regime. They also recommended that student teachers require support in choosing and applying teaching and learning strategies that lead to positive learning outcomes. There is a particular need to expose student teachers to a range of teaching approaches, and for them to be able to apply these in actual teaching and school contexts.

Goh and Matthews (2011) also recommended that, in order to integrate the theoretical aspects learnt at university with the practical reality of the classroom, specific strategies are needed to help student teachers gain more benefits from the practicum experience. One strategy is to establish effective partnerships between schools and universities (Graham & Thornley, 2000), where the theoretical and practical aspects of teaching are taught and implemented. The quality of the teaching practicum will be enhanced if schools and universities work together to prepare for the practicum (Loughran, 2007). Goh and Matthews (2011) pointed out that teacher preparation courses need to be more aligned with actual school settings and environments. In addition, there should be a systematic way for teacher educators to periodically review course content to ensure that problem areas are included in the curriculum.

In one of the largest teacher education colleges in Israel, Smith and Lev-Ari (2005) conducted a study about the place of teaching practicum in pre-service teacher education from student teachers’ perspectives. The main findings of this study showed that the
practicum was regarded highly by a large majority of students; however, the students also attached importance to the more theoretical aspects of their education. According to Smith and Lev-Ari, the theoretical aspects of teacher education include knowledge of subject matter, knowledge of pedagogic and didactics, and the ability to handle diversity. The student teachers recognised that there is an essential core body of knowledge important for them as pre-service teachers to acquire at teacher education institutions.

In addition, the student teachers found that institutional-based supervisors of the practicum were their strongest support, alongside peers and school-based mentors. The most support was sought from teacher educators supervising the practice teaching, and from peers. In the school context, support from mentors was found to be the most valued by the student teachers. During the teaching practicum, supervisors were the key partners assisting student teachers in their teaching development (Wilson & Klein, 2000). Smith and Lev-Ari (2005) recommended that student teachers need ‘guidance and support when engaging in teaching and the practical aspects of the education empower student teachers with technique and confidence when they walk the bridge between theory and practice’ (p. 300). Given that these findings show that student teachers seek and find support from their colleagues, it is important to have groups of student teachers in schools, instead of individual student teachers. School principals need to give opportunities for groups of student teachers ‘to engage in school-based teacher education and they need to see this as a commitment and to offer student teachers practical and emotional support’ (Smith & Lev-Ari, 2005, p. 300).

Mtika (2011) conducted a study related to the implementation of teaching practicum in Malawi. Mtika’s study of trainee teachers’ experience of teaching practicum was a qualitative case study of a three-year diploma teacher training program at one of the main public institutions in Malawi. This is relevant to the Indonesian context because Malawi is also a developing country, and is it is likely that they have many issues in common. In this
training program, the teaching practicum was conducted over 12 weeks in two phases of the teaching practicum. The first phase occurred at the end of the second year, while the second phase occurred at the end of the third year of the program. Each phase lasted for six weeks.

The data from the interviews with four trainee teachers and one supervisor revealed that, during the teaching practicum, some trainee teachers had greater workloads than anticipated. The roles and tasks for trainee teachers created role ambiguity because they were not yet qualified as teachers (Mtika, 2011). Another finding was that there was no support from cooperating teachers due to a new policy at the college, and this created problems for the trainee teachers when they encountered difficult teaching situations, such as managing large classes, because they had little support and guidance. In terms of developing pedagogical understandings and practices, the trainee teachers practised their pedagogical knowledge by imitating their mentor teacher in the classroom. The class size and lack of teaching and learning resources created multiple complexities for the trainee teachers to conduct lessons as part of learning to teach (Mtika, 2011).

Mtika (2011) developed a number of options to overcome the obstacles experienced by trainee teachers during their teaching practicum. The first was to create school–college partnerships, whereby the teacher training institution built a mutual relationship between the college and schools. Partnerships with selected schools were led by the training institution in the first phase, with the intention of maturing into a collaborative partnership. Second, Mtika argued that there is a need to reinstate cooperating teachers to support trainee teachers during their teaching practicum. Cooperating teachers or mentors who directly work with the college supervisor are likely to create better relationships with college tutors and trainee teachers, based on mutual respect and understanding of each other’s expertise, needs and perspectives. Finally, more awareness is needed of the complexity of learner-centred pedagogy from teacher educators in order to address a shift in orientation from teacher-centred approaches.
This will create significant change not only for trainee teachers, but also for school curriculum and teacher education.

Another study conducted by Wickramasinghe (2004) investigated how a group of pre-service teachers in Sri Lanka changed their understanding of effective teaching during a 20-day student teaching period in their teacher preparation program. The study participants were 12 students preparing for teaching secondary mathematics and science. This case study employed the use of concept maps about effective teaching, and used structured interviews as a qualitative method. It found that the student teachers needed more ‘school life’ experience to integrate their knowledge into practice. It also found that it was important for student teachers’ reflective understanding about teaching to be developed during their teaching practice. Several weaknesses in student teachers’ pedagogical standpoints were also found. The student teachers were focused more on teaching as a concept, rather than on student learning. Wickramasinghe argued that the teacher preparation program needed to further develop student teachers’ understanding of learners’ needs before they entered teaching practice.

Dunn, Ehrich, Mylonas and Hansford (2000) conducted a study investigating student teachers’ perceptions of the teaching practicum in an Australian context. The study sought to compare and contrast the perceptions of final year student teachers from three undergraduate field experience programs at the Queensland University of Technology. Data were collected through a series of focus group interviews with groups of five to nine participants across the three discipline areas—the Bachelor of Education, Bachelor of Education Secondary and Bachelor of Nursing. The study found three themes common among the students’ perceptions: role integration, confidence and altruism. Role integration refers to the nature and meaning of the role, which involves understanding and integrating the knowledge, skills and attitude necessary to be deemed a competent and contributing member of an organisation.
Confidence refers to the increasing confidence that students gain through field experience. Altruism refers to the notion that the ultimate reward from the labours of field experience was creating change in the lives of the patients or learners.

The findings of the study revealed that the teaching practicum built team membership and actualising in the professional role. Practicum was viewed as a way to make contacts for the participants’ future career as beginning teachers. Some participants commented that the field experience was an opportunity to determine whether theory was applicable in a practical situation, while others felt it enabled them to develop and confirm their own personal approach to practice. A student whose experience was particularly stressful suggested that the practical component was a test to determine correct or incorrect career choice.

The second theme of confidence, in this context, comprised ability and skills. The study found that, as the student teachers developed an understanding of their role and ability to perform it, they gained increasing confidence in their ability. This sense of efficacy was a gradual process that took considerable time, effort and energy. The secondary education student teachers in this study agreed that one of the most important outcomes of the practicum was increased confidence in their ability as teachers, inspiring personal growth and the development of a professional attitude. Another important aspect of gaining confidence was the development of strategies to cope with the demands of teaching. For many secondary education student teachers, good planning of lessons, units of work and assessment were critical to success in the classroom. This was improved when the student teachers were able to witness this planning being executed by their supervising teachers (Dunn et al., 2000).

A final common theme among the three student groups was their desire to contribute to making a difference among the people with whom they were interacting. A component of a successful practicum experience for the secondary education students was the feeling that they had made a difference, and not just in the classroom—the student teachers
acknowledged that school students’ problems do not cease at the school gate, and their practicum heightened this awareness.

There were three recommendations gained from Dunn et al.’s (2000) study. The first recommendation was the need for university lecturers to play a more proactive role in supporting students’ learning during the field experience. The second recommendation was the need to foster a positive and collaborative partnership between university staff and practicum staff. Genuine partnerships will ensure that both parties work effectively to achieve common goals. Finally, Dunn et al. recommended a need to refocus time and resources on the field experience component of teacher and nurse education courses. There are several proposed innovations in the field of teaching practicum, such as extended practicum and internship program.

Fairbanks, Freedman and Kahn (2000) conducted a study investigating the role of effective mentors in helping student teachers learn to teach. This study took place in the Effective Mentoring in English Education (EMEE) project. The EMEE project was aimed at exploring how effective mentors supported student teachers during their practice teaching, and were organised as a clinical partnership. Fairbanks et al. (2000) found that the knowledge of the role of effective mentors in learning to teach—as reported by both the mentor teachers and student teachers in the EMEE project—challenged commonly held views about student–teacher mentoring, teaching and the learning-to-teach process. In this project, the EMEE mentor teachers and student teachers found teaching and learning to teach to be complex, rather than simple or mechanical. This complexity included negotiating their professional identity as teachers, mentor teachers and student teachers.

Street (2004) conducted a similar study in the context of EMEE, investigating the role of mentoring. The role of mentoring in this study was seen from a social constructivist view of learning. From this view, each teacher learns within a dynamic social context. According
to Street, the sociocultural theory of learning pioneered by Vygotsky views that human learning and development are intrinsically social and interactive (people’s learning and development are contextual processes that involve a social and interactive phase). This theory views learning and development as social and interactive—between individuals and social situations. Street further stated that the social constructivist view of learning can also be applied to early career teachers, who find themselves negotiating the complexity of social relations in a school or classroom setting. Street advocated for the scaffolding learning in for novice teachers in schools, and the importance of building a close professional relationship between the mentor teacher and student teacher.

Street (2004) found that the student teachers considered classroom management one of the greatest challenges they experienced in schools, and that developing constructive relationships was critical to their success. They also had challenges regarding the diverse student populations encountered, and concerns about what makes an effective teacher. Street (2004) concluded that, ‘during one of the EMEE project meetings, mentor and student pairs constructed partnership maps, visual displays that in some way characterized the significant aspects of their mentoring relationships’ (p. 21). He further stated that:

Through their supportive gestures, mentor teachers invited student teachers into the community of practice, provided them with a safe place to wonder or worry, and allowed them to take risks. By contrast, challenging the student teachers’ professional growth by providing new and alternate perspectives and encourages them to build their own practice. (Street, 2004, p. 21)

During the final stage, Street (2004) suggested that, in order to share mentor teachers’ and student teachers’ understandings, schools and campuses need to provide spaces where mentor teachers and student teachers have the opportunity to negotiate their role and identity needs, as the newcomers adjusting to entering the professional educational community. Street (2004) advocated that, ‘To champion the importance of mentoring relationships is to
acknowledge that the transition from student to teacher can be a profound experience for both members of the professional partnership’ (p. 23).

Beck and Kosnik (2000) also investigated the mentor teachers’ role. In their elementary pre-service program, they employed an integrated program with a specific approach. One feature of this approach was a strong emphasis on connecting the practicum with the campus aspects of the program. The student teachers were placed in schools one day per week throughout the year, and had a four- or five-week practice teaching session in each of two academic terms. Integration between the practicum and university study was achieved through a critical enquiry-based approach that focused on practicum issues. Beck and Kosnik recommended refinements to improve teacher education from the lens of mentor or associate teachers’ role in helping student teachers learn to teach. One refinement is developing a sense of the teacher education goals, particularly for the teaching practicum. A teacher education program needs to establish an approach to teaching and learning that prepares student teachers with appropriate skills. Mentor teachers need to provide adequate support and understanding for student teachers, while allowing them to experiment with innovative ideas.

A similar study about the role of mentor teachers helping student teachers was conducted by Kwan and Lopez-Real (2005). This study examined the role of mentor teachers via questionnaires and interview data. The data pointed to mentoring roles as providing feedback, with an emphasis on pragmatic and craft-oriented advice, to develop the pedagogical skills required of beginning teachers. However, the mentor teachers also recognised the importance of providing opportunities for student teachers to develop their strengths in their own ways. The mentors perceived their role as a collegial relationship, in which they were like a critical friend or partner to the student teacher.

Gebhard (2009) focused on how the practicum can be used as a means of facilitating teacher development, and not simply as an opportunity to master specific teaching skills. This
can be undertaken through using the practicum experience as an opportunity for mentor teachers—in collaboration with other student teachers and supervisors—to examine and develop their own beliefs and understandings, as well as expand their awareness of the moral and ethical dimensions of teaching. In reviewing the approaches and practices used in the practicum, Gebhard emphasised the value of using multiple and complementary activities that go beyond merely collecting data about teaching to enable reflection on the meaning of teaching. Rather than only viewing the practicum as an opportunity to apply knowledge learnt in an SLTE program, it is also potentially a vital part of the process through which teachers develop their identity in a particular institutional and cultural context.

The following section discusses partnerships between schools and universities in order to examine the features that institutions might contribute to the implementation of the teaching practicum. This may be used as a basis for examining such partnerships at Jambi University.

### 3.4.2 Partnerships between Schools and Universities

Zeichner (2010) pointed out that the teaching practicum is one of the most critical components of teacher education that affects the quality of teachers. However, despite this importance, implementation of this clinical experience varies from one program to another. This section examines the traditional approaches to teaching practicum and the alternative, contemporary approaches developed to address the limitations of the traditional approaches.

Darling-Hammond (2006) highlighted that, in some places, the teaching practicum or clinical training continues to use traditional, apprenticeship approaches based on a separation between university activities and school knowledge and practice. The consequence of this approach is that student teachers may experience a disconnection between what they learn at university and what they encounter during teaching practice. At least four features can be
used to explain the traditional approach of teaching practicum in teacher education programs (Darling-Hammond, 2006). First, during teaching practice in schools, student teachers might encounter different ideas about teaching to those they studied at university. This might occur due to a lack of collaborative teamwork between the university and school partners, when student teachers put teaching theory into practice. In Darling-Hammond’s research, in which the university and partner schools did not have a mutual relationship, it was difficult to establish links between the university’s preparation of student teachers and the schools’ needs and expectations.

Second, the selection of school-based supervising teachers does not always take into account the quality and expertise of the supervising teachers. The selection is frequently based on seniority or favouritism, or simply because it is someone’s turn to have a student teacher in their classroom (Darling-Hammond, 2006). Third, student teachers’ placement is questionable. There is often no clear description of what student teachers are required or allowed to do during their teaching practicum. This work can range from completing clerical work to teaching alone without assistance during the teaching practice period. Fourth, there is variation in the supervising teachers’ role and responsibility in supporting the teaching practice. The kind of support available might be in the form of co-planning, careful goal setting or mutual problem solving. However, sometimes, this kind of support does not exist because the supervising teachers do not execute their roles as planned and expected by universities or students.

Student teachers’ unpreparedness to teach is often a result of the traditional approach to teaching practicum (Le, 2004; Pam, 2001). Student teachers who learn theory in isolation to practice and have no adequate teaching practicum experience tend to be less confident about teaching in the classroom. Many beginning teachers graduating from traditional forms of teacher education are likely to have problems during their first year of teaching (Darling-
Hammond, 2006; Farrell, 2009). Given the weaknesses identified in using traditional approaches to student teaching practicum (Darling-Hammond, 2006), contemporary teacher education often involves teachers in clinical work throughout the entire program (Beck & Kosnik, 2000; Fairbanks, 2000). Darling-Hammond (2006) described a four-year program where student teachers complete the teaching practicum for at least 30 weeks, working at schools under the supervision of one or more expert teachers. In some programs in Darling-Hammond’s (2006) study—such as at the University of Southern Maine and University of Virginia—the teaching practicum was structured as a full academic year of student teaching or internship in the classroom, with one or more mentor teachers.

In this case, the placements were carefully selected to offer settings where particular kinds of practices could be observed and learnt by working with expert teachers and with students who have particular needs. These universities also helped develop high-quality teaching in the schools in which the student teachers were placed, rather than hoping it may occur, without cultivation, or ignoring poor practice where it is commonplace. They understood that it is impossible for beginner teachers to learn to teach well by simply imagining how good teaching may appear, or by positing the opposite of what student teachers see. A significant difference from a traditional approach of student teaching is the care with which these settings for teaching practicum or clinical learning were selected, and how relationships were developed. All these programs helped develop schools that had high-quality teaching for their students (Darling-Hammond, 2006).

The partnership between schools and universities is crucial to achieving a high-quality teaching practicum for student teachers. For these partnerships to be effective, a clear description of the roles and responsibilities of those involved in the practicum must be established (Graham & Thornley, 2000). These relationships should be established with openness and mutual respect. According to Turnbull (2002), a quality teaching practicum will
be achieved if both schools and universities can work together during the planning, developing and implementing of the practicum.

Bailey (2009) focused on the approaches and practices employed during language teacher supervision. The view of supervision presented here differs to Malderez’s (2009) account of mentoring because the supervision is directed towards improving the quality of teaching, and subsequently involves assessing the teaching, rather than simply raising self-awareness or developing understanding. Bailey surveyed how supervision has been viewed in SLTE approaches that have traditionally drawn heavily on practices in general education, and that include directive approaches in which the supervisor offers advice, nondirective approaches, alternative options, collaborative models and creative supervision.

The following final section of this chapter reviews what is needed in courses related to teaching English for young learners. This discussion is important because the EFLTEPs in Indonesia prepare student teachers not only to work at junior and senior high school levels, but also at primary school level.

3.5 Teaching English for Young Learners

Supriyanti (2014) stated that teaching English for young learners (TEYL) in Indonesia requires specialist knowledge and skills. Thus, the English education program at Yogyakarta State University encompasses optional specialist courses in the curriculum for students who are interested in TEYL. The university has four courses related to teaching English to children, which lead student teachers to fulfil the criteria for TEYL. All courses offer student teachers topics and activities that give them the opportunity to learn about children and children’s development, both theoretically and practically. When teaching English to children, the core competency expected for student teachers is based on Richards’s (1998) domain of contents, covering theories of teaching, teaching skills, communication skills,
subject matter knowledge, pedagogical reasoning, decision-making knowledge and contextual knowledge.

To develop knowledge about the theories of teaching, student teachers are provided with this knowledge in courses about ELT in the general curriculum. In courses about TEYL, student teachers are taught to develop relevant knowledge and skills in terms of teaching methods and approaches, and knowledge about children’s language acquisition and language teaching methodology. Teaching skills are developed by handling a classroom activity for children through games or storytelling (in the introductory course), and are further developed in a course about child language teaching methodology, in which the student teachers learn how to peer teach the lesson plans they have designed. The teaching assignment is guided by the principles of teaching English to young children, while the teaching skills are taught theoretically during the introductory course, and the practical aspects are taught during the course and child language teaching methodology.

In order to accommodate the other domains of teaching proposed by Richards (1998), the program then provides a teaching practicum for student teachers. During the practicum, the student teachers practise everything they have learnt to meet the challenges of providing English instruction that is appropriate for young children. They help the children learn English in a way that causes the young learners to continue learning. The teaching practicum course has four unit credits, which provides student teachers with ample opportunities to work closely with this specific group of learners. They learn everything about young learners, which cannot otherwise be easily addressed in the program.

Zein (2014) conducted a study investigating pre-service education for primary school English teachers in Indonesia. Zein suggested that primary school English teachers need specific preparation to improve their teaching quality to teach English to young learners. The findings of the study also demonstrated the need for further training of teacher educators.
This study involved 24 interview participants, including English teachers, language teacher educators, member of an educational board, primary school principals and an educational consultant. According to Zein, English teacher education needs to enable more practical opportunities and techniques for TEYL. This implies that the curriculum used in the program may need to be reformulated to introduce innovation that allows specific preparation to teach English at the primary level, in conjunction with teaching English at the secondary level.

In order to provide student teachers with skills suited to working with young learners, specific training is also needed for teacher educators. Teacher educators at the pre-service level must receive considerable exposure to young learner pedagogy. Teacher educators act as role models for student teachers in advocating teaching and learning approaches (Korthagen, Loughran & Russell, 2006) and thus should be familiar with the challenges of teaching English at primary school level before they can inspire their student teachers.

Garton (2014) conducted a study in South Korea investigating the challenges of TEYL. The study employed mixed methods by using survey data from 125 Korean primary school teachers, together with data from a small-scale case study on one teacher. The study found that the English proficiency of the primary English teachers was inadequate. A number of teachers felt that they needed more training in teaching methodologies, and it could be assumed that the language proficiency and teaching skills of the primary English teachers needed to be improved.

Kam (2002) conducted a study about English language policy in East Asia countries, and found that the language policies for education in most East Asia countries had made English language learning compulsory. However, although the policies in these countries had advocated teaching English at primary school levels, the policies had not been fully implemented because of the inadequate numbers and quality of primary English teachers. Most EFL countries in the region had introduced English as a subject in the primary school
curriculum; however, this policy needed to be supported by the availability of local teachers with the training and competence to teach English. For ELT to succeed in each country, there must be an adequate number of English teachers and teacher trainers with the competence to teach the language—particularly for TEYL at the primary school level.

According to Kurniasih (2011), English teachers in Indonesian primary schools are often unsure about ‘what’ and ‘how’ to teach because English teacher education programs do not provide them with specialised training in ways to meet the needs of primary school students. Kurniasih argued that, because the objective of teaching English in primary schools is to provide a good basis for communicative competence, as a foundation to study English in secondary schools, developing the four language skills should be made the focus of all learning activities. Kurniasih highlighted two problems regarding teaching and learning English in primary schools in Indonesia. First, English teacher graduates from teacher education programs are not equipped with knowledge of TEYL because the curriculum programs do not provide courses on this. Second, TEYL in Indonesia is considered a new and highly dynamic field. Thus, language educators, researchers and linguists have not yet formulated well-established applicable ideas or techniques that best meet the needs of teaching English to these children. Kurniasih suggested that TEYL requires teachers to adjust existing teaching materials, activities and techniques to these students’ interests, needs and language skill levels.

3.6 Summary

This chapter has reviewed the relevant literature related to EFLTEPs both in Indonesian and international contexts. It has examined and identified key issues regarding English language teacher education in Indonesia that need to be addressed in order to prepare pre-service teachers with adequate teaching and practicum experience, language proficiency,
language knowledge, language teaching skills and knowledge about TEYL. The next chapter presents the research methodology and rationale for the methodological choices made in this research.
Chapter 4: Design of the Research

4.1 Introduction

This research investigates the preparation of teachers in EFL teacher education, with a focus on one such program at a state-owned university in Indonesia. The primary focus of this study is participants’ and stakeholders’ perceptions of the Jambi University teacher education program for teachers of EFL in Indonesia. This chapter outlines and justifies the research design adopted in this study. In particular, it justifies the choice of a mixed-methods approach to provide comprehensive answers to the posed research questions.

The research questions underpinning this study examined the content and aims of the EFL teacher education curriculum; how recent EFL graduates and beginner teachers perceived the EFLTEP as preparing them to teach, in terms of English language capacity and pedagogy; and the beginner teachers’ preparation experience during their teaching practicum. In addition, the questions considered how teacher educators and school principals (as employers) perceived Jambi University EFL graduates as beginner teachers.

4.2 Mixed-methods Approach

Investigating stakeholders’ perceptions of EFL teacher education is important to determine how preparation affects teachers’ views about effectiveness for managing student learning. It needs productive strategies for assessing and evaluating program outcomes (Darling-Hammond, 2006). In order to provide broader information about how the EFLTEP at Jambi University can better prepare graduate English teachers, this study employed mixed methods, rather than a single quantitative or qualitative research approach. According to Creswell (2009), mixed-methods research is an approach in which researchers use a research
design that generates quantitative and qualitative data during different stages of the study to support analysis that leads to answering particular questions or sets of questions.

This approach was chosen because comprehensive answers to complex research questions often require both quantitative and qualitative data (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). In addition, integrated methods can broaden access to and use of data, thereby leading to richer answers to complex questions than those obtained from an approach that relies on datasets of the same kind (Denscombe, 2008). Further, Denscombe (2008) explained that mixed methods offer a multi-paradigmatic location that combines quantitative and qualitative approaches. Analytic possibilities expand when different kinds of data are allowed to speak to each other.

In this study, in order to determine the interaction between the participants, their world (in this case, their EFLTEP and schools) and their experiences, I employed interviews as one method of data collection. The purpose of using interviews was to provide in-depth information about the participants’ experiences or viewpoints of a particular topic (Turner, 2010). I also surveyed the teacher participants’ perceptions of learning in the EFL program, and its effect on their English language capacity as teachers. These survey data were analysed using basic quantitative techniques.

When using mixed methods, researchers must explain their rationale for choosing the approach. According to Creswell (2009), when using mixed methods, researchers must establish their purpose for using mixed data, and explain the reasons that quantitative and qualitative data need to be mixed. I believe that using mixed methods met the demands of this study. The following section outlines my rationale for using mixed methods, as suggested by Creswell (2009).
4.2.1 Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches

My intention in this study was to gather information about an English teacher education program that might prove relevant to improving the program in the future. In doing so, I aimed to capture pre-service teacher graduates’ and beginner teachers’ perceptions of how well they felt equipped to teach, as well as principals’ judgements of the beginner teachers’ preparedness to teach. Since there were no measurable answers or opinions to be gathered from these participants, a predominately qualitative approach was an appropriate fit for my study. Creswell (2009) stated that one of the characteristics of qualitative research is the focus of the researcher on learning and understanding the participants’ meanings about the problem or issue. Moreover, the aims of qualitative enquiry are to understand and reconstruct views that people initially hold, aiming for consensus, while still being open to new interpretation as more information and sophistication in analysis are sought (Guba & Lincoln, 1985). Based on this description, the focus of qualitative research is on meaning and interpretation, and the process of enquiry is inductively designed.

However, in order to seek answers to my research questions regarding how the beginner teachers and graduates of this EFLTEP felt about their preparedness to teach, I also employed a quantitative approach during a small-scale component that involved employing a survey. Data were collected from a larger number of participants than those involved in the interviews. The aim of the survey was to obtain a snapshot of graduate responses to their teacher education program. Based on the results of the survey, interviews were conducted with beginner teachers and English graduate participants to explore the participants’ responses more deeply. As Creswell (2009) argued, a mixed-method strategy often employs surveys, followed by interviews with the participants who completed the questionnaires.
A quantitative approach is often about precision and statistical power, in which, according to Crotty (1998), the aim is to discover the objective truths related to the question under study. In contrast, a qualitative approach emphasises understanding social phenomena from the perspective of the human participants in the study, and the results provide much more detail on behaviours, attitudes and motivation. Moreover, a qualitative approach can assist researchers to obtain insight to the context, and better understand the situation (Cohen et al., 2011). By employing the features of both the quantitative and qualitative approaches, this research examines the participants’ perceptions and feelings, while also seeking some ‘objectivity’ by combining the quantitative data from the questionnaires with the interview data to strengthen the findings. Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2009) suggested that conducting mixed-methods research involves collection, analysis and interpretation of quantitative and qualitative data segments when investigating the same research object, and this locates the study in a ‘pragmatist paradigm’ (see Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007). Thus, the research becomes intensely practical in its intent. In order to provide answers to the research questions of this study, the mixed-methods approach enabled collection of both quantitative and qualitative data. However, as will become evident, I collected more qualitative data because the research was focused on interpreting the experiences, judgements and perceptions of the participants involved.

This study was exploratory in nature by presenting the case of one Indonesian university’s EFLTEP—that is, Jambi University. The aim of this study was to determine the best interpretation of the facts, changes and occurrences of this specific phenomenon in the Jambi University setting. The findings of this study provide information for other EFLTEPs in Indonesia as a way to identify what improvements are needed, and how to implement these in order to prepare student teachers with the knowledge and skills for TEFL.
This study used the ‘how?’ question to explore a contemporary set of events, over which (as researcher) I had limited control. It aimed to offer a holistic description and analysis of a single phenomenon. Thus, this study focused on the single case of an EFLTEP at one Indonesian university, which was bounded by time and focused only on the current phenomenon, as a way of exploring what is important for Indonesian EFLTEPs in the contemporary policy environment.

The case here was an exploration of a teacher education program to produce qualified graduates in one Indonesian university. It explored graduate and beginning teachers’ perceptions of how well they were equipped to teach in terms of English language capacity, pedagogy and field experiences. Here, ‘English language capacity’ refers to the language modes that English teachers are teaching, such as speaking, reading, writing and listening modes, and language proficiency. ‘Pedagogy’ refers to knowledge of generic teaching strategies, or the ways teachers convey understanding to students. ‘Experience’ refers to what the student teacher graduates and beginner teachers had experienced during their teaching practice in schools.

### 4.3 Participants

The survey participants in this study consisted of approximately 60 graduates and 30 beginner teachers. The graduate participants were student teachers who had recently completed or were about to complete their English teacher education program at Jambi University, but had not yet worked as English teachers. I also surveyed beginner teacher participants who had been teaching as English teachers, both in public schools and private schools, for up to one year.

The responses of the survey were analysed to determine who might be invited to participate in an interview to explore the responses to the research questions more deeply. I
selected approximately 10 interviewees from both the graduates and beginner teachers who had completed the survey. I also conducted five interviews with school principals in order to explore their judgement of the English teachers’ preparedness to teach. The school principal participants in this study were selected from the schools in which the first-year English teachers taught. Moreover, in order to gather information regarding the implementation of the English teacher education program curriculum and program itself, I interviewed five teacher educators.

Table 4.1: Group of Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories of Participants</th>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English teacher education graduates (60 surveys and five interviews)</td>
<td>Student teachers who had completed or were about to complete the English teacher education program, and had not yet worked as English teachers</td>
<td>English language capacity and pedagogy, and English teacher education program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginner teachers (30 surveys and five interviews)</td>
<td>Teachers who had been working as English teachers for up to one year</td>
<td>English language capacity and pedagogy, and English teacher education program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School principals (five interviews)</td>
<td>School principals who were selected from the schools in which the first-year English teachers taught</td>
<td>English teachers’ readiness and preparedness to teach in the classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher educators (five interviews)</td>
<td>English teacher education program staff who were teaching the student teachers</td>
<td>Implementation of the EFLTEP curriculum, and any issues regarding the program</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This study did not aim to use statistics to test any specific hypothesis, but focused on exploring the participants’ perspectives and opinions. The quantitative data in the study were employed for a more descriptive purpose. Therefore, a total sample population of 90 for the small-scale survey was considered reasonable to capture the graduates’ and beginner teachers’ perceptions. The choice of interview participants in this study was based on their background in order to meet the purpose of this study, and to align with the literature underpinning the study (Cohen et al., 2011; Nunan, 1992).
Non-probability sampling was considered for this study because ‘the research process is one of “discovery” rather than the testing of hypotheses’ (Denscombe, 2007, p. 29). In addition, May and Cantley (2001) pointed out that, in some cases, the criterion of ‘fit for purpose’ (p. 95) is more important than the statistical accuracy of probability sampling. In addition, according to Cohen et al. (2011), non-probability samples are frequently used in small-scale research, such as with one or two schools, and two or three groups of students or teachers.

4.4 Methods

Research methods involve data collection, analysis and interpretation (Creswell, 2009). The data collection techniques used in this study included document analysis, a survey and interviews. According to Patton (1990), by using multiple sources of data gathering, a broader overview can be achieved, which enables the researcher to generate comprehensive understandings from the data.

4.4.1 Data Collection

Document analysis is a technique for evaluating documents, both as printed and electronic material (Bowen, 2009). The purpose of employing document analysis in this research was to obtain meaning and understanding, and develop empirical knowledge (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Document analysis was used to determine the aims and content of the EFLTEP at Jambi University, as well as from official government documents related to English teacher education. Documents such as the official English teacher education curriculum and policies linked to the Jambi University teacher education program were analysed to gain a comprehensive overview of the program. Jambi University implements a curriculum that is based on the curriculum guidelines from the DGHE in Jakarta. Given that all universities with teacher education programs use a relatively similar curriculum, Jambi
University is considered representative of such Indonesian universities. This method of document analysis was an attempt to attain supplementary research data that might be helpful to support the core data gathered from the interviews and surveys. As Bowen (2009) stated, documents can provide valuable information and insights for supplementary data during research, and can be used as a means of tracking the change and development of a program or event.

A small-scale survey was conducted to initially establish the perceptions of a number of English teacher education graduates about their preparedness to teach. According to Cohen et al. (2011), survey research is a way of gathering data at a particular time, aimed at describing the nature of existing conditions, identifying standards against which existing conditions can be compared, and determining the relationship that exists between specific events. In this study, the purpose of conducting a small-scale survey was to capture the views of the beginner teachers and graduates of the EFLTEP in relation to their language capacity and teaching skills, as well as their perceptions and experience of the teaching practicum.

English was the language used to design the questionnaire of the study because the participants were English student teachers and English beginner teachers; thus, it was assumed that all participants were able to understand and answer all questions in English. The questionnaire was divided into two sections. Section 1 encompassed background information about the participants, while Section 2 included three questions to be answered using a five-point Likert scale that ranged from one (poor) to five (excellent). This Likert scale was used to capture the participants’ experiences and perceptions of how well their English teacher education program had provided them with language proficiency, pedagogical knowledge and teaching experiences. These three questions were followed by three ‘why’ open-ended questions for the participants to answer. These open-ended questions at the end of the
questionnaire asked about the features of the EFLTEP at Jambi University. These questions provided further qualitative data to supplement the data obtained from the interviews.

The survey questionnaire was administered during August 2011. The questionnaires were distributed to beginner teachers and graduates by the researcher. I asked the prospective participants to specify the most suitable time and place to conduct the survey. Once the time and place were confirmed, the questionnaires were given to the participants to complete. It took approximately 25 minutes to complete the survey. Forty-eight of the 60 EFLTEP graduates were involved in the survey, and all 30 beginner teachers participated. A full copy of the questionnaire is provided in Appendix 6.

Qualitative data were gathered from the interviews. A qualitative research interview seeks the meaning of central themes in the world of the subject. The researcher must be able to understand the meaning of the interviewees’ statements (Kvale, 1996). Moreover, these interviews were used to explore broader understandings of the phenomenon in relation to English education graduates in the teacher education program at Jambi University. According to Patton (1990), an interview is a purposeful conversation to determine what is in someone else’s mind. Moreover, the purpose of interviews is to gain information from people beyond that obtained through observation—or in this case, through the survey. The interview sought to collect feelings, thoughts and intentions. In-depth interviews were used to enable the researcher to explore and expand the survey responses. According to Johnson and Christensen (2008), a qualitative interview consists of open-ended questions and provides qualitative data.

This study sought to gain an insider’s view of the effectiveness of the EFLTEP in the Indonesian educational context. This will be useful as a foundation for improving the quality of teacher education in Indonesia. As such, this study shares some characteristics of an evaluation. According to Patton (2002), program evaluation interviews are aimed at capturing
the perspectives of program participants, staff and other related parties. This study’s questions were about the participants’ experiences and perceptions of the program, feelings about the program, expectations of the program, and beliefs about what changes need to be made to the program. These are typical questions featured during evaluation interviews. Patton (2002) further explained that the interviewer needs to provide a framework within which the participants can respond comfortably, accurately and honestly to these kinds of questions.

At the time that the potential participants were approached to take part in the interview, they were provided with a plain language statement and consent form in accordance to Human Research Ethics at RMIT University (see Appendices 2 to 4). Five graduates and five beginner teachers were selected because their comments in the questionnaires illustrated interesting or different perspectives. According to McNamara (1999), interviews can be used as a follow up to particular questionnaire responses to further investigate these responses. For example, when the participants were asked about how well the EFLTEP provided time and quality of school experience, most responded that the program was good at providing time and quality during the teaching practicum. However, one participant stated that there was insufficient time for them to gain adequate experience during their teaching practicum project. Based on such responses, five beginner teachers and graduates of EFLTEP were invited to interview.

Five school principals and five teacher educators who indicated interest in being interviewed were also approached. The principal participants were selected from the schools at which the five interviewed beginner teachers taught. All interviews were conducted at a time nominated by the interviewees. The interviews were conducted in Bahasa Indonesia, which was transcribed and then translated into English by a third party. Each interview lasted approximately 30 minutes and was audio recorded. For the purpose of privacy, the identity of
the participants was protected by not recording names, and then coding the participants as Participant 1, Participant 2 and so forth. Appendices 7, 8 and 9 present the questions for the semi-structured interviews with the beginner teachers, English graduates, school principals and teacher educators.

4.4.2 Data Analysis

The aim of data analysis is to create meaning from raw data (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). Simons (2009) stated that analysis involves a process such as ‘coding, categorizing, concept mapping, theme generation—which enable you to organize and make sense of the data in order to produce findings and an overall understanding (or theory) of the case’ (p. 116). In line with Johnson and Christensen (2008) and Simons (2009), Creswell (2009) asserted that analysis:

- involves preparing data for analysis, moving deeper and deeper into understanding the data (some qualitative researchers use the metaphor of peeling back the layers of an onion), representing the data, and making an interpretation of the larger meaning of the data. (p. 183)

4.4.2.1 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics are used to describe the process by which the researcher can analyse and interpret the data presented (Cohen et al., 2011). The descriptive statistics used in this study were in the form of frequencies and percentages. These were used to analyse the small-scale survey/questionnaire data to determine the frequency distribution and percentages of how well the graduates and beginner teachers felt equipped to teach, in terms of their language proficiency, pedagogical skills and teaching practice. These data are presented graphically, alongside an analysis, in Chapter 5.
4.4.2.2 Thematic Analysis

There are a variety of ways to use thematic analysis for qualitative data. According to Liamputtong (2009), thematic analysis involves initial coding, axial coding and selective coding, which is aimed at discovering appropriate themes from interviews. In this study, the data were analysed using thematic analysis, which involved identifying, analysing and reporting themes in the data. In addition, Creswell (2009) suggested six steps to analyse data collected from interviews: (i) organising and preparing the data for analysis; (ii) reading through all the data; (iii) beginning detailed analysis with a coding process; (iv) using the coding to generate a description of the setting or people, and create categories or themes for analysis; (v) advancing how the description and themes will be represented in the qualitative narrative; and (vi) interpreting or finding meaning from the data.

The process of thematic analysis in this study adopted the steps suggested by Creswell (2009) and Liamputtong (2009). The interview recordings were transcribed by the researcher and manually analysed for key themes. Data obtained from the curriculum documents, other related documents and interview transcriptions were read repeatedly to assist this process. The data were summarised and grouped with codes, then organised into categories, such as student teachers’ pedagogic knowledge, resourcing, teacher educators’ role, communication between teacher educators and supervising teachers during teaching practice, the need for curriculum change, and possible solutions. These categories were further evaluated to identify new connections, which revealed the key themes. These themes are described and presented in Chapters 5 to 7 of this thesis. The key themes were used to address the research questions by linking the data and theoretical frameworks to draw conclusions. A copy of the thematic analysis process can be seen in Appendix 10.

A process called ‘sequential explanatory design’ was used to present the findings of this study as a process researcher collected and analysed quantitative data at the first place.
followed by the collection and analysis of qualitative data (Creswell, 2009). In this study, quantitative data from the questionnaires were used as a snapshot to understand the features of the EFLTEP at Jambi University (in general) from the beginner teachers’ and graduates’ perspectives. Weight was given to the qualitative data gained from the interviews and document analysis. In summary, this process can be represented as follows:

Quantitative data collection → Quantitative data analysis → Qualitative data collection → Qualitative data analysis → Interpretation of entire data analysis

(adapted from Creswell, 2009).

4.5 Trustworthiness of the Study

The trustworthiness or validity of research is important to consider when assessing the worth or veracity of qualitative and quantitative studies (Hannes, Lockwood & Pearson, 2010). According to Whittemore, Chase and Mandle (2001), the primary criteria for validity of qualitative studies include credibility, authenticity, criticality and integrity. In judging the quality of qualitative research, Piantanida and Garman (2009) proposed criteria such as integrity, rigor, utility, vitality and aesthetics. To ensure the validity of qualitative studies, Guba and Lincoln (1985) stated the criteria of transferability, confirmability, credibility and dependability. Of these multiple criteria proposed by scholars in relation to the trustworthiness of research, the criteria of integrity, utility, confirmability and credibility are considered best to account for quality in this study.

Integrity of the research can be achieved by assuring that the research is conducted using methods or approaches appropriate to the study rationale. As stated by Piantanida and Garman (2009), to judge the integrity of the research, we can ask questions regarding whether the study conducted hangs together; whether the data from the participants were properly used; and whether the research rationale was logical, appropriate and identifiable. In
responding to this, all procedures in this research—such as collecting and analysing the data, presenting the data, and developing conclusions—were undertaken in an appropriate manner, following recognised steps.

The utility of a study refers to whether the enquiry was useful, was professionally relevant and contributes to a recognised field of study (Piantanida & Garman, 1999, 2009). In relation to this, the study of an EFLTEP contributes valuable insights to the teacher education field of study for the development of programs to better prepare student teachers to be equipped with the adequate knowledge and skills needed to be English teachers. The confirmability of this study will be achieved by retaining all study data for five years after the thesis is submitted. As Bowen (2005) stated, confirmability can be maintained by retaining all data records from the study so that reviewers can confirm that the results arose from the data.

The credibility of a study refers to whether the results of the research reflect the experience of participants or the context in reliable ways (Whittemore et al., 2001). One of the ways to achieve credibility in this study was by employing participant checks to ensure the information gathered from the participants was an accurate reflection of the participants’ experience during their teacher education program. I summarised all data taken from the interviews and asked the participants to check whether their response was truly recorded. If something was missed, I asked them for clarification and further confirmation.

The last criterion employed to ensure the trustworthiness of this study was vitality. According to Piantanida and Garman (2009), vitality is the quality of an enquiry that represents its importance, meaningfulness and intensity. In responding to this, the data generated from the surveys, document analysis and interviews were presented by using images and figures to strengthen the discussions and findings of this study. The data for this study were generated from a triangulation of the tools of investigation and data, including the
survey data, document analysis and interview data. The use of data triangulation has been proposed by a number of scholars as beneficial to reduce bias and enhance validity and reliability (Boije, 2010; Bryman, 2008; Johnson, 1992; Marshall & Rossman, 2006). By doing so, the findings of this study are meaningful in terms of informing recommendations that can be implemented to improve the quality of the EFLTEP at Jambi University.

4.6 Ethical Issues

In order to seek data regarding the teacher education program’s pedagogical and professional quality, a small-scale survey and interview were administered to selected participants: new graduates, beginner teachers, school principals and teacher educators. All new graduates and beginner teachers involved in this study had completed or were about to complete their teacher education program in the Faculty of Teacher Training and Education at Jambi University. As a teacher educator, I had an established relationship with all of the graduates and teacher participants in this study because I had taught them during at least one semester of their program studies, and had supervised some of the participants during their teaching practice in schools. This relationship established a rapport that enabled ease of surveying and interviewing the participants. However, at the time of the research, I was not teaching any of the participants and I did not teach them again in their later studies. Therefore, the power relationship between me (as researcher) and the students (as participants) was minimised.

Participation was voluntary and the participants were entitled to withdraw at any stage of the study. The participants had the purpose of the research clearly explained to them via the participant information sheet, and signed a consent form before they were surveyed or interviewed. Codes were used in lieu of names to protect their identity. The data from the participants were kept confidential and password protected, so that only my supervisor and I
had access to them. Prior to the collection of data, ethics approval was obtained from the College Human Ethics Advisory Network of RMIT University, with register number CHEAN B-200524-06/11.

4.7 Summary

This study was concerned with the effectiveness of an English teacher education program in terms of the quality of its outcomes and graduates’ preparedness to teach. This chapter has described and justified the research design, data collection and data analysis methods used in this study. The purpose of the study determined the choice of research methods employed. For this study, a small-scale survey, interviews and document analysis were considered appropriate methods to seek answers to the research questions.

In addition, this chapter has addressed concerns regarding the trustworthiness of the study, providing clear descriptions that explicate the need to ensure this research was of high quality, and the steps taken to uphold this. Finally, this chapter has addressed the ethical considerations and concerns for this research, highlighting the steps taken to ensure this research was completed in an ethical manner. In conclusion, these methodological choices were made to provide the most valuable results in order to make significant contributions to improving the EFLTEP at Jambi University in particular, and Indonesian EFLTEPs in general.
Chapter 5: Finding from the Quantitative Data

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the quantitative data and analysis of these data. The data obtained from both the closed and open-ended questionnaires used during the quantitative phase are presented and analysed according to the procedure outlined in Chapter 4. The questionnaires were used to gather data from recent EFLTEP graduates and beginner teachers regarding their perceptions of their language knowledge and language teaching skills, and their experiences of undertaking the teaching practicum. The data gathered from the open-ended questions were intended to identify features of the EFLTEP perceived by the pre-service teachers regarding what they needed to be better prepared for, and what they thought needed changing to improve the program. The findings of the quantitative data from the questionnaire served as a snapshot of the cohort experience and a starting point for analysing the larger dataset from the qualitative phase of the study.

This chapter begins with a brief discussion of the relevant participants’ profiles and background. Following this, the collected quantitative data are presented in two sections. The first section describes the recent graduates’ perceptions of their language proficiency and language teaching skills, and their experiences during the teaching practicum. The second section is concerned with the beginner teachers’ and recent graduates’ perceptions of the organisation and resourcing of the EFLTEP, along with aspects requiring improvement at Jambi University. A summary is presented at the end of this chapter.
5.2 Participant Profiles and Background

The participants involved in this study consisted of two groups: survey participants and interview participants. The first cohort of participants who took part in the survey were English teacher education graduates who had just finished their program at the time the data were collected. They had enrolled in the EFLTEP at Jambi University in 2006, and completed their teacher preparation program in 2011. The beginner teachers who participated in this study were those who had completed a bachelor degree in the EFLTEP at Jambi University, and had been English teachers in a range of schools (primary, junior high and senior high schools) for no more than two years. They taught English as a subject in both state-owned schools (known as public schools) and private schools in Jambi province.

Sixty recent graduates were invited to participate, and 48 responded to the questionnaire—about 80% of the total EFLTEP graduates who completed the preparation program in 2011. One hundred percent of the beginner teachers responded to the questionnaire distributed. Table 5.1 presents a summary of the total number of questionnaires that were distributed, returned and accepted.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Questionnaires Distributed</th>
<th>Questionnaires Accepted</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recent graduates</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginner teachers</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.3 Language Proficiency of New Teachers

Previous noted scholars have explored what teachers should know and be able to do, and the implications for teacher education programs. For example, Shulman and Shulman (2004) described an accomplished teacher as someone able to understand what must be
taught and how to teach it. For teacher education courses, Graves (2009) proposed a framework for curriculum planning for language teacher education that encompasses: (i) who will be taught, (ii) what will be taught, (iii) how it will be taught and (iv) how what is learnt will be evaluated. The question of what will be taught refers to the content or knowledge base for language teachers (Day & Conklin, 1992; Richards, 2010).

In relation to EFL teachers, the question of what teachers should know is closely related to their language knowledge, such as phonology, syntax and discourse analysis, and their language skills in speaking, writing, reading and listening. According to Richards (2010), there are 10 dimensions to EFL/ESL teacher knowledge and skill. The first domain is the language proficiency factor of the teacher. There are several language-specific competencies that a language teacher needs in order to teach effectively, including the ability to comprehend texts accurately, provide good language models, and maintain use of the target language in the classroom. Richards (2010) further pointed out that teachers’ level of language proficiency will determine their level of confidence; thus, teachers who perceive themselves as weak in the target language will have reduced confidence in their teaching ability. Thus, it is important to gather information in relation to new teachers’ language proficiency in order to gain a better understanding of whether EFL teacher education has provided its student teachers with adequate knowledge of the first dimension of teacher knowledge and skill, as proposed by Richards (2010).

The following section presents the data generated from the questionnaires regarding the language proficiency of the recent graduates and beginner teachers from the EFLTEP at Jambi University.
5.3.1 Data from Recent Graduates

Figure 5.1: Graduates’ Perceptions of Their Language Proficiency

In this study, language proficiency refers to English language knowledge and skills (Richards, 2010). Forty-eight recent graduates answered the question related to this. They ranked their prepared level of English proficiency as follows: 56% stated that it was good, 40% stated that it was very good, 2% stated that it was excellent and 2% considered it adequate. This result shows that most recent graduates of the EFLTEP at Jambi University perceived that the program had provided them with the appropriate level of English proficiency needed to be teachers. None of the sampled recent graduates felt that their English proficiency was poor.

The next figure shows the language proficiency perceived by the beginner teachers from the EFLTEP at Jambi University.
5.3.2 Data from Beginner Teachers

A comparison of the levels of English proficiency of the recent graduates and beginner teachers did not show any significant difference. The beginner teachers’ perceptions of their English proficiency confirmed what the recent graduates thought of their English proficiency. Thirty English beginner teachers responded to the questionnaire. The data showed that 60% of these perceived their English proficiency to be good, while 34% considered it very good. Most (94%) beginner teachers felt that their EFL teacher preparation program provided them with a sufficient level of English proficiency. Interestingly, only one beginner teacher perceived their prepared English proficiency to be poor, while another teacher felt that their prepared English proficiency was excellent.

These findings align with Komur’s (2010) claim that competencies and knowledge of pre-service English teachers (in Turkish teacher education) can be considered sufficient for entering the classroom, based on current models for language teacher education. Komur’s study involved fourth-year students in the Department of English Language Education of the Faculty of Education at Mungla University. These findings also agree with research by...
Kourieos (2014). Based on the findings of Kourieos’s study, linguistic competence has proved to be an essential part of the primary language teachers’ knowledge base. Language proficiency or linguistic competence is essential knowledge for language teachers to teach effectively (Lafayette, 1993). In describing the knowledge base for second language teachers, Lafayette (1993) proposed three domains of subject matter knowledge: language proficiency, civilisation and culture, and language analysis.

In addition, according to Faez (2011), language proficiency, together with communication skills, are the core competencies that teachers need to possess. Faez stated that teachers’ lack of confidence in their level of language proficiency may limit their ability to conduct all classroom functions through the medium of the target language. The language proficiency of teachers is a contributing factor that may affect major aspects of teaching expertise, such as teaching skills and subject matter knowledge.

5.4 Language Teaching Skills of New Teachers

According to Day and Conklin (1992), language teaching skills—or the pedagogic knowledge of language teachers—refer to the knowledge of generic strategies of the ways that teachers teach. Additionally, Richards (2008) described language teaching skills as ‘know how’, referring to the capacity to transform content knowledge into accessible and learnable forms. In more general terms, Shulman (1998) defined teaching skills as teachers’ ability to deliver their subject matter to students. The following section presents the data generated from the questionnaires regarding the language teaching skills of recent graduates and beginner teachers from the EFLTEP at Jambi University.
5.4.1 Data from Recent Graduates about Pedagogical Skills

To assess the language teaching skills of new teachers, the recent graduates were asked how well their pre-service EFLTEP provided them with the pedagogical skills they needed. This showed that 44% of recent graduates perceived their pedagogical skills to be good, and 38% perceived their pedagogical skills to be very good. Three of the sample of recent graduates felt that their language teaching skills or pedagogical skills were excellent, and none considered their pedagogical skills to be poor. The questionnaire data indicated that most recent graduates felt that the EFLTEP at Jambi University had provided them with good levels of the pedagogical skills needed to be teachers.

5.4.2 Data Analysis from Beginner Teachers about Pedagogical Skills

The data from the beginner teachers supported what the recent graduates perceived about their pedagogical skills, as shown in the figure below.
Fifty per cent of the beginner teachers perceived their pedagogical skills to be good, and 27% felt that their pedagogical skills were very good. Only two of the sampled beginner teachers perceived their pedagogical skills to be poor. Again, in the area of language teaching skills, most beginner teachers felt they had been well prepared. Based on the data, it can be seen that both the recent graduates and beginner teachers felt that their teacher education program had prepared them with adequate language teaching skills to be ready to teach. As stated by Faez (2011), teacher education programs have a significant role in preparing teachers to develop appropriate teaching skills.

The ability to transfer knowledge to students is a contributing factor for new teachers being successful in their teaching profession. According to Faez (2011), the area of teaching skills for language teachers encompasses the ability to develop competence in using language teaching methods, and the ability to adapt teaching skills and approaches to new situations. In addition to Faez, Soepriyatna (2012) also suggested that a competent teacher needs to have the ability to establish a classroom atmosphere conducive to students’ learning. He stated that teachers should use varied techniques to facilitate students’ different learning styles, while teaching them how to learn.
However, these findings are not fully supported by other research on English teacher education programs. For example, in Luciana’s (2004) study about teacher education programs in Indonesia, she found that the teaching skills of new teachers were not adequately imparted and developed. Another study conducted in Turkey by Coscun and Dalgolu (2010) also showed that student teachers agreed that the pedagogic components of the program were weak.

5.5 Pre-service Teachers’ Teaching Practicum

Teaching practicum is one of the required courses in the EFLTEP of Jambi University. It aims to provide student teachers with adequate opportunity to practise what they have learnt at university in the real workplace of the classroom. Moreover, it provides opportunities for student teachers to practise their teaching skills and understand the roles of a teacher, under the supervision of teacher educators and experienced supervising teachers (Ferrier-Kerr, 2003). According to Broadbent (2005), teaching practicum is a chance for student teachers to begin to develop their knowledge, skills, understanding and enthusiasm for the teaching profession. Thus, it is important to gather information about the extent to which this program provides the necessary amounts of time and quality in teaching practicum for student teachers (to improve the program in the future). The following data are from the questionnaires, and show how the recent graduates and beginner teachers regarded their experience during the teaching practicum in terms of the time available for teaching and the quality of the experience.
5.5.1 Data Analysis of Recent Graduates about Teaching Practicum

In terms of the pre-service teachers’ teaching practicum, they were asked to rank how well the EFLTEP at Jambi University provided them with time and quality of school experience during the practicum. Forty per cent perceived that Jambi University provided sufficient experience during the teaching practicum—that is, they considered it good. In addition, 38% of graduates felt that the teaching practicum was very good in giving them opportunity to practise their teaching. Only one of the 48 recent graduates sampled perceived the teaching practicum to be poor. A 12.5% segment felt their teaching practicum was adequate and another 8.3% considered the teaching practicum excellent. The next section presents the data from the beginner teachers.

**Figure 5.5: Beginner Teachers’ Perceptions of Their Teaching Practicum Experience**

In terms of the pre-service teachers’ teaching practicum, they were asked to rank how well the EFLTEP at Jambi University provided them with time and quality of school experience during the practicum. Forty per cent perceived that Jambi University provided sufficient experience during the teaching practicum—that is, they considered it good. In addition, 38% of graduates felt that the teaching practicum was very good in giving them opportunity to practise their teaching. Only one of the 48 recent graduates sampled perceived the teaching practicum to be poor. A 12.5% segment felt their teaching practicum was adequate and another 8.3% considered the teaching practicum excellent. The next section presents the data from the beginner teachers.
5.5.2 Data Analysis of Beginner Teachers about Teaching Practicum

The raw data on the beginner teachers’ perceptions of the teaching practicum was similar to that of the recent graduates. Most beginner teachers (87%) considered their teaching practicum to be good or very good. Only four of 30 in the sample of beginner teachers considered their teaching practicum to be just adequate, and none considered their teaching practicum to be either poor or excellent.

The findings from the recent graduates’ and beginner teachers’ perceptions of their experience during the teaching practicum align with findings that support the importance of teaching practicum. A study by Lev-Ari (2005) found that the teaching practicum was highly valued by a large majority of student teachers. Meanwhile, Dunn et al. (2000) stated that student teachers perceived the teaching practicum to be a rewarding learning experience that served as important preparation to understand and fulfil professional roles. Zeichner (2010) also affirmed the importance of the teaching practicum to assure the quality of teachers. According to Zeichner, the teaching practicum is one of the most critical components of teacher education programs that affects the quality of graduating teachers.
The following sections present the data gathered from the open-ended questionnaires. The questions here were about the features of the EFLTEP that best prepared the pre-service teachers to teach English to students, and which aspects of the EFLTEP needed to be improved. As such, they captured important information from the recent graduates and beginner teachers about their recommendations for change that may be used to improve the quality of the EFLTEP at Jambi University.

5.6 Features of the EFLTEP that Best Prepared Pre-service Teachers

The findings of the open-ended questionnaires revealed the most important features of the EFLTEP at Jambi University that contributed to preparing the pre-service teachers to be ready to teach English to students. Based on these results, there were several features that the recent graduates perceived as contributing to their readiness to teach. The features can be arranged into five categories: pedagogically-related courses, teaching practicum, the roles and influence of teacher educators, microteaching courses, and English skills-related courses. Figure 5.7 depicts these features, as ranked by the recent graduates.

![Features of EFL Teacher Education Program which best prepared Recent Graduates to teach English to Students](image)

**Figure 5.7: Features of EFLTEP that Best Prepared Graduates to Teach English to Students**

Pedagogically-related courses were most frequently mentioned as most important by the recent graduates in the questionnaire. The second most mentioned feature was pre-service
teachers’ practicum, followed by the roles and influence of teacher educators, microteaching courses, and English skill–related courses. This indicates that the graduates perceived teaching skills as important for them. They then nominated features closely related to teaching skill development—such as pedagogical courses, teaching practicum, teacher educators’ roles (as mentors in microteaching and teaching practicum) and microteaching, consecutively—as the best features of the program. Seferoglu (2006) also indicated an emphasis on teaching skills for language teachers by stating that, since 2006, English teacher education programs in Turkey have been designed to emphasise teaching methodology and teaching practice for student teachers. Meanwhile, the graduates also perceived that English skill–related courses best prepared them to be ready to teach English, alongside the microteaching course. This indicated that, according to the graduates, language teaching skills and English skills were the most important features of the program and the best features of the EFLTEP of Jambi University. Figure 5.8 displays the same EFLTEP features, as perceived by the beginner teachers.

![Features of EFL Teacher Education Program which best prepared Beginner Teachers to teach English to Students](image)

**Figure 5.8: Features of EFLTEP that Best Prepared Beginner Teachers to Teach English to Students**

The beginner teachers’ distribution was similar to that of the recent graduates. The beginner teachers perceived pedagogically-related courses as most important to prepare them
to be EFL teachers. In addition, the teaching practicum was considered crucial to providing practical knowledge of teaching in school contexts. The roles and influence of teacher educators was the third mentioned, followed by microteaching courses and English skill-related courses.

These findings align with National Law No. 14 Year 2005 Teachers and Lecturers (Bill of Teachers and Lecturers), which describes the four competencies required by teacher candidates. According to this law, the first and main competence is teacher pedagogical competencies. This refers to the ability to manage the teaching and learning process, which encompasses knowing and understanding students, developing teaching and learning plans and their implementation, undertaking student evaluation, and having the ability to facilitate and help students develop their potential. The findings also align with the study by Coscun and Daloglu (2010), which found that student teachers need more pedagogic input, such as teaching practice courses, to provide them with real teaching practice in school settings. They considered a school experience course as one way to incorporate more opportunities to practise teaching as part of the teacher education program.

Interestingly, both the recent graduates and beginner teachers agreed that pedagogical-related courses were the most important to prepare them to be EFL teachers. However, the focus of the EFLTEP at Jambi University is on language proficiency and knowledge, which is covered by approximately 50% of all courses offered in the program (EFLTEP Curriculum, 2009). A study conducted by Nguyen (2013) indicated a similar focus in the content of EFLTEPs, which mostly emphasised student teachers’ English proficiency, rather than pedagogical aspects. Kamhi-Stein (2009) also stated that an emphasis on issues of language proficiency occurs in programs in EFL contexts, where the curriculum is designed to enhance teachers’ language proficiency.
Moreover, research on EFL teachers’ competence in Indonesia has indicated that most teachers have inadequate language proficiency (Lengkenawati, 2005; Lie, 2007; Marcellino, 2008; Wiyati, 2014). Improving the quality of pedagogical courses for teaching could serve as a solution to the gaps between the best feature perceived by the student teachers, and the proportion of courses offered in the program related to this feature. For example, in the TEFL course, increasing the quality of its delivery to student teachers could be done by allocating more practical aspects to the course, rather than focusing on the theoretical aspects.

The findings also indicated that teaching practicum and the roles of teacher educators are significant features of the EFLTEP to best prepare student teachers. Teaching practicum is an important aspect of any teacher preparation program (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Guyton & McIntyre, 1990; Zeichner, 2010). This provides student teachers with real experience of working in school settings to prepare them to be professional teachers (White, 2000). In addition, teacher educators have an important role to play in preparing student teachers by providing them with knowledge and skills, and guiding them in teaching practice. According to Astika (2014), teacher educators and supervising teachers have key roles in the models of teaching developed during the teaching practice, which are more practical than the models of teaching learnt during the teaching methodology courses of the program. In this sense, teacher educators and supervising teachers can and should work together to better prepare student teachers to have the teaching skills they need to be effective during teaching practicum. The next section describes those aspects of the EFLTEP at Jambi University that were considered to need improvement to achieve a better preparation program.

5.7 Features of the EFLTEP Needing Improvement

When the participants were asked about the features of the program that need to be changed to enable future improvement, four main categories became evident from both the
recent graduates and beginner teachers: the facilities and resources of the program, teaching practicum, pedagogically-related courses, and English skill–related courses. In addition, given evidence from the literature about teachers’ language skills, the EFLTEP also needs to address the inadequate English language proficiency of graduating teachers, which belongs in the fourth category nominated by the graduates and beginner teachers. This could be improved by restructuring courses to improve student teachers’ language proficiency and knowledge to meet the needs of what must be taught (Day & Conklin, 1992; Richards, 2010).

Regarding the pedagogical-related courses, student teachers need exposure to more practical aspects during their courses by incorporating more microteaching and classroom observation opportunities (Coscun & Daloglu, 2010). School experience or teaching practicum needs to be started earlier in the program, and, as Seferoglu (2006) observed, most student teachers would benefit from more microteaching activities, in addition to observing a range of aspects of teachers’ work at different levels during their school experience or teaching practicum courses. In other words, teaching practicum courses need to be allocated more time and importance for experiential learning (Coscun & Daloglu, 2010). Figure 5.9 details the aspects to be improved, as perceived by the recent graduates.

Figure 5.9: Features of EFLTEP that Need Improvement: Recent Graduates’ Perceptions
As shown in this figure, facilities were most frequently mentioned by the recent graduates as needing improvement. The teaching practicum and pedagogical-related courses were also highly ranked for improvement, as were the English-related courses. As mentioned previously, the EFLTEP needs to restructure the courses offered in the program to better meet the needs of student teachers. In addition to facilities, teaching practicum and pedagogical courses are needed to prepare student teachers with teaching skills, while English skill–related courses prepare student teachers to have adequate language knowledge and competence. Figure 5.10 presents the distribution of aspects considered in need of improvement by the beginner teachers.

![Figure 5.10: Features of EFLTEP that Need Improvement: Beginner Teachers’ Perceptions](image)

**Figure 5.10: Features of EFLTEP that Need Improvement: Beginner Teachers’ Perceptions**

For the beginner teachers in the EFLTEP at Jambi University, the availability of adequate facilities and resources that support teaching and learning were the most nominated as needing improvement. Others that ranked highly included teaching practicum; pedagogically-related courses; and teacher educator roles, responsibilities and influences. These are slightly different to the beginner teachers’ nominations. Instead of English skill–related courses, the beginner teachers nominated the role of teacher educators as a feature to be improved. This may be due to beginner teachers’ having in-house training to increase their
language proficiency because the Indonesian government’s Ministry of National Education is continuously seeking to increase the quality of EFL teachers by undertaking in-house training for beginner teachers.

The findings regarding which aspects of the EFLTEP at Jambi University need to be improved indicated that both the recent graduates and beginner teachers saw the provision of adequate facilities as the first priority. This supports the findings of previous studies in an Indonesian context (Lie, 2007; Mulyasa, 2008). For example, Lie (2007) stated that there were several constraints related to language teaching policy and ELT classroom practices, and one of the most important constraints was the lack of educational resources. Mulyasa (2008) also asserted that the availability of teaching facilities—such as language laboratories and microteaching seminar rooms—is necessary for teacher education programs to prepare student teachers to be qualified to work with students in their English language development.

5.8 Summary of the Findings

This chapter has presented the quantitative data derived from the questionnaires given to the teacher participants. The results showed that both the recent graduates and beginner teachers perceived that their EFL teacher preparation program had provided them with an adequate level of language proficiency, language teaching skills and experience in the teaching practicum. However, the results from the open-ended questions showed that there are features of the EFLTEP at Jambi University that could be improved to easily contribute to better preparation of EFL pre-service teachers. These were in the area of pedagogical-related courses, the teaching practicum, the roles of teacher educators, and courses related to English skills. Pedagogically-related courses and the teaching practicum were ranked as the most significant features by both the recent graduates and beginner teachers as influencing their preparation.
In addition, several features of the EFLTEP were considered in need of change to enable improvement. These included facilities and resources, pre-service teaching practicum, pedagogical-related courses, English skill-related courses, and the roles and responsibilities of teacher educators. Interestingly, there was an intersection between the features that may contribute to better preparation of EFL pre-service teachers, and the features of the program that need to be changed for improvement.

Pedagogical-related courses, teaching practicum, and the roles and responsibilities of teacher educators are categorised either as features contributing to better preparation of pre-service teachers, or aspects of the program that need to be improved. It can be said that these features of the EFLTEP are both demanding and challenging. They are demanding because they are needed, and they are challenging because they have not optimally equipped pre-service teachers. The description of these data has given a snapshot of what recent graduates and beginner teachers felt about their teacher preparation program in general. They identified features of the program that need greater attention to provide a better teacher preparation program at Jambi University. The following chapter will present qualitative data that elaborates and provides contextual insight to the data presented in this chapter.
Chapter 6: Findings from the Qualitative Data

6.1 Introduction

This chapter reports the results of the second phase of this research study. It presents the findings derived from the document analysis, open-ended questionnaires and interview data gathered from all teacher participants from the EFLTEP at Jambi University (recent graduates, beginner teachers, teacher educators, and school principals from the schools at which the beginner teachers worked). The main headings in this chapter are consistent with the research questions formulated in this study, while the subheadings present the key themes that emerged during the interviews in response to each of the research question (topics).

This chapter is divided into five parts. The first part identifies the aims and content of the EFLTEP curriculum at Jambi University. It also presents the views from recent graduates, beginner teachers and teacher educators on the use of the curriculum in the program. The second part presents the recent graduates’ and beginner teachers’ perceptions of the language proficiency of new teachers. The third part discusses the language teaching skills of new teachers by examining the recent graduates’ and beginner teachers’ views on pedagogical skills. The fourth part presents the pre-service teachers’ experiences during the teaching practicum by examining the recent graduates’ and beginner teachers’ perceptions of those experiences. The final part explores the recent graduates’ and beginner teachers’ language proficiency and pedagogical skills, via the views offered by teacher educators and the school principals who employed the beginner teachers.
6.2 EFL Teacher Education Curriculum

This section describes the data gathered from document analysis of the EFLTEP curriculum (2009). The document was examined carefully and coded for the dimensions of knowledge and skill for language teachers adapted from Richards’s (2010) dimensions of skill and expertise in language teaching. These dimensions inform the knowledge base or content of second/foreign language teacher education. The aim of each course was carefully analysed and coded using Richards’s dimensions of teacher knowledge and skill. The proportion of each domain was calculated based on the percentage of total credit points for each domain of knowledge and skill, per the total number of credit points (150) required to complete the EFLTEP at Jambi University. In an effort to provide a broad picture of the use of curriculum in the EFLTEP at Jambi University, the voices from recent graduates, beginner teachers and teacher educators were also included and elaborated on.

6.2.1 The Content of EFL Teacher Education at Jambi University

According to Richards (2010), language proficiency is the first dimension that language student teachers must acquire. This refers to the language-specific competencies that language teachers require in order to teach effectively, such as the ability to comprehend the texts accurately, provide good language models, and use the target language for instruction in the classroom. Courses related to language proficiency in the EFLTEP curriculum include Listening (one to four), Speaking (one to four), Reading (one to four), Writing (one to four), Interpreting, English Grammar (one to four), Vocabulary (one to two), Pronunciation and Translation. These courses fall under the category of English skills and language elements. The total credit points of these courses add to 49 credit points, or 32% of the total 150 compulsory credit points offered in the program. The following table shows how the course lists are categorised for language proficiency.
Table 6.1: Language Proficiency Courses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course Title</th>
<th>Semester Offered</th>
<th>Total Credit Points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>1 to 4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>1 to 4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>1 to 4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>1 to 4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>1 to 4</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>2 to 3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Translation</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>49 (32%)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The second of Richards’s (2010) dimensions is content knowledge. This refers to what language teachers should know about what they teach in terms of language acquisition and related knowledge, which would not be shared by teachers of other subject areas. In describing the role of content knowledge for language teachers, Richards (2010) proposed two kinds of content knowledge:

- **disciplinary knowledge**—a specific body knowledge considered essential for language teachers, such as knowledge about second language acquisition and sociolinguistics
- **PCK**—basic knowledge for language teaching that can be applied in different ways to solve practical issues, such as curriculum planning and classroom management.

Several courses offered in the EFLTEP curriculum cover content knowledge for language teachers: Introduction to Linguistics, Phonology, Morphology, Syntax, Semantics, Language Acquisition, Sociolinguistics, Psycholinguistics, Discourse Analysis, Literacy (an elective), Introduction to Literature, Prose, Poetry, Drama, Literacy Criticism (an elective), Curriculum Study, Material Design and Development, and Language Testing. These courses cover 38
credit points, or 25% of the total 150 credits offered in the program. The following lists those courses categorised under content knowledge.

**Table 6.2: Content Knowledge Courses**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course Title</th>
<th>Semester Offered</th>
<th>Total Credit Points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to Linguistics</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phonology</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morphology</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syntax</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semantics</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language Acquisition</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociolinguistics</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psycholinguistics</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discourse Analysis</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literacy (elective)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to Literature</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prose</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poetry</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drama</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literacy Criticism (elective)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum Study</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Material Design and Development</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language Testing</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>38 (25%)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Teaching skills is the third dimension proposed by Richards (2010). Teacher education or teacher training programs are the place for developing a great number of teaching skills. According to Richards (2010), examples of teaching skills include selecting learning activities, preparing students for new learning, monitoring students’ learning, giving feedback on students’ learning and so forth. Courses such as Teaching English as a Foreign Language, Teaching English for Young Learners, and Teaching Practicum Project are examples of the teaching skills dimension covered in the EFLTEP curriculum. This covers
about 8% of the total credits offered during the program. The following table lists the teaching skill courses.

**Table 6.3: Teaching Skill Courses**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course Title</th>
<th>Semester Offered</th>
<th>Total Credit Points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching English as a Foreign Language (theory)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching English as a Foreign Language (practice)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching English for Young Learners (elective)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Practicum Project</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>12 (8%)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Language teachers teach in many different contexts, and, in order to work effectively in those contexts, they need to acquire the appropriate contextual knowledge to ensure they understand how to operate across contexts. According to Faez (2011), contextual factors play an important role in shaping the knowledge base or content of language teacher education. Richards (2010) gave examples of contextual knowledge that needs to be considered, including language teaching policies, institution cultures, teaching resources and community factors. In an attempt to prepare student teachers well in this dimension, Cross-Cultural Understanding, English for Specific Purposes (one and two), Religion, Citizenship and Bahasa Indonesia courses are offered in the program. These encompass 15 credit points, or 10% of the total credits to complete the program. The following table lists the contextual knowledge courses offered in the EFLTEP at Jambi University.

**Table 6.4: Contextual Knowledge Courses**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course Title</th>
<th>Semester Offered</th>
<th>Total Credit Points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cross-Cultural Understanding</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English for Specific Purpose 1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English for Specific Purpose 2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the learner-focused teaching dimension, Richards (2010) stated that the purpose of teaching is to facilitate student learning. In doing so, an effective teacher uses various strategies to ensure that student learning occurs. A course related to the learner-focused teaching dimension offered in the EFLTEP is Understanding Student Learning, comprising three credit points, or only 2% of the total. For the pedagogical reasoning skills dimension, the EFLTEP at Jambi University offers the Teaching and Learning Theory course, aimed at providing broader concepts of teaching and classroom practices. This is also only three credit points, or 2% of the total points for the EFL teacher program.

In Richards’s (2010) dimension membership of a community of practice, teachers have opportunities to work and learn together through participation in group-oriented activities. The EFLTEP curriculum accommodates this need by offering the fieldwork course, in which EFL student teachers are given the opportunity to participate in a community of practice, together with students from different study programs. This community-based fieldwork consists of four credit points, or 2.6% of the total teacher education program. The fieldwork course is at university level and aims to provide students with real work experience in a nominated community, in this case is at schools, for three to four months, so they can practise what they have learnt at university. Each student works in a nominated community based on its suitability to their discipline background. For example, student teachers work in the schools in a community as teachers, administrators or in other roles in these school settings. This fieldwork course is aimed to highlight how a community of practice can be used to develop student teachers’ understandings of practice, and the profession, where each
member of the community of practice is involved in a collective and continuing process of learning that enables them to develop a collective expertise through their professional development and learning. This emphasizes the importance of the development of shared expertise in a community of practice (Wenger, 1998).

According to Richards (2010), the dimension of professionalism relates to ELT as a profession, which is not something that everyone who speaks English can do. It requires specialised knowledge gained through academic study and practical experience. The Teaching Profession and Introduction to Education courses offered by the EFLTEP are related to the professional demands of English teaching. There are four credit points for the Teaching Profession course and three credit points for Introduction to Education—or 4.6% of the total in the program.

There are two dimensions of language teacher knowledge and skills not encompassed by the EFLTEP curriculum: (i) language teachers’ identity and (ii) the dimension that Richards (2010) called ‘theorising of practice’. A possible explanation for why these dimensions are not explicitly included in the curriculum is that teacher identity involves a long and gradual process of reshaping an understanding of what it means to be a language teacher. Additionally, identity formation processes often occur through cultural educational focused on religion and citizenship. According to Richards (2010), the teacher’s identity emerges through acquiring new modes of discourse in new roles in the campus classroom during a teacher education program. Once student teachers begin teaching, their identity is reshaped as the role of teacher is gradually assumed. In other words, teachers’ identities will change over time in pre-service and in-service programs, and during their future careers as teachers.

Regarding the theorising of practice dimension, according to Richards (2010), this involves reflecting on teachers’ practice in order to better understand the nature of language
teaching and learning, and to be able to explain them. In doing so, teachers use their experience of teaching and observing how students learn or fail to learn, and their reflections on what happened during their lesson. Richards (2010) further explained that theorising of practice is not the same as putting theories into practice. Applying theory involves making connections between the concepts and theories learnt in the program and classroom practice. In contrast, the theorising of practice is the development of personal knowledge, beliefs and understandings gained from the practical experience of teaching, which serves as the source of the practical actions teachers take in the classroom.

Thus, the dimensions of teacher identity and theorising of practice are ongoing processes that occur continuously through experience and reflection. These two dimensions are implicitly included in the EFLTEP curriculum at Jambi University; however, in order to make them effective and successful during student teachers’ future careers, the broader contexts in school settings—not only in pre-service teacher programs—are needed. The following table summarises Richards’s (2010) elaboration of the 10 dimensions of language teachers’ knowledge and skills, as constituted in the EFLTEP curriculum at Jambi University, together with two additional areas that are not listed as teacher dimensions, but are found in the EFLTEP curriculum as courses required in the program.

**Table 6.5: The Dimensions of Knowledge and Skills of Language Teachers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Related Courses Offered in the EFLTEP of Jambi University</th>
<th>Credit Points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language proficiency</td>
<td>Listening (1–4), Speaking (1–4), Reading (1–4), Writing (1–4), Interpreting, English Grammar (1–4), Vocabulary (1–2) and Pronunciation and Translation</td>
<td>49 (32%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge Area</td>
<td>Courses</td>
<td>Credit Points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content knowledge: Disciplinary knowledge and PCK</td>
<td>Introduction to Linguistics, Phonology, Morphology, Syntax, Semantics, Language Acquisition, Sociolinguistics, Psycholinguistics, Discourse Analysis, Literacy (elective), Introduction to Literature, Prose, Poetry, Drama, Literacy Criticism, Curriculum Study, Material Design and Development, and Language Testing</td>
<td>38 (25%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching skills</td>
<td>Teaching English as a Foreign language (theory), Teaching English as a Foreign Language (practice), Teaching English for Young Learners, and Teaching Practicum Project</td>
<td>12 (8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contextual knowledge</td>
<td>Cross-Cultural Understanding, English for Specific Purposes 1 and 2, Religion, Citizenship and Bahasa Indonesia</td>
<td>15 (10%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner-focused teaching</td>
<td>Understanding Student Learning</td>
<td>3 (2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogical reasoning skills</td>
<td>Teaching and Learning Theory</td>
<td>3 (2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Membership of community practice</td>
<td>Fieldwork</td>
<td>4 (2.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professionalism</td>
<td>Teaching Profession and Introduction to Education</td>
<td>7 (4.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theorising of practice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language teachers’ identity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research knowledge</td>
<td>Research proposal and seminar, Statistics for Education (elective), Classroom Action Research, Research on ELT, Research on Linguistics, Research on Literature and thesis</td>
<td>22 (22%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General knowledge</td>
<td>Basic Social Science and Basic Natural Science</td>
<td>5 (3%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Richards’s (2010) dimension of knowledge and language skills consists of the 10 domains shown in the table above. Of this, two dimensions are not included in the EFLTEP curriculum at Jambi University: the theorising of practice and language teachers’ identity. Further, there are two additional areas included in the curriculum at Jambi University: Research Knowledge (22 credit points—22%) and General Knowledge (five credit points—3%).

In summary, the percentages of curriculum load for the various dimensions of teacher knowledge and skill in the EFLTEP curriculum are language proficiency (32%), content
knowledge (25%), contextual knowledge (10%), teaching skills (8%), professionalism (4.6%), membership of community practice (2.6%), pedagogical reasoning skills (2%) and learner-focused teaching (2%). Additional areas that do not belong to Richards’s (2010) teacher knowledge and dimensions, yet are offered in EFLTEP’s curriculum, are research knowledge (22%) and general knowledge (3%). The largest proportion of the curriculum load in the EFLTEP at Jambi University is focused on student teachers’ language proficiency, covering about 32% of the total courses required to complete the program. This proportion is similar to that in a study by Nguyen (2013), indicating that course content in EFLTEPs generally places more emphasis on English language proficiency than other domains of the language knowledge base for language teachers. According to Richards (1998), the proficiency level of prospective non-native English teachers is a very important concern in English teacher education.

Richards (2010) also stated an awareness of possible bias in attempts to characterise the dimensions of teacher knowledge and skills to assure the quality, expertise, professionalism and effectiveness of language teaching because such attempts are bound to reflect understandings that are shaped by culture, context, individual belief and preference, as well as limitations in one’s present state of knowledge. In using Richards’s (2010) dimensions of teacher knowledge and skills to analyse the content of the EFLTEP at Jambi University, such limitations may also affect my analysis of this curriculum document. However, Richards stated that these limitations should not prevent us from reflecting on the beliefs and assumptions that shape the way we understand the nature of teacher knowledge and teacher development for language teachers. By doing so, we are in a better position to assess the goals of language teacher education, as well as the means by which we seek to achieve them.
6.2.2 The Aims of the EFLTEP Curriculum

In order to prepare pre-service EFL teachers with adequate knowledge and teaching skills, the EFLTEP at Jambi University has used and implemented a curriculum to meet the current demand for EFL teachers and the nature of EFL teacher education in Indonesia. The aim of EFL teacher education curriculum at Jambi University is to produce well-equipped teachers who have adequate language knowledge and language teaching skills, the ability to conduct research in English teaching, and the ICT skills that are useful in teaching activities. In addition, it seeks to provide in-service training programs to improve the quality of English teachers in Jambi province and Indonesia in general (EFLTEP Curriculum, 2009).

These aims are achieved by designing relevant course content that meets the needs of the community stakeholders who rely on Jambi University program’s graduates. The curriculum consists of four units: the personal development unit, the knowledge and pedagogical unit, the social skills unit, and the language knowledge and language pedagogical skills unit. These units align with the four competencies mandated in National Law No. 14 Year 2005, which require teacher candidates to possess pedagogical, personal, professional and social competence.

As mandated by the National Law, pedagogical competence refers to the ability to manage the teaching and learning process. It aligns with the teaching skill dimension proposed by Richards (2010). In addition, Day and Conklin (1992) stated that pedagogical knowledge is the knowledge of generic teaching strategies, such as strategies to manage classrooms and motivate students to learn. For personal competence, teachers need to have the ability to be a role model for their students and, as Spitzer (2009) asserted, personal knowledge is important knowledge possessed by second language teachers. Murphy et al. (2004) stated that the personalities of good teachers include being caring, patient, polite and
organised. Meanwhile, the professional competence mandated by the *National Law* refers to subject matter knowledge that a teacher must master, as well as strategies for delivery to students. This competence is similar to what Shulman (1987) called ‘PCK’—or the ability to represent the content knowledge of subject matter in ways that students can understand. For social competence, teachers must have adequate communication skills and the ability to engage in social life in both the school and community, as stated by Richards (2010) in his dimension of membership of community practice. To achieve this, teachers must have opportunities to work and learn together through participation in group-oriented activities.

In preparing pre-service teachers to have adequate language proficiency and pedagogical skills, Jambi University’s language and pedagogical units are designed to provide the necessary English language knowledge and skills for listening, speaking, reading and writing. These skills are offered in the fourth semester during the second year of the EFL teacher program. In addition, the program offers language component courses, such as grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. For pedagogical skills, the EFLTEP curriculum offers courses related to language teaching skills, such as the Teaching English for Foreign Language Strategy (TEFLS) course, TEYL course and Teaching Practicum Project. To address the dimension of teachers’ content knowledge, the university offers the Language Testing, Curriculum and Material Development, and Curriculum Design in Language Teaching courses.

The Teaching Practicum Project is one of the main courses in the teacher education program. It is a compulsory course that is undertaken after pre-service teachers have completed at least 122 credit points in courses related to language teaching skills and language proficiency and knowledge. In total, pre-service teachers must complete 150 credit points to be entitled to the *Sarjana Pendidikan*—or Bachelor of English Teaching Education—of the 160 credit points offered by the program. The practicum is offered in the
seventh semester, or the fourth year, of the pre-service program, and constitutes four credit points. The practicum occurs in schools, at both junior and senior high school level. During the practicum, pre-service teachers implement their theories of teaching under the supervision of teacher educators and supervising teachers. A detailed discussion about implementing the teaching practicum is presented in a separate section of this thesis.

6.2.3 The Need to Redesign the Course Content

Despite the curriculum in the EFLTEP seeking to accommodate all needs of pre-service teachers, there are some areas that must be addressed to enable effective implementation of the curriculum. The data from the interviews revealed that courses related to knowledge and general pedagogical skills need to be improved in terms of how they manage the balance between theory and practice. As noted by a recent graduate (RG#5):

There are at least four courses related to general pedagogical skills that focus more on theory, rather than practice. We are taught to understand the concept of education, teaching and learning theoretically. Those courses are the Introduction to Education course, the Learner Development course, the Learning and Teaching: Theory and Practice course and Teacher Profession course. Moreover, it seems to me that some topics being discussed in those courses are too similar to one another.

There are two important points to be drawn from RG#5’s statement. First, this respondent wanted courses related to pedagogical skills to allocate more time to practising those skills, so they could gain greater benefit from those courses. Second, there was a perceived overlap in the course material delivered by the teacher educators, which may lead to boredom among pre-service teachers due to repetition in the topics covered.

A teacher educator also revealed similar insights regarding overlapping courses, which may contribute to ineffective instruction and learning for pre-service teachers. In addition, EFL pre-service teachers are required to complete many more credits than are other
pre-service teachers, which increases the time needed for EFL pre-service teachers to complete their degree. As stated by one teacher educator (TE#1):

If we look at the EFL teacher education program curriculum, the number of credits pre-service teachers have to complete is more than other pre-service teacher programs. We find that there are several courses that overlap one into another. For example, the program offers Research in Education courses, Research in Literature courses and Research in Linguistics on the one hand, and the program also offers Research on English Language Teaching and Classroom Action Research on the other hand. In my opinion, it will be more effective if the program only offers research methodology courses and research proposal and seminar courses.

A similar statement regarding the needs of practice was also expressed by RG#4. She commented on the TEFLS courses in which she was enrolled. She said that the TEFL course clearly stated that it requires more practise hours for teaching; however, due to limited time and a large number of enrolled students, each pre-service teacher only has two opportunities to practise their teaching in front of the class. She stated that this was inadequate and less than she expected and needed to have. She said:

I think TEFL and TEFLS are very important to give us knowledge about how to teach English to students. We learn about classroom management, students grouping, English-teaching methodology. Unfortunately, we only have one opportunity to practise the teaching skills we have learnt due to limited time due to so many student teachers enrolling on this course at that time.

The need to balance theory and practice in pedagogically-related courses, as perceived by recent graduates, supported Komur’s (2010) claim that knowledge and practice have not been adequately integrated in language teacher education programs. A study conducted by Coscun and Daloglu (2010) recommended that the theory and practice components of the program must be balanced, and it was indicated by student teachers that the program places greater emphasis on theory, rather than practice.
Time allocation and the number of pre-service teachers enrolled in a course has become a major issue in the EFLTEP program. Each year, the program accepts approximately 60 pre-service teachers. Another recent graduate confirmed that the chance to practise teaching skills is crucial in shaping ideas of what teaching is actually all about. Again, lack of opportunities for pre-service teachers to practise what they have learnt becomes a problem. RG#2 stated:

Pedagogical skill–related courses, such as TEFL and TEFLS, are essential for student teachers to provide them with the wide range of teaching strategies that they need to work with students. A large class and lack of practice are handicaps to optimal use of these courses to get student teachers familiar with teaching skills.

A teacher educator (TE#3) had a similar experience with teaching in large classes. She realised that teaching English skills requires much effort, particularly when occurring in a large class. As a teacher educator, she needed to help her pre-service teachers improve their English skills. Sometimes, she needed to provide one-to-one assistance to the pre-service teachers she was teaching. However, it was difficult to teach in that situation, as she stated:

It is difficult to teach writing skills in class when there are more than 40 student teachers in one classroom. I have to guide them one by one on the steps of writing, such as drafting, developing a paragraph, making conclusions and so forth. Working with many student teachers at the same time is really exhausting and not effective, I think.

Teaching in large classes is a common feature of English teaching in EFL contexts (Shamim, 2011). Teachers often feel that teaching large classes is problematic in terms of low student involvement, issues in classroom management, issues with assessment and feedback, limited resources, and physical discomfort (Shamim et al., 2007). Class numbers are unlikely to be reduced in Indonesia due to limited resources, and classroom populations of approximately 40 students on average. Responding to this, Shamim (2012) suggested that teachers need to have a positive attitude towards large-class teaching. In doing so, teachers
can innovatively alter the teacher–learner roles, with students taking more responsibility for their own and each other’s learning. There is a need to train teachers to adapt and develop contextually appropriate methodologies for large-class teaching.

In addition, the length of the pre-service teacher program for a Bachelor Degree in English Teaching was considered too long by many beginner teachers. For example, one beginner teacher (BT#5) stated:

Regarding the four-year program for English teacher preparation, I think it is a long time to complete the program. Most pre-service teachers will complete the program in four and half years to five years, as the thesis writing course, which is a compulsory course to complete, is offered in a ninth semester. This means the course is offered when pre-service teachers are four and half years through the program. Besides that, there are some courses in the curriculum that are not directly to do with my future career as an English teacher.

Regarding the length of the time to complete the program, a teacher educator (TE#2) also stated that the program offers more courses than pre-service teachers are actually required to complete. This may result in more time being needed to complete the preparation program. TE#2 also agreed that there are courses that overlap. Contributing to this issue is the fact there is no clear description of the prerequisite courses, such as Listening 1, Listening 2, Listening 3 and Listening 4. Regarding this, TE#4 stated:

Overall, the curriculum used in the program is good; however, there are several courses related to English skills—such as Listening 1, 2, 3 and 4—that overlap. There is no adequate description about what competences are needed in prerequisite courses, such as the listening, writing, reading and speaking courses. Besides that, as with a lot of courses offered by the program, it leads student teachers into needing a longer time to complete their teacher education program.

A study conducted by Salli-Copur (2008) similarly indicated that most of the participants—student teachers of English teacher education at a university in Turkey—thought that there were unnecessary overlaps in the courses offered by their program. In line
with Salli-Copur (2008), in order to avoid overlapping courses, Coscun and Dalgolu (2010) recommended that teacher educators work in cooperation, collaboration and integration to consider overlap and resolve disagreements in course content. This will lead to more effective courses and provide student teachers with a more realistic timeframe to complete their education.

In summary, there are several issues in the program that require greater attention with regard to implementing the EFLTEP curriculum at Jambi University. First, pre-service teachers need more practice proportional to pedagogical-related courses, rather than focusing excessively on the theoretical aspects of teaching. Second, several courses overlap considerably and need to be redesigned. Third, teaching and learning in large classes seems to be a crucial barrier to the effective implementation of the curriculum in the classroom. Finally, the duration of the EFLTEP to completion is considerably longer than other pre-service teacher education programs at Jambi University. A further discussion of these findings will be presented in Chapter 7.

6.3 Language Proficiency of New Teachers

This section explores the quality of teachers in terms of what Shulman and Shulman (2004) referred to as what they know and are able to do. The purpose is to discuss the qualitative data from the interviews and open-ended questions of the questionnaire. The works of Faez (2011), Richards (1998, 2010), Day and Conklin (1992), Day (1993, 2012) and Lafayette (1993) are used as a framework to analyse the language proficiency and language teaching skills of new teachers. This section discusses the language proficiency of new teachers, while the next section presents the data related to their teaching skills.

In line with considering the language skills and knowledge that English teachers must acquire, the participants stressed that knowledge on the subject matter is helpful in building
self-confidence in terms of what they are required to teach to students. According to Faez (2011), Day (1993) and Day and Conklin (1992), there are four domains in the knowledge base for second language teachers: content, pedagogic, pedagogic content, and support knowledge. Knowledge on subject matter belongs to the domain of content knowledge, which refers to the language knowledge that ESL or EFL teachers teach. Similarly, Richards (2010) pointed out that language proficiency is about language-specific competencies that language teachers must be able to teach effectively, such as the ability to comprehend text accurately, provide good language models, and use the target language during classroom practice. Thus, the terms ‘subject matter knowledge’ and ‘language proficiency’ are used interchangeably in this study.

When asked whether the EFLTEP had given the beginner teachers the level of language proficiency they needed to be confident to teach, the answers revealed that the beginning teachers felt confident and prepared to teach if they knew the subject matter well, as stated by BT#1 and BT#3. BT#1 said: ‘If I know well the kind of subject matter I am going to teach, automatically I will feel confident standing in front of my students to deliver my English lessons’. BT#3 elaborated: ‘When I am teaching the speaking subject to my students, I feel prepared and confident because I believe that my speaking is good enough’.

What was perceived by these beginner teachers aligns with Richards’s (2010) view that teachers’ levels of language proficiency will determine their confidence. Similarly, Marcellino’s (2009) study about the implementation of ELT in Indonesia stated that teachers of English prefer not to use English as the instruction language in the classroom due to their lack of proficiency. This condition is a contributing factor to teachers’ low confidence in their teaching activities.

When the beginner teachers were asked about how well the EFLTEP at Jambi University had provided them with the needed level of language proficiency, the responses confirmed what was revealed in the survey. The survey data were corroborated by the
comments made by the recent graduates. As RG#3 stated: ‘After I learnt the four skills of English, I felt confident to teach English to my own students, as it is these four skills that the subjects require that I have to teach to students’. In addition, RG#4 stated:

> Basically, the English skills I learnt from the program are very helpful in terms of my confidence to teach English to students. In particular, with the speaking skills, I can demonstrate my language proficiency, and, with reading skills, I teach my students to find a main idea, use scanning and skimming techniques, as more focus on teaching English in schools is on those two skills, I think.

Further, the language proficiency of recent graduates in terms of the speaking, writing, reading and listening skills provided by the EFLTEP at Jambi University was found to be most helpful in establishing confidence and readiness among graduates to teach. As RG#5 noted, he felt well equipped to teach after he had learnt how to speak, write, read and listen in English. He stated: ‘In four semesters, I have learnt English skills and I teach these to students with confidence. And these four semester English skill subjects are adequate to prepare me to be proficient in English’.

This position was supported by the interview data from the EFL recent graduates and beginning teachers when they were asked about what language knowledge (English skills and English elements) they needed in order to improve. Their responses include information relevant to aspects that are needed to help them build their confidence in teaching English language. For RG#1, this was about writing skills: ‘I think I need more writing subjects … when I had to write for last assignment in the program, I had problems organising my writing’. BT#2 felt that listening skills were more challenging than other skills:

> Listening skill is more difficult than other skills. I have discussed with my colleagues and they said the same thing about listening skills, especially when we took TOEFL [Teaching of English as a Foreign Language] test—listening was quite difficult. We need more input for listening. Sometimes we were taught by less qualified lecturers, graduates from bachelor degrees, not qualified at master degree level. Our language
laboratory is not equipped with adequate resources, such as recent English cassettes or CDs.

Further, BT#5 identified grammar as the language element of English most challenging and complex for her: ‘When I am teaching English to students, I feel less equipped regarding teaching the grammar subject’.

What was perceived by the beginner teachers about their difficulties in mastering the writing, listening and grammar courses in the program was also reported by Komur (2010). In investigating teaching knowledge and teacher competencies in student teachers’ teaching practicum, Komur found that student teachers had difficulty teaching writing and listening skills, as well as grammar structures, to students. The ability to learn language skills in terms of writing and listening, and student teachers’ preparedness to teach these skills may have contributed to some of the difficulties they encountered during teaching practicum.

In terms of listening, there are two factors that might cause beginner teachers to think they are not adequately equipped. First, this may result from the teacher educator’s ineffective method of delivering the listening subjects. One of the beginner teachers (BT#2) stated that he was sometimes taught listening skills by less qualified teachers. This suggests that, during the delivery of the listening subject, the lecturer or teacher educator might not be sufficiently prepared to deliver the subject. This may also be partly due to the listening materials not being systematically arranged and designed. Second, the poor quality of resources used during listening courses is a significant obstacle to student teachers learning listening skills. As stated by one of beginner teachers (BT#2), the language laboratory in the program was not equipped with adequate resources to support student teachers, which makes it challenging for them to improve their listening skills. They need access to adequate facilities to have the opportunity to improve their listening skills independently when outside the classroom.
In addition, based on my own experience as an English student teacher, and supported in a study by Munfangati (2014), the hours allocated to listening subjects (two hours per week) in the classroom are inadequate to noticeably improve listening skills. To address this, I needed time outside the classroom to maximise the resources provided by the language laboratory. I listened to English lessons on cassettes and CDs, and watched English lessons on video provided by the English language laboratory in the program at that time. In her study, Munfangati (2014) recommended that student teachers be encouraged to use the technology available around them to improve their listening outside the classrooms as an alternative learning activity to overcome the limited time allocation during the course. The findings from the quantitative data confirmed that a feature of the program that needs the most improvement is the availability of facilities to support teaching and learning activities.

Data from the open-ended questions in the questionnaire also confirmed that English skills–related courses—such as speaking, listening, speaking and writing courses—are very helpful for pre-service teachers to build the confidence to teach English to students. When the survey participants were asked about what aspects of the EFLTEP needed to change for improvement, several respondents stated that their English speaking and writing skills were most in need of improvement. Another of the survey participants (BT#5) stated that the grammar course was a difficult subject in need of improvement, especially regarding how it was delivered to pre-service teachers. It might be assumed that the grammar course, which contains language rules and patterns, is perceived to be difficult to learn by pre-service teachers because of its content; however, the pre-service teachers also perceived that the course was delivered ineffectively by the teacher educators. Details of the data generated from the surveys regarding the English skills of new teachers can be seen in Appendix 11.

In summary, both the recent graduates and beginner teachers were aware of the importance of language proficiency and language knowledge to build confidence to teach
English to students. However, several English skill–related courses need improvement to better equip prospective teachers with adequate subject matter content knowledge. Several studies investigating English teachers’ language proficiency in Asian contexts have revealed the same insight, with many teachers having a low level of English proficiency, and the curriculum in teacher education needing to be redesigned to improve the current situation (Dang et al., 2013; Goh & Wong, 2014; Hoa & Tuan, 2007).

6.4 Language Teaching Skills of New Teachers

This section of the chapter presents and discusses the participant responses from the interviews with recent graduates and beginning teachers. These responses came from interview questions such as:

- How well did your pre-service English teacher education provide you with the level of pedagogical skills you needed, and why?
- Which features of your pre-service English teacher education program best prepared you to teach English to students?

The data from the open-ended survey questions are also presented to support the data from the interviews.

Language teaching skills or pedagogic skills were described in the literature (Day, 1993; 2012; Day & Conklin, 1992; Richards, 1998; 2010) as teachers’ knowledge base of generic strategies, or the ways that teachers teach. In this section, the perspectives from both the recent graduates and beginner teachers about their pedagogical knowledge are presented in order to determine the extent to which the EFLTEP at Jambi University provided its student teachers with skills, such as selecting learning activities, asking questions, monitoring students’ learning, and giving feedback on students’ learning. These perspectives are then
elaborated, alongside the relevant literature, to support the beginner teachers’ and recent graduates’ perceptions of their pedagogical skill preparation in the EFLTEP.

The participants in this study pointed out that pedagogical knowledge—in this case, language teaching skills specifically—is crucial to ensuring that language teachers are prepared to teach English. As recent graduate RG#4 said: ‘I found them helpful to help me feel prepared to teach, but more time to practise is better, rather than only focusing too much on theory’. Based on this statement, it can be seen that there is a need to place greater practical emphasis on courses related to pedagogical skills. Pre-service teachers often feel that these kinds of subjects focus more on theoretical aspects, rather than practical aspects. In line with this perception, a beginning teacher in this study also stressed how important these teaching skills are. This new teacher (BT#4) said:

Subjects related to pedagogic skills are not well explored if compared with English skill subjects … [areas such as] how to manage a classroom, [and] how to meet student needs have less of a position … [they are] focusing on theory, rather than practice.

The responses from RG#4 and BT#4 implied that they needed more time to practise pedagogical skills, rather than only learning the theory behind these skills. Thus, there is also a need to have more subjects related to pedagogical skills. My experience as a student teacher was like that of the study participants. I found some subjects related to pedagogy placed more emphasis on theories of how to manage the classroom, working with students, and assessing students’ progress, rather than offering opportunities to practise what was learnt. Again, the practical aspects of the courses related to English-teaching skills need to be improved. This study’s recent graduates’ and beginner teachers’ perceptions of the practical component of the program agree with the study by Salli-Copur 2008), which indicated that student teachers need more time for practical work during pedagogical courses because their program lacks reality and opportunities to practise skills.
In addition, two of the pedagogical courses offered in the program to provide pre-service teachers with adequate teaching skills—the General Knowledge and Pedagogical Unit and the Language Knowledge and Pedagogical Unit—were supposed to be taught by English lecturers (teacher educators who teach English to pre-service teachers), not by lecturers from another discipline. However, an interview with a recent graduate (RG#4) revealed that these courses were taught in too much of a generalist manner:

Courses such as Introduction to Education and Teaching Profession will be better to be delivered by English lecturers who are familiar with the issues on English teaching, rather than issues on general teaching with has not directly something to do with English teaching.

During the Jambi University program, external lecturers were commonly hired to teach courses related to general pedagogical skills. Given that the EFLTEP at Jambi University is under the Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, such courses are often delivered by external lecturers with non-specific expertise in education and policy. The comments from the recent graduates indicated that courses related to general pedagogical skills need to be redesigned to focus more on the practical aspects of ELT. Coscun and Daloglu (2010) stated that courses in English teacher education should be approached as a tool for teaching English; thus, several courses at Jambi University—such as the literature courses and other general courses—need to be restructured to meet the practical, teaching-related needs of the student teachers.

RG#3 discussed the importance of pedagogical skills for coping with challenges in the English language classroom. When encountering a difficult situation in the classroom, such as student misbehaviour, she needed to feel confident that she could determine an appropriate strategy to manage the situation. She stated:
I will find strategies to handle students in the classroom so they can learn English well. Sometimes the strategy used was successful, but sometimes it did not work at all and I need to seek another strategy to solve the problems I have when I am teaching.

However, BT#4 placed a different emphasis on what she was prepared for in terms of pedagogical skills in the teacher education program. This beginner teacher stated:

When I began to teach English in school, I found some difficulties in regard to the dynamic situations that happened in the classroom. It was hard for me to attract the students’ attention to the lesson. Then, teaching in large class is another problem for me.

Another teaching skill that language teachers should have mastered is using strategies to motivate students in their learning, across a range of learner ages and abilities. BT#3 stated:

Some subjects related to pedagogical strategies were not well explored in the program [EFLTEP]. Right now, I am teaching in a primary school and I have to deal with special circumstances and cope with them. For example, I realise that I have to motivate and encourage students in learning, but I have less knowledge of how to motivate, encourage and attract primary school students to learn, not to mention how to handle various levels in student abilities. Most topics in the pedagogical subjects that I learnt about in the program focused on how to teach students in junior and senior high school level.

The evidence drawn from the responses above reveals that the beginner teachers found maintaining students’ interest, motivating students, managing the classroom and attracting students to learn were very difficult tasks that English teachers must practise and complete successfully during their teaching routines. Similarly, a study by Abednia (2012) investigating teachers’ professional identity concluded that knowledge of different teaching techniques—such as attracting students to learn—is important for teachers to work effectively with students.

Unfortunately, the beginner teachers in my study often felt they were not well prepared to work with students at the primary level. The pedagogical skills designed by the
EFLTEP mostly focused on teaching junior and senior high school students. While these student teachers were prepared and equipped to teach at the higher level of junior and senior high school, they could also teach in primary schools. These beginner teachers’ perceptions of the inadequacy of teaching skills to work with young learners align with several studies in other Asian countries (Hamid, 2010; Hoa & Tuan, 2007; Lie, 2007; Luciana, 2006; Zein, 2014). For example, a study by Zein (2014), investigating the adequacy of English pre-service teacher education in Indonesia to prepare primary school English teachers, indicated the need for specific preparation for student teachers to teach English to young learners at primary school level. The program needed to provide more practical provision and techniques for TEYL. Similarly, Luciana (2006) stated that the majority of English teacher education programs in Indonesia investigated in her study (10 programs) were inadequate in preparing English teachers to work at the primary level.

Data gathered from my study surveys confirmed that the specific needs for EFLTEP pedagogical courses at Jambi University are in high demand. The survey of the recent graduates and beginner teachers revealed that, in addition to facilities and resources, pedagogical-related courses were the second most frequently mentioned aspect considered to need improvement. When the participants of the survey were asked how to improve the pedagogical skills courses, several suggested that focusing more on practice than theory was the way to improve quality. Another area suggested for improvement was that more pedagogical skills are needed during the training of teachers, and the curriculum must accommodate this need. Detailed responses on this matter can be seen in Appendix 10.

The findings from these data show that the pre-service teachers perceived that they had been reasonably well prepared with pedagogical skills during the EFLTEP. However, several of the pedagogical skill courses needed to be improved in terms of their content and focus. Courses related to pedagogy would be better received by students if more attention
was given to issues related to teaching English, rather than to teaching in general, and if the lecturers in these courses were from English-teaching backgrounds. This is because the focus is likely to be on practical aspects, rather than only the theories of teaching. Further, because the graduates of the EFLTEP at Jambi University are prepared for teaching at the primary school level, the program needs to offer courses that provide pre-service teachers with knowledge of how to teach English to young learners (both theoretically and practically).

6.5 Pre-service Teachers’ Teaching Practicum

In order to describe broader findings regarding teaching practicum in the EFLTEP at Jambi University, the *Teaching Practicum Guidance Book* (2009) was used to examine the standards for implementing the teaching practicum in the program. This document was examined carefully to consider the teaching practicum in terms of its definition, aims and principles. This document also describes the roles of teacher educators and supervising teachers in the practicum. The following table summarises the relevant content in this guidance book.

**Table 6.6: The Teaching Practicum Guideline**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domains</th>
<th>Elaboration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aims</td>
<td>The teaching practicum is to ensure student teachers will be able to understand and be familiar with the school environment and its academic and social atmosphere, understand and implement teaching skills into practice, and obtain useful and meaningful experience in relation to their teaching practice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principles</td>
<td>The teaching practicum is a collaborative project undertaken by the Teaching Practicum Unit (TPU), Department of Culture and Education (DoCE) and participating schools. Student teachers’ teaching practicum is under supervision of qualified teacher educators and mentor teachers in a collaborative and clinical manner. The teaching practicum is compulsory and cannot be replaced by other courses, such as Microteaching or Peer Teaching. This is because student teachers need to be equipped with adequate experience working in schools before they graduate from the teacher education program. The teaching practicum is conducted in block placements, in which student teachers spend the whole semester in schools (for approximately 16 weeks).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The roles of teacher educators and mentor teachers

Most teaching practicums occur in schools under the supervision of teacher educators and mentor teachers. Teacher educators are qualified teaching staff responsible for helping and facilitating student teachers during their teaching practice in a school. In doing this, a teacher educator has the following responsibilities:

- work collaboratively with school principals and supervising teachers to ensure the student teachers’ practicum runs successfully
- help and facilitate student teachers to design their teaching material before undertaking teaching practice in the classroom
- supervise and assess student teachers’ performance during their teaching practice
- give feedback and a final score on the student teachers’ observation report and self-reflection report as the final assignment of their teaching practicum program.

Mentor teachers have the following responsibilities:

- work collaboratively with teacher educators and school principals to ensure student teachers’ teaching practicum runs successfully
- introduce student teachers to the school environment—such as to students, school staff and school administration—and its teaching atmosphere
- help and supervise student teachers in undertaking teaching practice in classrooms on a daily basis
- discuss problems found during teaching supervision with teacher educators and school principals to seek solutions
- assess student teachers’ performance during their teaching practice, and give feedback and a final score on their observation report and self-reflection report as the final assignment of their teaching practicum program.

The teaching practicum is one of the required subjects that student teachers must complete in order to have adequate opportunity to practise what they have learnt during their course work in real school classrooms (Darling-Hammond, 2006). The teaching practicum is one of the core components of the EFLTEP at Jambi University (as shown in Table 6.6 above). However, there are handicaps and weaknesses that can arise during implementation of the teaching practicum. It is generally regarded that the teaching practicum is one of the most important and challenging aspects of teacher education programs because it provides relevant practical experience for prospective teachers (Ramsey, 2000). Therefore, the following discussions will focus on improving the teaching practicum at Jambi University.
Issues regarding the quality and quantity of the teaching practicum at Jambi University’s English teacher education program will be presented and discussed in the following sections.

6.5.1 Quality of the Teaching Practicum

The data from the interviews showed that the beginner teachers perceived the teaching practicum as helpful in enabling them to implement what they had learnt during the program into the real world of school teaching practice. BT#1 said:

During teaching practicum, I got experience in teaching in front of students, delivering subject matter, managing the classroom, and conducting assessment. In other words, it was the place to implement what I had learnt in the program about school practice. It was the time to bring theories into practice.

This comment showed that BT#1 felt that, during the teaching practicum, she experienced activities that enabled her to bring the theories of practice into action in the classroom. She realised that the teaching practicum was an opportunity for her to practise the teaching skills that had been learnt theoretically during the program’s courses. Moreover, another beginner teacher (BT#2) learnt new things in relation to teaching preparation. BT#2 stated:

There are some new things that I got from the teaching practicum, such as how to design a lesson plan, construct test instruments and prepare teaching devices. Actually, I learnt such things in the program, but what I have got during practicum was slightly different and more recent advice.

The interesting point in BT#2’s comments is that what student teachers learnt in the program may not be up to date with what they found occurring in actual school practice. The latest versions of teaching tools, such as lesson plans, seemed to be active in schools, while the universities seemed to have been left behind. According to Martinez and Mackay (2002), it is not unusual for student teachers to consider the theory learnt in universities as not being
relevant to the realities of classroom practice. The university is often considered a different place to the school in terms of theory and the instruments of teaching.

When the same question was asked of the EFL recent graduates, they responded in a similar way by stating that the teaching practicum was very important in helping them implement what they had learnt from the program in the real practice of schooling. RG#1 stated that:

Teaching practicum is the most important step in becoming an English teacher. During the teaching practice in school, I had a lot of experience, such as how to face student misbehaviour, deliver the subject content of English and do some school stuff. I had opportunity to bring the theories I learnt at university into my practice in school.

While the quality of the teaching practicum program was perceived as good by the EFLTEP’s pre-service teachers, there are some critical issues that need to be addressed about implementing the teaching practicum in the (school) field. RG#3 stated that the teaching practicum was an essential step during her journey as a student teacher in the EFLTEP. However, she faced some challenges during her practicum, particularly in dealing with teaching large classes, where there were approximately 40 students in one room. RG#3 stated:

During teaching practicum, I have got an unforgettable experience in my teaching practice in the classroom. Based on what I learnt in university—that ideally a language teacher will teach for maximum 20 students in classroom—what I have experienced is different, as I had to teach more than 40 students in one class. It was a very big challenge for me.

Another mixed reaction to the practicum was given by RG#4, who stated that, overall, the quality of the teaching practicum was good, yet there were some features that could be better implemented in the future. RG#4 stated:

For the six months, I did teaching practicum [and] I got a wide range of experience that helped me to understand how to be an effective teacher. But I found some weaknesses in
the teaching practicum project, such as low frequency of teacher educators’ visits when student teachers are practising teaching in classroom, and less cooperative supervising teachers, both which make a difficult time when being alone in a new place.

There are at least two important insights to be drawn from RG#3 and RG#4’s statements—namely, the significance of teaching large classes, and the importance of the roles of supervising teachers and teacher educators. Large classes are a significant issue for pre-service teachers teaching EFL during their teaching practicum (Shamim, 2007, 2012). Moreover, the existing roles of supervising teachers and teacher educators are not always effective in helping pre-service teachers gain adequate experience to teach English. Supervising teachers have important roles to facilitate student teachers with adequate supervision so they develop their teaching skills during their placement. They have responsibilities to assist in the growth and development of teacher candidates by modelling effective instruction, providing opportunities to practise teaching, and evaluating teacher candidates’ performance across multiple domains (Allsopp, DeMarrie, Alvarez-McHatton & Doone, 2006).

In addition, according to Mtika (2011), the interaction among student teachers, mentor teachers and teacher educators is very important for the professional identity development of student teachers while on teaching placements. To do so, better relationships between teacher educators and supervising teachers need to be established, based on mutual respect and understanding of each other’s expertise, needs and perspectives. This better relationship could lead to more effective roles in assisting student teachers through their overall development in the teaching practicum.

In order to further consider how the EFLTEP at Jambi University can provide the necessary time and quality in experience for student teachers during their practicum, the following section discusses what occurs during the teaching practicum in terms of the amount
of time spent in schools, and the roles played by teacher educators and their supervising (mentor) teachers.

6.5.2 Length of the Teaching Practicum

The responses from the interviews conducted in this study suggested that the student teachers perceived that they needed more time in schools to have adequate opportunity to turn their knowledge base into practice. BT#4 felt strongly that the teaching practicum was not meeting expectations. She stated:

I only have a small chance to practise my teaching as it only lasts for one semester, to cover all aspects of teaching practicum, such as microteaching preparation, observation and practice itself. It would be better if teaching practicum was not only in one school, but was in two or more schools.

Another beginner teacher (BT#2) said that the duration of the teaching practicum should be increased, and that some unrelated courses—such as poetry and KKN (a field project)—should be eliminated from the EFLTEP. He stated:

For students in the EFL teacher education program, they do not need poetry or field project subjects as a requirement in their candidatures because the length of teaching practicum is more important. Doing teaching practicum in one semester is not adequate. The more practice I had, the better I felt prepared.

A similar comment was made by BT#2 about the need for an extension of the teaching practicum. She stated:

In my opinion, teaching practicum is more important than field project. As student teachers, we are required to have more experience in teaching practice, such as preparing lesson plans, managing classroom and doing tests.

Moreover, BT#1 stated:

Before teaching in a school, I was prepared with microteaching, but it was not adequate to face various challenges regarding teaching practice. I think the length of teaching
practicum needs to be extended for another one semester to better prepare prospective English teachers to be ready for teaching profession.

Aside from the length of the teaching practicum, microteaching during the teaching practicum was also considered inadequate for preparing the student teachers to have the skills they needed to teach in the practicum. RG#3 stated that the microteaching prerequisite project—which was taken before the student teachers conducted their teaching practicum—was not effective because it did not focus on how to teach English to students, and only prepared student teachers for general issues in teaching. RG#3 stated:

In microteaching, we learnt general issues of teaching, but not specifically about how to teach English to students. At the first week, EFL pre-service teachers are grouped with other discipline pre-service teachers, such as science pre-service teachers and mathematics pre-service teachers, to work collaboratively to complete the tasks assigned during microteaching. At the second week, we are grouped based on discipline subject matter and have opportunity to practise teaching in front of colleagues. I hope that microteaching becomes prerequisite courses, not only the short training taken before pre-service teachers conduct their teaching practicum.

It is not only the length of time and microteaching project that need to be reconsidered, but also the choice of schools that partner with the university for the practicum program. BT#4 suggested that the practicum needs to occur in more than one school to gain a wider experience practising teaching skills. BT#4 stated that:

In terms of time and place, I think the teaching practicum must have an adequate length of time so that student teachers have more time for practice. Moreover, doing teaching practicum in more than one school was better in terms of gaining a wide range of experience that student teachers need to have.

Regarding the length of the teaching practicum, 80% of the EFLTEP’s graduates interviewed requested an extension to the duration of the practicum to give them adequate opportunity to work with children and other teachers in schools. However, RG#4 was a
dissenting voice, who considered that a six-month teaching practicum was adequate to allow her to implement the theories of teaching into practice. RG#4 stated:

Six months of teaching practice is adequate since I need one month to do observation and get familiar with school environment, and the rest to spend on doing teaching practice under the supervision and guidance from a teacher educator and supervising teacher.

The period considered adequate for EFL pre-service teachers to conduct teaching practicum can vary from one teacher education program to another, and the time needed will often depend on each individual per-service teacher’s specific needs. However, the quality of the teaching practicum is often seen as the significant factor contributing to a successful teaching practicum (Le Cornu & Ewing, 2008). Thus, the length of the teaching practicum needs careful thought, given that the duration is not the only crucial issue—the quality also needs more attention (Le Cornu & Ewing, 2008). In a traditional approach, teaching practicum often occurs during the final year of the program, which results in student teachers’ professional experience being a culmination of their study (Lugton, 2000), rather than the starting point of a new learning process. There are two questions in relation to the timing of the teaching practicum:

- How much time is adequate?
- When should the practicum ideally be undertaken?

First, student teachers need time to become familiar with school environments (Freeman & Richards, 2002) and, in order to practise their teaching skills, they need a realistic period to use their full repertoire of skills and face challenges that they can reflect on as a way to refine their teaching. This can be done by adopting a practical view of the demands of teaching that recognises the realities of classroom life and allows adequate time for student teachers to prepare to cope with those realities (Yan & He, 2010). Providing opportunities to link field
experience to practice for student teachers requires a significant and strategically located commitment of time (Le Cornu & White, 2000). Second, according to Yan and He (2010), student teachers need more opportunities to undertake teaching practicum during several semesters throughout the four-year program, rather than only once in the final year of the program. This will give student teachers more awareness of their responsibilities in teaching. If it is only undertaken in the final year of the program, student teachers may have forgotten parts of their theory by the time they undertake their practicum (Brady, Segal, Bamford & Deer, 1998).

Similar to Brady et al. (1998), Smith, Ewing and Cornu (2007) pointed out that there have been changes to teaching practicum in Australia and other countries to meet the needs of student teachers’ learning. This transition in ideas about what constitutes an effective teaching practicum is based on the notion that, when student teachers are teaching at the same time that they are learning about teaching, the practicum will successfully involve student teachers as simultaneously being both teachers and learners.

6.5.3 The Roles of Mentor Teachers and Teacher Educators

In order to achieve a quality teaching practicum, both teacher educators and supervising teachers have important roles to play. The findings of this study show that the existing roles played by teaching mentors and teacher educators during the practicum are not enabling a fully satisfactory teaching practice experience for student teachers. A beginner teacher (BT#2) presented this view about the roles played by mentor teachers and teacher educators:

Ideally, teacher educators should visit regularly the school where student teachers are doing practicum to see the progress that student teachers make. What I experienced was far less than ideal. My teacher educators only visited me twice, firstly at the beginning of teaching practicum and then at the assessment of teaching practicum. Fortunately, my
mentor teacher was very helpful and gave me some knowledge about teaching and how to manage students in classroom.

However, BT#2’s experience was better that of other beginner teachers during their teaching practicum. For example, BT#4 received minimal input from the teacher educator:

> During my teaching practicum, my teacher educator only visited me once, at the end of the program in assessment time, at the time we are assessed by the supervising teacher and teacher educator on our teaching performance.

While BT#5 also received minimal input from the teacher educator, they made more use of the mentor teachers:

> Frankly speaking, the role of teacher educator was less than the role of supervising teacher during my teaching practicum. If I had problems regarding my practice, I always went to the supervising teachers asking for solutions.

BT#1 experienced much the same:

> The role of the teacher educator during my teaching practicum was not adequate in terms of his visit. Sometimes, when I had something to ask, he was not there to help. Fortunately, my supervising teacher was always available to help.

However, it is not only teacher educators who do not meet student expectations. Sometimes, supervising teachers do not fulfil the roles that students need. According to BT#4:

> As a student teacher who is doing teaching practicum, I hoped that my supervising teachers would help me much during my teaching in the classroom, but I felt that I had less support from my supervising teacher. When I had problems, such as how to deal with students’ behaviour, my supervising teacher seems to be reluctant to discuss it with me and find the solution how to handle it. Consequently, I have to find the way out to solve it by myself.

BT#4 also reflected that the infrequency of their teacher educator’s visits to the school was one of the teaching practicum program’s weaknesses, and that this should be addressed to improve the quality of the program. She stated:
The teacher educator seems not to care about his role in my teaching practicum. He only came to visit my practice of teaching once in whole semester in my last assessment of my teaching practicum. He came only to assess my performance of teaching in front of the children in the classroom—that was in my last episode in doing the teaching practicum.

When the same question was asked of the EFLTEP recent graduates, most had also experienced insufficient guidance from their teacher educators and supervising teachers. RG#2 stated:

My teacher educator only visited three times during the six-month teaching practicum, and he did not come at the time I had final practice assessment teaching in classroom. My supervising teacher also did not adequately help me, so I did not know exactly what my weaknesses were during my teaching practice.

This was frequently reported. For example, RG#3 similarly stated:

The teacher educator came to visit me three times during my teaching practicum. If I had difficulty regarding my pedagogical practice, I usually discussed it with my mentor teacher, but this was not adequate since I also needed some feedback from the teacher educator regarding my teaching practice.

These recent graduates’ perceptions about the roles of supervising teachers (mentor teachers) and teacher educators resonated with the findings of a study by Ssentamu-Namubiru (2010), which indicated that the frequency of visits by teacher educators was often considered inadequate. Meanwhile, despite this observation, according to Allsopp et al. (2006), university supervisors or teacher educators are required to be at school at least one to 1.5 days per week.

Conversely, and to emphasise the point, when the roles of the teacher educators and mentor teachers were performed well, the student teachers commented positively about the effect of this on their teaching practicum. As BT#3 said, when the teacher educators played
their role properly during the teaching practicum, and visited the student teacher regularly, it was very helpful:

My teacher educator visits me once a week and I think it is adequate, so that whenever I came across with problems in teaching, I will ask help from both my teacher educator and mentor teachers. Both of them are very helpful in supporting me doing my teaching practicum and I have some good experiences on how to be a good teacher in the future.

In addition to what BT#3 said, RG#1 revealed a similar opinion, where she felt that, during the teaching practicum, the teacher educator had adequately played their role: ‘When I did my teaching practice in the classroom, I got some feedback from my teacher educator so I will improve my teaching for the next performance’. RG#1 also said that her supervising teacher helped her prepare before going to the classroom: ‘She always gives feedback on my teaching practice. She also involves student teachers under her supervision when doing assessment of the students’ progress’.

Clearly, the interaction between the student teachers and their supervising teachers is an important part of the teaching practicum. According to Mtika (2011), the interaction between student teachers, supervising teachers and teacher educators is crucial to the professional growth of student teachers during teaching practicums. To do so, better relationships between teacher educators and mentor teachers need to be established based on mutual respect and understanding of each other’s expertise, needs and perspectives. This better relationship will lead to effective roles that will assist student teachers during their practicum.

6.5.4 Selecting School Partners for the Student Teacher Practicum

Another important part of the teaching practicum program is selecting school partners to provide locations for student teachers to practise their skills and develop their expertise. The choice of participating schools is important to ensure student teachers attain the useful
experience they need. Through its TPU, the EFLTEP at Jambi University selects schools based on the mutual decisions of the TPU and DoCE at the municipal level, which has the authority to decide which schools are available for student teachers’ teaching practicum. However, the process of partner selection is not without criticism. When the school principals were asked how to select participating schools to be involved in the practicum project, they revealed that they were never involved in deciding which schools were going to participate. Before the student teachers come to the participating schools, the principals simply received a letter from the TPU and DoCE explaining that their school was selected to be a partner for the practicum project.

An interview with a school principal (SP#2) revealed:

Jambi University did not carefully select school partners in the teaching practicum project. The selection tends to be based on the distance between schools and campus and not on the quality of participating schools. They [the TPU and DoCE] never invite us to discuss the merits of the selection.

This response suggests that the selection of school placement is based on easy access to managing the program. However, SP#2 stated that the quality of school partners is an important aspect that the TPU and DoCE must consider. According to Patrick (2013), high competition among teacher education institutions to find school partners, the proximity of the schools to a student teacher’s home, their familiarity with the setting, and the willingness of the school to provide placement to student teachers are often the reasons for teacher institutions to find school partners to organise school-in based professional experience. Although high competition among institutions was not the case at Jambi University, the familiarity and school willingness seems to be relevant.

A similar response was given by another school principal (SP#3), who stated in the interview that he was informed by official letter from the TPU and DoCE that the teaching
practicum project would be held at his school. He then chose senior teachers to be the supervising teachers working with the student teachers during their teaching practice. He said that, after he received the letter informing him about the teaching practicum project, he selected these supervising teachers based on their seniority alone. When SP#3 was asked further about how he selected his supervising teachers, he said:

After receiving the official letter from TPU, I am informed how many student teachers will undertake this project and how many supervising teachers are needed from available staff in my school. Then, selection will be based on their seniority and their availability at the moment the teaching practicum takes place.

Supervision from senior teachers during the teaching practicum is important to ensure that student teachers receive the experience needed to link the theory and practice of teaching in a comprehensive process. However, it seems that school principals’ methods of selecting supervising teachers are questionable in terms of the quality of the process. In a traditional approach to teaching practicum, Darling-Hammond (2006) stated that cooperating teachers or supervising teachers were selected with no regard for the quality or type of practice in which they engaged. Rather, the choice was often based on seniority, favouritism or the notion that it was one teacher’s turn to assist. These do not seem to be appropriate grounds for these choices, given the importance of the practicum experience for the successful preparation of new teachers.

My document analysis indicated that the selection of participating schools was made by the head of the DoCE, who appointed schools under his authority, as proposed by the TPU (Teaching Practicum Guidance Book, 2009). In this case, the schools that were to participate in the practicum project were not involved in making the decision. This kind of decision, with schools as a passive party, has often created problems for schools in preparing to be part of the teaching practicum. In this partnership, there is less interaction between the university, the DoCE and the schools in terms of the roles of the parties involved.
Around the world, in comparison to traditional teacher education programs, contemporary programs have built relationships with school partners to ensure that the teaching practicum for student teachers is successful via work with expert teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2006). This newer relationship style is based on a reciprocal partnership, in which teacher educators and schools’ supervising teachers support each other to help student teachers obtain the experience needed from a strong teaching practicum project. This relationship seeks to provide opportunities that enable both parties to benefit from being involved in the practicum program. Partnerships between schools and universities are a necessary part of teacher education programs that seek to produce high-quality teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2006). The program provides the theoretical knowledge and the schools provide practical experience for student teachers. The necessary mutual collaboration between universities and schools involves planning, developing and implementing the teaching practicum together (Loughran, 2007).

Darling-Hammond (2006) further stated that the supervising teachers who work with the teacher educators should be selected from successful teachers and mentors—not only because they can offer their classrooms for student teachers’ practicum, but also because of their deep expertise and willingness to share their knowledge systematically with a new colleague. By selecting supervising teachers in this manner, it is hoped that student teachers will be able to learn to teach more effectively.

6.6 Teacher Educators’ and School Principals’ Perceptions of the Language Proficiency and Teaching Skills of New Teachers

This section explores the teacher educators’ and school principals’ perceptions of the language proficiency and language teaching skills of recent graduates and beginner teachers. The interview data gathered from the teacher educators and school principals encompass
perceptions of the extent to which the EFLTEP’s graduates have been equipped with language knowledge and language teaching skills.

Four of the five school principals who participated in the interviews agreed that the EFLTEP beginner teachers at Jambi University had adequate language knowledge and proficiency. However, they observed that the pedagogical skills of new beginner teachers could be improved. As SP#11 said:

I think Mr N is good at speaking as I have seen him teaching English to students by using English for instruction in the classroom. But for his ability to manage students to engage in learning process, this needs to be improved.

Another school principal (SP#2) stated that Ms A had already shown ability in subject matter knowledge and good language skills. However, some improvement in delivering lessons would make her a better teacher. These school principals’ perceptions agreed with what Marcellino (2007) found in his research. According to him, a monotonous teaching technique limits teachers’ performance—a common phenomenon in classroom practice. The ability to manage the classroom and use various strategies in teaching are essential for teachers to avoid making the teaching and learning process boring and unappealing lessons to students.

In addition, Luciana (2006) investigated 10 language teacher education programs in Java, Bali, and Lampung, Indonesia, and found that English teacher education programs should strive to equip student teachers both with knowledge of English language art concepts, and the pedagogical aspects that encompass understanding the transmission of knowledge. This was linked by SP#3 to inexperience as a major factor causing beginner teachers to not have the teaching strategies to cope with the task of teaching well. He said: ‘I have mostly found EFL beginner teachers from Jambi University who teach in this school to have less knowledge of pedagogy. This may be caused by lack of experience’.
In contrast, the teacher educators’ comments about recent graduates’ and beginner teachers’ language knowledge and language teaching skills indicated a different perspective. They believed the graduates were ready, and that poor teaching was most likely attributable to other school factors. TE#1 stated:

Pre-service teachers who have completed their EFL teacher education program have been equipped with adequate language knowledge and language teaching skills. If later we found that they could not perform well in their teaching profession, there must be a reason of sorts behind that.

Moreover, TE#3 stated that the graduates of the EFLTEP at Jambi University had good speaking and reading skills, but lower proficiency in writing and listening:

If we are talking about English skills of our graduates, for speaking and reading skills, I think they are good at this. They use English for communication in classrooms with their colleagues. Reading is a skill that our graduates are good at. As I teach speaking and reading courses to EFL student teachers, I know their proficiency on those two skills. However, their proficiency in writing and listening skills is not sufficient.

In line with the previous comments from the teacher educators, TE#5 stated that the EFLTEP’s graduates have been well prepared with the language knowledge and language teaching skills they need to teach English. However, she stated that, to be professional in teaching, graduates must be encouraged to upgrade and update their knowledge through the various programs initiated by the Indonesian government, such as the Teacher Professional Development Program, which is currently popular among teachers throughout Indonesia. She stated:

As teacher educators, we have to prepare our student teachers with the knowledge and skills they need to be English teachers. This quality outcome is written into our curriculum. EFLTEP graduates must have pedagogical competence, subject matter content knowledge, personal and social competence. They also need to continue learning as a teacher to upgrade their knowledge to keep up with education needs in the future.
The perceptions of the teacher educators suggested that there is a need for improved English language knowledge among the student teachers, and that they need pedagogy knowledge on how to teach students who learn EFL. The findings of this study demonstrate that there is a need to balance subjects related to pedagogical skills and subjects related to language skills. Thus, the EFLTEP at Jambi University needs to allocate more time to PCK, which Shulman (1987) proposed as one of the categories of the knowledge base that teachers should have. In order to prepare English teachers with adequate PCK, the program must balance both language skill–related subjects (such as speaking, writing, reading and listening skills) and pedagogical skill–related subjects (such as the Teaching English as Foreign Language Strategy and Practice Course, curriculum and material development subjects, and teaching practicum). According to Day (1991), teachers need to know what difficulties students might encounter during their learning, and courses related to EFL skills, EFL teaching material evaluation and development are important to prepare student teachers to acquire what they need to know and be able to do. In addition, teachers need to know the subject matter they teach and how to deliver it to students, and this quality will be reflected in variations in the performance of those duties (Shulman & Shulman, 2004).

6.7 Summary of the Findings

This chapter has discussed the presence and development of the language teaching skills and language knowledge of new teachers studying in the EFLTEP at Jambi University, as well as their participation in the pre-service teaching practicum project. The data from the interviews show that improving these skills among new teachers must remain a focus in the future. These findings align with other research conducted in teacher education, especially in language teacher education in Indonesia, which has suggested that there is a crucial need for teacher education to prepare graduates with adequate levels of PCK to be fully competent
professional teachers of English. The next chapter, Chapter 7, presents a broader discussion of these findings and further elaborates on the data from this study by linking it to other relevant literature.
Chapter 7: Discussion of the Study Findings

7.1 Introduction

The overall research aim was to investigate the preparation of teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL teachers) at Jambi University. The primary focus of the study was to determine participant and stakeholder perceptions of the Jambi University Teacher Education Program for teachers of English as a foreign language in Indonesia. To recap, the questions that directed the research were the following:

1. What are the aims and content of the EFL teacher education curriculum at Jambi University?

2. How do recent EFL Teacher graduates perceive their preparation experience as English language teachers at Jambi University?

3. How well are Jambi University EFLTEP graduates, as beginner teachers, equipped to teach with English language capacity and pedagogies?

4. How do teacher educators and school principals (as employers) perceive Jambi University EFLTEP graduates as beginner teachers?

The methodology used in this study included two phases of data collection. Phase one involved surveying Jambi University TEFL graduates, both (immediate) recent graduates and beginner teachers, while Phase two involved document analysis and interviews with five teacher educators, five school principals, five recent graduates, and five beginner teachers.

The quantitative findings from the survey data were presented in Chapter Five and the qualitative findings from interview data, document analysis, and surveys were presented in
Chapter Six. This chapter returns to the above research questions to discuss the significance and implications of the findings as responses to the questions that framed the study. This study’s findings are also compared to findings from other research studies and theoretical models in EFL teacher education literature.

Thus, this chapter provides an integrated discussion of the research findings derived from the surveys, the document analysis, and the interview data obtained from the participants in the study. The chapter is divided into four sections, related to each research question of this study and another discussion about resourcing of EFLTEP at Jambi University, as this was an important theme that emerged from the survey and interview data.

The first section is about the aims and the contents of the English as a Foreign Language Teacher Education Curriculum. The second section is focused on recent graduates’ perceptions of their preparation experience as English language teachers. The third section deals with how well beginner teachers are equipped to teach with their language proficiency and pedagogy. The fourth section of this chapter considers teacher educator and school principal perceptions of EFLTEP graduates as EFL beginner teachers and also contains a brief discussion of EFLTEP resourcing.

7.2 The Aims and Content of English as a Foreign Language Education Curriculum

The data regarding the aims and content of EFLTEP Curriculum were elicited from a document analysis of the curriculum used by the program at the time the research was conducted, namely the 2009 EFLTEP Curriculum. Supporting data were also gathered from interviews with recent graduates, beginner teachers, and teacher educators.
7.2.1 The Aims and Content of EFLTEP Curriculum

The aims of EFL teacher education curriculum at Jambi University are to do with producing well equipped graduates who have adequate language knowledge and language teaching skills, who have ability to conduct research in English teaching, and graduates who have ICT skills that can be used in their teaching activities (EFLTEP Curriculum, 2009). In addition, it aims to provide an in-service training program to improve the quality of English teachers in Jambi province and in Indonesia in general.

In order to achieve the goals of teacher learning, it becomes important and crucial to formulate what language teacher education involves and what teacher educators need to know and be able to do in order to prepare and educate pre-service teachers effectively. According to Graves (2009), the key aspects of a second language teacher education curriculum include understanding teachers as learners, defining goals for teacher learning, knowing what to teach them and how to teach them, and evaluating the effectiveness of the teacher education process. In articulating these aspects, Graves (2009) proposes key questions for curriculum planning in language teacher education, namely: (1) who will be taught, (2) what will be taught, (3) how it will be taught, and (4) how what is learnt to be evaluated.

Regarding who will be taught, the EFL teacher education program at Jambi University has a recruitment system for EFL student teachers. Senior High School graduates must take an entrance test to be enrolled as EFL student teachers. The test assesses their English ability and other general knowledge. Those who pass the test are considered to have an average level in English ability and are eligible to enrol in the program. Mostly EFL student teachers are from Jambi Province and the rest of them come from other provinces in Indonesia (EFLTEP Curriculum, 2009).
In addition, regarding what will be taught to the student teachers—the main focus of this study—the literature on a knowledge base for language teachers is very important in informing a teacher education program with its curriculum development and decisions about the content of the program. Several researchers have attempted to outline what content should be included in ESL/EFL teacher education programs. Richards (1998) proposed six domains in the knowledge base for language teachers. In a recent article, Richards (2010) also proposed ten dimensions in language teachers’ competence and performance. Day (1993) has also proposed a similar model and knowledge base for second language teacher education.

Based on the outline of curriculum content for EFL teacher education, there are domains that are shared in common including: Language Proficiency, Content Knowledge, Pedagogical Content Knowledge, and Subject Matter Knowledge. This knowledge base for language teachers is currently the core of the EFL teacher education curriculum at Jambi University.

The focus for teacher educators is teaching student teachers about teaching by imparting adequate pedagogical skills to facilitate learning as well as equipping them with subject matter knowledge. In doing so, teacher educators need to utilize certain teaching tools to execute the approaches and content areas in language education (Richards, 1998). Teacher educators need to provide student teachers with learning-teaching options such as lectures, seminars, and workshops. The use of technology to support student teacher learning is also helpful for teacher educators in doing their roles and, according to Richards (2008) advances in technology create a need for new ways of delivery of teacher education courses.

Graves (2009) also proposed that a language teacher education curriculum must address the question of how courses offered in teacher education should be evaluated. While, according to Richards (2001) an evaluation of curriculum aims at seeing to what extent the
curriculum was used, the effectiveness of the process of teaching and learning in the classroom, and the satisfaction of those affected by curriculum such as students, teachers, and other stakeholders, in the case of the EFLTEP curriculum, a further evaluation is also warranted to assess student teachers’ progress in their preparation to be English teachers.

The four core units in Jambi University’s EFLTE program were developed from and are in accordance with National Law No. 14 Year 2005 (Bill of Teachers and Lecturers, 2005) which mandates that teacher candidates are to have four competencies, namely; pedagogical competency, personal competency, professional competency, and social competency. As such, these units address student teachers’ pedagogical knowledge, language content knowledge and their pedagogical content knowledge (Day & Conklin, 1992; Day, 2012; Shulman, 1987; Shulman & Shulman, 2004), with both theoretical and practical knowledge being included in the degree. These four units also correspond broadly with Richards’ (2010) ten dimensions of language teacher competence and performance.

The need for a knowledge base for language teachers has been addressed in the content of the EFLTEP at Jambi University. It articulates its primary goal as producing qualified English teachers with sufficient language knowledge and language teaching skills. The findings from this study are that what should be taught in the program, as part of EFLTEP’s curriculum, is the knowledge and skill set needed for English teachers to be professional and effective.

As far as achieving the required competences is concerned, there are refinements needed given the participants’ perceptions on the relevance and overlap in content of courses in order to provide student teachers with balanced pedagogic and linguistic instruction in both theoretical and practical components of the courses. Competence across the ten dimensions is a more likely outcome if such improvements can be made.
7.2.2 Issues for EFLTEP Curriculum

Despite the fact that the curriculum used in the EFL teacher education program has tried to accommodate the needs of pre-service teachers, there are issues that need to be elaborated upon for a broader understanding of the implementation of the curriculum. These issues are mainly concerned with the weaknesses of course content and in the teaching and learning processes used by teacher educators in working with pre-service teachers. The issues presented here are based on the perceptions gathered from recent graduates, beginner teachers, and teacher educators during interviews about the curriculum used in the EFLTEP at Jambi University. As well, the findings from previous studies in the area of English teacher preparation programs such as studies conducted by Coscun and Daloglu (2010), Salli-Copur (2008), Erozan (2005), and Luciana (2006) are drawn upon in the discussion.

7.2.2.1 Refocusing Course Content in Curriculum

Both recent graduates and beginner teachers perceived that the program provided more theoretical content, rather than practical insights, in its courses. Data from interviews suggest that courses related to knowledge and general pedagogical skills need to be improved by focusing more on the balance between theory and practice. Similarly, Coscun and Daloglu (2010) concluded that courses about pedagogical skills often emphasize more theoretical aspects and that there is a need to find a better balance between the theoretical and practical aspects in those courses. It is common in EFL teacher education programs (in Indonesia) that some courses in the Knowledge and General Pedagogical Skill Unit are taught by non-English teacher educators (EFLTEP Curriculum 2009) and this may result in the focus of learning being more on the theory of pedagogy in general terms. Consequently, the courses tend not to be specifically about pedagogies for English teaching and this was a criticism of the program made by both graduates and beginner teachers. For this reason, there is a need
for Jambi University to hire the right person for the right job, in this case, the courses related to general pedagogical skills need to be taught by English teacher educators who are familiar with English teaching pedagogy.

The data from the document analysis of the EFLTEP curriculum indicated that four out of the 10 dimensions of language teacher competence and performance (Richards, 2010) use Bahasa instead of English as a medium of instruction in classroom. They are the Learner-Focused Teaching, the Pedagogical Reasoning Skills, the Membership of Community Practice, and the Teacher Professionalism dimensions. This current arrangement contributes to student teachers learning more about theories and general knowledge rather than English teaching skills (in English). Again, this is an area for improvement in the Jambi University EFLTEP. English teacher educators who can teach these four dimensions in English are needed to provide student teachers with relevant knowledge and English at the same time.

Another issue raised was the limited time allocated to pedagogical skills related courses. The data from beginner teachers and recent graduates show that while the TEFLS (Teaching English as a Foreign Language Strategy) course description clearly states that this course requires practice in teaching, due to limited time and a large number of participants enrolled in this course, each pre-service teacher only has two chances to practise their teaching in front of a class. This results in a lack of time for pre-service teachers to gain adequate practical experience. Therefore, this can be improved by putting student teachers into several parallel classes when there are a large number of participants enrolled in practical courses such as the TEFLS course. By doing this, the student teachers will have more time and quality opportunities for practising their teaching in the courses.

According to Darling-Hammond (2002, 2006) linking theory and practice in teacher education is very important and this is because it is difficult to learn theory in isolation from
practice. In addition, there is a need to balance theory and practice in subjects about pedagogical skills because beginner teachers can find it difficult to understand the connection between what they have learnt at university and how it is to be implemented as effective classroom practice (Komesaroff & White, 2002). In the EFLTEP at Jambi University, linking theories to practice in the pedagogical courses was identified as important by graduates during interviews. So, it is essential for the program to better balance and articulate these links into the curriculum by including theory and practice integration as content.

7.2.2.2 Overlapped Courses

Data from the interviews show that there was a perceived overlap in course material given by teacher educators that led to boredom for pre-service teachers due to repetitiveness of topics learnt across different courses. Analysis of curriculum documents indicated repetitive patterns in courses related to research and there was overlap content identified in a number of courses related to research (EFLTEP Curriculum, 2009). Teacher educators also thought this made them ineffective in meeting necessary requirements and that it led to courses that were not needed for completion of the program. This is not unusual, as evidenced in a study conducted by Salli-Copur (2005) that found unnecessary overlaps among courses offered in English teacher preparation programs in Turkey.

In addition, EFL pre-service teachers are required to accumulate more credit points from courses compared to other pre-service teacher programs. This means that it takes extra time for EFL pre-service teachers to complete their teaching degree. Nguyen (2013) suggested that in curriculum design for Second Language Teacher Education, it is important to consider the specific need context for teaching rather than adopting curriculum designed for a different or generic context. It does not therefore mean that all domains of teacher knowledge should be weighted equally, but the decision about which courses, and how many
credit points, in the program’s curriculum should be more clearly based on needs analysis (Le, 2004). In the case of the EFLTEP at Jambi University, as the goal of the program is to provide student teachers with sufficient knowledge of language and teaching skills, focus on those aspects is more useful than a large focus in research skill areas. It does not mean, however, that student teachers do not need to learn about research skills but getting the right proportion of research courses is the priority.

Based on the responses gathered from participants in this study, there is a need to rethink the number of courses offered in the program in order to allow student teachers to complete the program in a reasonable time. This does not mean decreasing quality, but rather carefully selecting relevant courses and deleting any irrelevant courses. The curriculum must not be considered a static document, but more an evolving one that reflects the changing needs of teacher candidates and the demands of local context (Graves, 2009; Johnston & Goettsch, 2000) and regular, informed refinement is therefore desirable. Coscun and Daloglu (2010) in their study, suggested that teacher educators need to work together to resolve issues about relevance and overlap in course content.

Eliminating the overlap in courses related to research skills in the EFLTEP at Jambi University can lead to resolving the excessive credit point problem. It might lead to better time management for student teachers in completing the program in more realistic and reasonable ways. Irrelevant courses that are eliminated can be replaced with fewer, more relevant ones, so that student teachers learn what they really need in the program.

7.2.2.3 Teaching in a Large Class

Time allocation and the number of pre-service teachers who enrolled in a course has become an issue in the EFLTEP program. Each year, the program has accepted and enrolled about 60 pre-service teachers. Due to limited resources and facilities, the pre-service teachers
enrolled are put into one class, thus creating a large class. One teacher educator (TE#1) said that she needed to help her pre-service teachers improve their English skills by providing one-to-one assistance to them. However, she found it difficult to teach in that way when working with large classes.

This finding was also evident in a study conducted in an Indonesian context by Lie (2007) which pointed out that English language teaching in Indonesia has faced four main problems, one of them being that the number of students is so large, along with wide range of motivation levels, intellectual capability, and cultural background. As a constraint this brings, as a consequence, difficulty in providing students with adequate, quality language learning experiences.

According to Shamim (2011), while there is no agreed definition of a large class, classes of 50 or more students in under-resourced classrooms are common in an EFL setting. This likelihood is due to a large population, limited resources and facilities and the number of teachers available. The teaching of English in large classes is not unique to Indonesia and it has been observed in many developing countries (Shamim et al., 2007).

Teaching in a large class leads to a low level of student involvement, subsequent problems in classroom management, and with providing appropriate assessment and feedback. Moreover, Shamim (2011) pointed out that English language teaching, in developing countries is often influenced by curriculum models and resourced with materials developed for use in the typically much smaller classes that are usually found in Western educational settings.

In order to be able to teach English effectively in a large class, Shamim (2011) suggested that teachers need to have positive attitudes toward large-class teaching and be receptive to teachers implementing innovative pedagogical approaches and strategies that
require learners to take more responsibility for their own learning. Shamim’s (2011) ideas for teaching large classes are relevant to conditions in the Indonesian context where, at the moment, these classes are not likely to have fewer than 40 students in one classroom.

Besides putting student teachers in several parallel classes, as mentioned earlier, teacher educators at Jambi University could utilize other appropriate teaching and learning strategies that better suit the characteristics of student teachers in Indonesia. Rather than teaching with only individual-based tasks and activities, teacher educators could assign group activities and peer-based tasks that involve student teachers in a team.

7.3 Recent Graduate Perceptions of Their Preparation Experience as English language Teachers

The data gathered from the surveys, interviews, and document analysis with recent graduates are elaborated and integrated in this part. The discussion of what recent graduates perceived about their English language proficiency, their language teaching skills, and the kinds of experiences they had as pre-service teachers during teaching practicum are elaborated with reference to relevant literature.

7.3.1 English Language Proficiency

According to Day and Conklin (1992) language teachers need to have adequate knowledge of the subject matter; that is, what ESL/EFL teachers teach such as syntax, semantics, phonology and the cultural aspects of the English Language.

Moreover, Richards (2010) defines content knowledge (or the subject matter of language teaching) as what teachers need to know about what they teach and this will be different in the different subject areas. He points out that there are two kinds of content knowledge, namely disciplinary knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. Nowadays, disciplinary
knowledge for language teachers encompasses a much broader range of content. It may include second language acquisition, sociolinguistics, phonology and syntax, discourse analysis, theories of language, and so on. On the other hand, pedagogical content knowledge refers to what the teacher knows about subject matter and the ability to transfer the subject matter to students.

There are five subsystems of language according to Wright (2010); namely, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics. Wright argues that these five subsystems of language together with vocabulary, spelling, and language variation are the elements of language that language teachers should know in order to able to work and facilitate effectively with their students in learning English. There is a need for teachers to have knowledge about the basic units of language, word formations, and sociolinguistic variations in language use in order to understand why English spelling is so complicated and when working effectively with English language learners (Fillmore & Snow, 2002; Bunch, 2013).

Wright (2010) further stated that recent approaches of language learning define language as a set of skills, including reading, writing, listening, and speaking. Knowing a language means mastering these skills and also attaining a basic vocabulary and understanding of grammar and so teachers need to focus on these skills and language elements in their classrooms.

The findings from the data suggest that recent graduates perceived their English Teacher Education Program had provided them with the language proficiency needed to confidently teach English to students. While these findings indicate that they believe they have been well prepared to perform English skills intended for communication purposes (Spitzer, 2009), there are several courses in grammar, writing, and listening that they perceived insufficient in terms of their delivery and content.
The ability to perform skills proficiently is needed for English teachers as it determines their level of confidence (Richards, 2010). So, EFL teachers who perceive themselves to be weak in the language they teach have reduced confidence in their ability to perform the necessary teaching activities in the classroom through the medium of that target language (Faez, 2011).

Two recent graduates (RG#3; RG#4) highlighted the connection between language proficiency and their confidence in this way: “the English skills I learnt in the program are very helpful in terms of my confidence to teach English to students”. In extension of the importance of this point, Liando (2010) argued that a lack of confidence leads to teachers being tough on students, especially when they did not know the answers to questions. As a consequence, learning and teaching goals may not be reached.

Faez (2011) asserts that in language teacher education programs, knowledge about the language and how the language is learnt, as well as knowledge of grammar and how language works are areas that need explicit instruction. In support of this, recent graduates perceived language proficiency and subject matter knowledge as important for building confidence in their teaching, and the curriculum of language teacher education needs to articulate this knowledge together with language proficiency in relevant course content. At Jambi University, teacher educators and curriculum designers should pay attention to what specific knowledge about language student teachers are required to learn and the best ways to deliver this knowledge. Teacher educators need to understand the importance of such courses for student teachers and to be professionally diligent in delivering these courses in more effective ways.

Other findings from interviews revealed that recent graduates perceived they were most prepared with the English skills of speaking and reading. This capacity of pre-service
teachers can be seen in their performance in speaking or reading tests as TE#3 points out: “talking about English skills of our graduates, for speaking and reading skills, I think they are good at these”. In the context of English as a Foreign Language teaching, where English input is limited, teacher proficiency in spoken language is really important and needed as the model for students in class (Yulia, 2013).

More than three decades ago Krashen (1982) proposed that ‘comprehensible input’ was very important for students to understand context with their use of the language. So, classroom activities need to ensure input relevant to the language learning context (Andersen, 1990). Therefore, activities are likely to be seen as appropriate when proficiency is attained (such as with reading and speaking) and not appropriate where weaknesses persist (such as with writing and listening).

Recent graduates confirmed that they perceived the writing and listening courses as difficult courses and that they needed to learn more about those English skills. A significant problem that arises in teaching writing skills is the large number of pre-service teachers enrolled in writing courses. There are usually more than 40 pre-service teachers in one class. This causes difficulty in teaching these skills as the teacher educator needs to guide each pre-service teacher about writing components, to drill them, to assign them, and to check their writing. These kinds of activities will be harder to do well when a teacher educator teaches a large class.

In terms of listening, there are two factors that might cause beginner teachers to think that they were not adequately equipped. Firstly, it may be due to a teacher educator’s ineffective way of delivering these listening subjects. One beginner teacher (BT#1) said that he was taught listening by less qualified teachers not well prepared to deliver the course. Partly, this is due to the listening materials they used not being systematically arranged and
designed. The finding is in line with the Marcellino (2008) study investigating English teachers’ performance that found a monotonous teaching technique affects the teachers’ performance, a common phenomenon in classroom practice. The ability to manage the classroom and to use various strategies in teaching listening is essential for teacher educators in order to make the teaching and learning process run smoothly.

As discussed earlier in the literature review, Zeichner (2005) pointed out that in order to respond to a dynamic and challenging teaching environment, teacher educators need to improve their teaching skills and develop ways of thinking that promote the application of professional skills. For example, a teacher educator’s poor way of delivering a listening subject usually indicates that he or she was not adequately prepared.

In addition, a teacher educator’s poor performance in teaching listening skill contributes to lower quality in their roles as agents responsible for preparing student teachers. For teacher educators, the teaching of skills, or pedagogical knowledge, must transcend simply the doing of teaching if it is to become an understanding of teaching about teaching that will work well with student teachers (Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013). This knowledge is crucial for teacher educators if they are to be role models for their student teachers because it will not only affect the level of language proficiency, in terms of listening skills, but also will affect student teachers’ pedagogical skills if they experience an unsuccessful learning environment during their listening course.

Secondly, the poor quality of resources used in the listening course is a significant obstacle for student teachers in learning listening skills. Student teachers need access to adequate facilities to give them opportunity to improve their listening skills independently when outside of the classroom. Poor quality resources for learning were also reported to be a factor in previous studies conducted in an Indonesian context. Lie (2007), for example, found
that one of the constraints on language policy and ELT classroom practices in Indonesia is the adequacy of learning resources and their influence on the quality of learning.

In addition, based on my own experience as an English student teacher, the data from this study and research conducted by Munfangati (2014), hours allocated for listening subjects in the classroom alone, is not adequate to make listening skills noticeably better. I needed more time outside of the classroom in order to maximize the resources provided by the language laboratory. In my case, improvement occurred from listening to English lessons through cassettes and CDs and watching English lessons on video provided by the language laboratory at that time. The data in this study confirms that the availability of facilities to support teaching and learning activities is a feature of the program that needs to be substantially improved.

According to Mulyasa (2007), a teacher education program has a responsibility to provide schools with qualified teachers. In doing so, a teacher education program must have suitable resources such as learning and teaching facilities including laboratories for micro-teaching, seminar rooms, and other supporting resources. A study conducted by Dang et al. (2013) about an English language as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) program in Vietnam asserted that the availability of English teaching resources is crucial to supporting pre-service teachers’ proficiency in English. They argued that policymakers and planners must provide pre-service teachers with relevant resources and facilities.

In fact, a number of teacher education programs in Indonesia, including the EFLTEP at Jambi University do not have the necessary facilities to support student teachers in their efforts to improve their listening skills. As with what happened in Vietnam, there is an urgent need for policy makers to provide teacher education programs in Indonesia with relevant resources and facilities for their student teachers.
7.3.2 Language Teaching Skills

According to Day and Conklin (1992), pedagogical knowledge is knowledge of generic teaching strategies, beliefs and practices - regardless of the focus of the subject matter (how we teach) - such as classroom management, motivation, decision making. Shulman (1987) had the same view when he stated that General Pedagogical Knowledge is about those broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organization that would appear to transcend subject matter.

In line with Shulman (1987), Hollin (2011) stated that knowledge of pedagogy refers to a clearly designed and interrelated pattern of learning experiences embedded within a particular perspective and guided by a clearly articulated philosophical stance that provides vision and purpose for long and short term learning outcomes. In this view, teaching strategies are to be based on the developmental needs of the learner with the intent of facilitating learning and personal development to achieve immediate, quality learning outcomes.

Taking a more specific stance, Richards (2010, 2013) defined teaching as an act of performance, and teachers need to learn and master techniques and routines, such as: opening a lesson, introducing and explaining tasks, setting up learning, arrangements, checking students’ understanding, guiding student practice, transitioning between tasks, and ending the lesson.

In terms of the language teaching skills of recent graduates, data from the questionnaires indicated that most recent graduates felt that the EFLTEP at Jambi University provided them with the levels of pedagogical skills needed to be teachers. This is not unexpected and it fits with what was reported in a study conducted by Choy et al. (2013) in Singapore which revealed that the pedagogical knowledge and skill of new teachers usually increased during pre-service teacher education programs and in their initial teaching.
Interview participants in this study pointed out that pedagogical knowledge, in this case language teaching skills, are crucial to help them teach English. As mentioned by Gatbonton (1999), the language teaching skills encompass the ability to decide what language items should be taught, how to teach them to students, and how to assess student performance and progress during lessons.

In this sense, teaching skills are important for English teachers, as not everyone who can speak English can teach English to others (Richards, 2010). According to Gatbonton (2000), in relation to language teaching skills, a decision of what language items are to be taught should be made before teaching commences. In doing so, English teachers need subject knowledge about the nature of language and language use (Faez, 2011). Then, the question of how to teach English to students becomes about how to apply teaching skills, methods and approaches to ensure students’ learning happens in an appropriate way. Teaching skills here include the ability to assess students’ performance and progress and therefore language teachers also need to develop practical abilities in assessment (Richards (2010).

An awareness of how important pedagogical skills are in coping with some challenges in the classroom was evident in comments by recent graduates. For example, RG#3 said that when she came across a difficult situation in the classroom, such as handling students’ misbehaviour, she was confident to cope and in finding appropriate strategies to manage the misbehaviour. Not surprisingly, according to Wright (2011), the choices that teachers make in managing classroom second-language learning will influence the quality and learning experience of the students.

While the data showed that pre-service teachers perceived they had been prepared with pedagogical skills during their EFLTEP, several pedagogical skill courses needed to be improved in terms of contents and focus. Courses related to pedagogy will be better if they
give more attention to issues related to teaching English rather than teaching in general and if the lecturers in these courses are from English teaching backgrounds.

The need for change in content and focus of courses about pedagogical skills is also based on the conclusion that English proficiency needs to be improved at the same time as pedagogical skills. Having courses related to pedagogical skills delivered in English and focusing mainly on how to teach English to students will give student teachers greater exposure of English as well as its pedagogy.

7.3.3 Teaching Practicum

Teaching practicum is required for student teachers to have opportunity to practise what they have learnt in their course work program in schools. Almost by definition, it can be said that the teaching practicum is important in teacher education as it prepares student teachers for the real experience of working in schools as part of the journey to become professional teachers (White, 2009). Teaching practicum or field experience is that component of a program providing transition from being students to being teachers (Gao & Benson, 2012; Mtika, 2011). One of the challenges of any pre-service teacher education program, including EFLTEP at Jambi University, is to provide a balance of theory and practice in learning about the work of the profession. There can easily be a theory-practice division in traditional approaches to teacher education in which the university is seen as the location of the theory and the school being seen as the location of practice (Darling-Hammond, 2006). It is one of the crucial parts of teacher education that can help pre-service teachers meaningfully connect the in-field and on-campus components of their teacher education program. Teaching practicum helps pre-service teachers to link theoretical aspects of their knowledge base to its practical components. The following discussion highlights the
importance of quality in teaching practicum if it is to achieve desirable outcomes for graduates.

7.3.3.1 The Quality of Teaching Practicum

Given the importance of teaching practicum in a teacher education program, the concern about the quality of teaching practicum becomes crucial. According to Le Cornu and Ewing (2008) it is quality that is most important in practicum rather than its duration or the number of placement days. The quality of supervision, the roles of teacher educators and supervising teachers as well as the performance of student teachers themselves are the important elements that affect the quality of teaching practicum.

Data from surveys showed that recent EFL graduates perceived teaching practicum as very important and an essential step during the journey of being student teacher and this is in agreement with findings from other studies (Astika, 2014; Wickramasinghe, 2004; Dunn et al. 2000).

According to Astika (2014), student teachers learn how to improve their teaching skills, understand students’ characteristics, understand classroom management, respect students, peers, and teachers at schools, and understand students’ needs in learning, during their teaching practicum. In addition, Wickramasinghe (2004) stated that during teaching practicum, student teachers must have an opportunity to reflect on their understandings about teaching and find weaknesses in their pedagogical practice. Dunn’s et al. (2000) investigation of student teachers’ perceptions of field experience in Australia revealed that teaching practicum gives valuable experience in building a collegiate fabric and in actualizing the professional role. The participants of Dunn’s et al. (2000) study also viewed teaching practicum as a way to make contacts for their future career as beginning teachers.
According to Wallace (1991), microteaching and teaching practicum in teacher education are helpful for professional development of novice teachers. These two elements of teacher education provide opportunities for pre-service teachers to make theory and practice links between school and university (Hoban, 2006). Both micro-teaching study and practicum are aimed at preparing student teachers with a required experience of teaching practice so that they will be able to implement their knowledge base into the real world of schools.

However, student teachers do face handicaps during teaching practicum, particularly in dealing with teaching large classes of 40 or more students in one classroom. Teaching large classes is a big issue in teaching English as a foreign language for pre-service teachers during practicum (Shamim, 2012). As English instruction is only available in classrooms, there will be fewer opportunities for learners to practise their English in a classroom with fifty or more students in it. Teaching in a large class, as pointed out by Shamim et al. (2007), is common feature of teaching English in many developing countries, and Indonesia is no exception. A not dissimilar issue was reported by graduates when commenting about the limited opportunities to practise skills in their own teacher education courses, due to the large classes in their studies.

Micro-teaching in EFLTEP at Jambi University is a two-week project for preparing pre-service teachers before a school placement or teaching practicum. Data from document analysis revealed that in other English pre-service teacher programs in Indonesia, such as in Malang Muhammadiyah University and at Riau University, the English teacher education programs in these universities offer micro-teaching courses as a pre-requisite before pre-service teachers undertake their teaching practicum in schools.

Micro-teaching as a part of teaching was also considered inadequate in preparing student teachers with the skills they need to teach during the practicum. Comments by recent
graduates explain that micro-teaching as a pre-requisite project course before student teachers conduct teaching practicum was not effective because it did not focus on how to teach English to students. That is, it only prepared student teachers for coping with the general approaches to teaching.

In the future, the EFLTEP at Jambi University may need to consider putting micro-teaching into its curriculum as a single pre-requisite course before pre-service teachers undertake their teaching practicum. According to Wallace (1991), micro-teaching done well can allow pre-service teachers to have training in a modified teaching situation for the purpose of reducing the complexity of teaching tasks, the length of the lesson, and class size in a systematic way. Micro-teaching at Jambi University should be redesigned to address the practical teaching needs of pre-service teachers such as in classroom management skills and lesson delivery skills.

The following section looks at the duration of teaching practicum to discuss what graduates and beginner teachers perceived about the amount of time allocated for their school experience and offers a solution for this and related issues.

7.3.3.2 Duration of Teaching Practicum

Regarding the duration of teaching practicum, four out of five EFLTEP Graduates participating in interviews called for a teaching practicum extension to give them enough opportunity to work with children and other teachers in schools. According to Elligate (2007), the significance of an extended practicum model may be warranted simply by the increased amount of time available for student teachers to spend in schools. This extended time model of practicum would encourage the university and its partner schools to work collaboratively to increase their connectedness.
However, a dissenting view from one recent graduate described a six-month teaching practicum as enough time to put teaching theories into practice. Not surprisingly, the issue of adequate time for pre-service teachers to spend in schools remains arguable since there are others factors that may easily influence the quality of experience that student teachers have in the teaching practicum.

To be accurate, there is no consensus among teacher education programs about how much practicum there should be and there is a range of requirements regarding the amount of practicum that a student teacher should have during their candidature. There are suggestions from some teacher education program providers that the length of practicum should be increased, while others indicated that the quality of teaching practicum is more important than number of days (DEST, 2006). According to Le Cornu (2008), mandating the number of the days for teaching practicum is not an issue, it is quality that is more important in teacher preparation for practicum.

Regardless of the amount of time student teachers may need in their teaching practicum, Le Cornu and White (2000) stated that the quality of teaching practice in terms of teaching reflection on teaching and the linking of field experiences to theoretical practice needs an adequate amount of time. While for some, there is connection between the duration of the teaching practicum undertaken and its quality, this cannot be assumed to be a view held by all.

Moreover, there is an expressed concern in relation to the extension of teaching practice experience (in terms of length of the time) to improve the quality of teaching practicum and teacher education program in general. In Australia, for instance, teacher education programs are now including practicum for their student teachers in early years of
their program as well as continuing and completing a major practicum during their third term of their fourth year (PVETC, 2005).

From the findings and the literature review reported here, there is a need to start teaching practicum at Jambi University in the early years of the program. This will not only provide student teachers with more time for observation and actual teaching, but it will also give greater breadth and depth of experience in preparing for entry into the teaching profession.

7.3.3.3 The Roles of Supervising Teachers and Teacher Educators

One of the factors affecting the quality of teaching practicum is the relationship between pre-service teachers, teacher educators and supervising (mentor) teachers (Le Cornu & Ewing, 2008). If mentor teachers and teacher educators enact their roles well and with diligence in assisting pre-service teachers effectively, a six-month teaching practicum may in fact be an adequate time. Battersby and Ramsey (1990) have pointed out that a supervising teacher is the key partner in helping pre-service teachers in the development and management of classroom and curriculum techniques. The following section is a discussion of supervising teachers’ and teacher educators’ roles in assisting student teachers during their school experience.

Data from interviews with recent graduates showed that they experienced insufficient guidance from teacher educators and their mentor teachers. However, despite this observation, it was recognized that the presence of mentor teachers can be helpful to pre-service teachers having problems in practising teaching in the classroom. These findings support those from previous studies such as those by Coscun and Daloglu (2010), Mtika (2011), and Riesky (2013).
In their study, Coscun and Daloglu (2010) found that student teachers often experienced inadequate support from the mentors at schools. Mtika (2011) also pointed out that there was often an absence in support from mentor teachers when student teachers encountered a difficult teaching situation. A study conducted by Riesky (2013) in an Indonesian context revealed that while student teachers were given a lot of teaching hours during teaching practicum they reported a lack of guidance from supervising teachers and teacher educators.

The data also showed that pre-service teachers need and desire feedback from both teacher educators and supervising teachers in order to know their weaknesses with teaching practice performance. Visits and assistance from teacher educators and supervising teachers are seen as essential to help pre-service teachers have a suitable experience in teaching English to students. As pointed out by Goodlad (1993), teaching practicum supervision provides pre-service teachers with support in developing their teaching skill and professional competencies through discussion, feedback, and a support program. In addition to that, according to Le Cornu (2012), the quality of teaching practicum depends on the willingness of supervising teachers to share their classrooms, spend more time with student teachers and provide authentic feedback.

According to Allsopp et al. (2006) it is recommended that university supervisors or teacher educators are to be at schools for at least one to one and half days per week. In addition to that, supervising teachers have responsibilities to assist in the growth and development of teacher candidates by modelling effective instruction, by providing opportunities for practice, and by evaluating teacher candidate performance across multiple domains.
The interaction among student teachers, teacher educators, and supervising teachers is very important for professional development of student teachers while they are on teaching practicum placement (Mtika, 2011). According to Mtika (2011), supervising teachers will induct student teachers into the broader perspective of the teaching profession and harness a sense of belonging among student teachers where the formal structures of professional relationships exist. Mtika further stated that cooperating teachers or supervising teachers who work directly with teacher educators from teacher education institutions and student teachers can build better relationships based on mutual respect and understanding for each others’ expertise, needs, and perspectives.

According to the Teaching Practicum Booklet of Jambi University (2009) teacher educators are required to visit pre-service teachers at least three times during the teaching practicum in schools. Their visits are intended to observe pre-service teacher teaching performance and give feedback on that performance. One visit is dedicated to giving a final assessment of pre-service teacher performance on their assessment day. The assessment of pre-service teacher performance is conducted by both the teacher educator and supervising teacher who together decide whether the pre-service teacher will pass (or not) the teaching practicum.

In addition, supervising teachers are to help pre-service teachers and give assistance if they meet problems during teaching practice. Supervising teachers also guide pre-service teachers to do teacher ‘jobs’ such as designing lesson plans, teaching, and assessing student performance. The responsibilities of teacher educators and supervising teachers that are described in the teaching practicum booklet align closely with White’s (2009) view that the lecturing staff are expected to visit student teachers doing teaching practicum in schools to observe their teaching, look over their documentation, and give the students feedback on
white (2009) has strongly stated that this lecturer availability is a support that student teachers need during their teaching practice experience.

Despite the clearly recognised importance of the role of teacher educators and mentor teachers in helping student teachers to develop their teaching skills during teaching practicum, research found that the frequency of visits by teacher educators from teacher education institutions was inadequate (Ssentamu-Namubiru, 2010). Limited teacher educator visits and assistance from supervising teachers can affect the quality of the teaching practicum. In order to build effective supervision, mentor teachers and teacher educators need to create strong professional relationships based on a solid understanding of each others’ expertise. In addition, a mutual organisational and policy partnership between university and schools is important to create well-defined roles among parties involved in teaching practicum.

For Jambi University to improve the quality of practicum supervision both teacher educators and mentor teachers need training in supervision practices and quality standards for supporting student teachers during their school teaching experience. Given that the quality of supervising and mentoring is important, only those who have passed the training should supervise student teachers during their teaching practicum.

7.4 Beginner Teacher Perceptions about Language Proficiency, Pedagogy, and the Implementation of Teaching Practicum

As discussed in Chapter Five and Chapter Six, data gathered from surveys, the document analysis, and the interviews with beginner teachers and teacher educators are elaborated and integrated in this part. What beginner teachers perceived about their English language proficiency, their language teaching skills, and the kinds of experiences they had as
pre-service teachers during teaching practicum is elaborated upon with reference to related literature.

7.4.1 English Language Proficiency

Data from surveys showed that beginner teachers perceived their EFL teacher education program as preparing them with a good level of English proficiency—enough for them to teach. This view on preparedness was confirmed by recent graduates. Related to this, the participants in this study pointed out that knowledge on subject matter is helpful to build self-confidence with what is taught to the students.

It is well recognised that student teachers’ English language proficiency and subject matter knowledge, or disciplinary knowledge, are the most important dimensions of English teacher knowledge and skills (Richards, 2010; Faez, 2011; Bardhun and Johnson, 2009). These knowledge dimensions need to be mostly in place prior to entering the teaching practicum in schools. Without these, confidence in their teaching ability is likely to be low or absent altogether.

Data from the interviews revealed that grammar and listening courses are considered the most difficult to learn. In particular, as grammar courses encompass lessons about the rules of English language, this is found to be significantly more complicated when compared to Bahasa Indonesia (the Lingua Franca for Indonesians). Besides that, the delivery of grammar courses are often uninteresting and filled with monotonous routines where pre-service teachers are required to complete many tasks and drills in how to make good sentences in English, to choose the correct form of part of speech and, so on.

One survey participant made comment that the grammar course was an especially difficult subject that needed to be improved in the way it was delivered to pre-service
teachers because of the complexity of language rules and patterns that create difficulties in the learning. Poor delivery only amplifies the difficulty of learning grammar in an EFL setting.

This observation was in agreement with the findings from an evaluative study of an English language teacher education program in Turkey conducted by Coskun and Daloglu (2010). They pointed out that student teachers complained about the way courses are conducted when there is a lot of memorization involved and that ineffective lecturing is common in the delivery of these courses. One of the beginner teacher participants (BT#5) mentioned that the grammar courses were taught through a process of drilling in which student teachers were, for example, to construct correct sentences based on the appropriate tenses. In this approach, the rules of grammar have to be memorized in order to be able to perform the tasks. An approach of this kind is not perceived as suitable and teacher educators should understand that. Teacher educators should use more modern teaching techniques. Student teacher engagement in the process of learning is the priority to better provide optimum learning of the knowledge and skills needed.

According to Cullen (2011) there are three processes involved in learning grammar. These three processes were derived from research studies into second language acquisition. First, learners need to be able to notice features of grammar in natural, realistic contexts of use. Second, learners need opportunities to form hypotheses about how grammar works. And last, learners need opportunities to practise using grammar in meaningful contexts. Therefore, it becomes the main job of grammar teachers to make sure that these processes are embedded in their teaching so that students learn grammar in natural and effective ways that are interesting and not dominated by monotonous routines. Data from this study indicated that there was a problem in teaching grammar at Jambi University. Unqualified teacher educators teaching grammar can lead to boredom and an unsuccessful outcome for grammar in the
program. Therefore, teacher educators should be qualified and have adequate experience with teaching grammar in the natural and contextual way suggested by Cullen (2011). The involvement of policy makers in mandating selection and employment requirements for qualified teaching staff with appropriate expertise is needed.

In terms of listening, the other course that causes the most difficulty, there are two factors that might cause beginner teachers to feel that they were not adequately equipped (as discussed in an earlier section of this chapter). Firstly, teacher educators’ ways of delivering listening subjects are perceived by both recent graduates and beginner teachers as being ineffective. According to Field (2011) the teaching of listening skills should move away from depending too much on task types where the learners are passive listeners. Newer style pedagogies can prepare the learner adequately for a type of interactive listening that is likely to occur in the real life of English language learners and users. Again, the data from this study indicated that unqualified teacher educators in such courses led to an unsuccessful story in effectiveness of listening course delivered to student teachers. The policy makers need to carefully mandate requirements for those who will teach listening courses.

Secondly, the absence of quality resources in listening courses is a significant obstacle for learners in developing listening skills that are transferable beyond the classroom. Also, they need access to facilities and opportunities to improve their listening skills independently, outside of the classroom. Nowadays with the rapid development of technology, as Field (2011) suggests, listening lessons will change from a whole class format listening lesson to greater reliance upon self-study. The use of computers and smartphones in learning, especially for improving listening skills in more independent ways is seen as an alternative to cope with inadequate facilities and fewer resources for listening courses conducted in classrooms (Amumpuni, 2014; Munfangati, 2014). Making use of learning applications available in Android and iOS mobile phones, enables student teachers to practise listening
skills autonomously. For example, Munfangati (2014) in her study about student teachers’
listening needs at one Indonesian university suggested that the potential growth of technology
in education should be used to encourage student teachers to make use of their mobile
devices to access learning resources and increase the efficiency of language learning. The
findings of this study indicated that inadequate level of resources at Jambi University was a
handicap for student teachers to learn and practise their listening skills. The existence of
modern technology has not, thus far, been widely used in learning facilities in Jambi
University.

Data from interviews showed that beginner teachers are aware of the importance of
language proficiency and language knowledge to build confidence for teaching English.
However, there are several English skill related courses that need to be improved to better
equip them with adequate subject matter content knowledge. Writing skills, listening skills,
and grammar courses are three of the English skill courses that need to be improved. The
findings from beginner teachers’ interviews match the recent graduates’ perceptions on
language proficiency and language dimensions in this regard (as discussed in a previous
section of this chapter).

7.4.2 Language Teaching Skills

In terms of pedagogical skills, data from the survey indicated that 50% of beginner
teachers perceived that they had been prepared with a good level of teaching skills while
some (27%) felt that their pedagogical skills were very good. Again, in the area of language
teaching skills, most beginner teachers felt well prepared.

Similarly, the findings from the beginner teacher survey showed a similar pattern to that
of recent graduates. Beginner teachers perceived the pedagogically-related courses as
important in preparing them to be EFL teachers. It was mentioned 13 times by beginner teachers, making it the most frequently mentioned feature.

Data from recent graduate interviews also showed a similar need for graduates. A beginner teacher implied she needed more practise with pedagogical skills rather than more theory. The data from the interviews revealed that there was also a need to have more subjects about pedagogical skills. For example, one beginner teacher commented the need to learn and practice strategies for dealing with the difficulties in attracting students’ attention and motivating students in doing challenging EFL learning activities.

According to Ushioda (2012) motivation is a key practical concern for language teachers with regard to these issues on how to motivate students, or how to deal with boredom, or in responding to other difficult situations such as exams, low grades, and uninteresting learning materials. Thus, learning directed towards the development of an ability to motivate English learners both inside and outside classroom is urgently needed if there are to be more supportive teaching and learning activities in EFL classrooms.

Furthermore, evidence drawn from interviews reveals that beginner teachers found maintaining students’ interest, motivating students, managing the classroom and engaging students in their learning were among the most difficult tasks for EFL teachers. A relevant study in an Indonesian context also confirmed that students realized that English as a global language would be valuable for their future life and therefore this puts emphasis on the EFL teacher’s role to find interesting ways to motivate students to learn English (Yulia, 2013).

Another key issue that arose is that the pedagogical skills delivered in the EFLTEP mostly focus (only) on teaching students in junior and senior high school students. Despite the fact that student teachers are prepared and equipped to teach at the higher level—junior and senior high school—graduates of the EFLTEP at Jambi University are also likely to teach
in primary schools. A study conducted by Zein (2012) suggested that, in meeting the
demands for primary school English teaching in Indonesia, language teacher education
programs need to ensure the availability of quality teacher educators with expertise in
teaching English to young learners and establish some concentration on English for young
learners in those programs.

As discussed earlier, there is clearly a need to prepare student teachers with
knowledge in teaching English for young learners in Indonesia (Wiyati, 2014). In her study
conducted in a West Java English teacher education program, Wiyati argued that English
teaching for young learners must be done by teachers who have the specialised knowledge
and skills for the job. Moreover, this problem is not unique to Indonesia, as Hoa and Tuan
(2007) have pointed out. In Vietnam too, in order to improve the quality of English language
teaching and learning at primary schools, specific curriculum guidelines on the requirements
and implementation of Primary English education are needed. Teaching at primary level can
be more challenging due to the theories of learning for young children being different from
that for older learners. Children tend to easily lose their interest in learning when classroom
and learning activities are not suitable for their stage of learning. Teaching English to young
learners is different from teaching English to adults as the teacher needs to use a variety of
activities such as games and songs so that the children are engaged and less likely to feel
bored (Bekleyen, 2011).

Data gathered from the surveys confirmed that the need for improved pedagogical
courses in EFLTEP at Jambi University is high. The survey from recent graduates and
beginner teachers revealed that beside the facilities and resources of EFLTEP, pedagogical
skill related courses are the second most frequently mentioned aspect to be improved. A
number of other studies are in agreement with the survey data as they also show that student
teachers need more language teaching skills to equip them with an adequate knowledge of
teaching (Wiyati, 2014; Sunggingwati, 2014; Luciana, 2006; Coscun & Daloglu, 2010). Of particular note is Coscun and Daloglu’s (2010) study that reported student teachers wanting more pedagogical courses and teaching practice opportunities related to the skills learnt in those courses. According to Soepriyatna (2012), even those student teachers who had adequate content knowledge, still need the ability to transfer it using effective teaching techniques. These teaching techniques are linked to pedagogical content knowledge, that is, knowing the subject matter knowledge and how to deliver it.

When the participants of the survey were asked how to improve the teaching of pedagogical skills, several responses suggested that focusing more on practice than theory is the best way to improve the quality in pedagogy courses. Another suggestion was more exposure to pedagogical skills during training and a curriculum that responds to this need. In addition, teacher preparation that is deliberately designed for multiple levels of school (primary, junior high, and senior high school) is a necessity because student teachers do not know to what level they will be teaching in the future.

To sum up, several of the pedagogical skill courses need to be improved in terms of their content and focus. Courses related to pedagogy will be more effective if they give more attention to issues related to teaching English rather than teaching in general and if the lecturers of these courses are from English teaching backgrounds. This is the most direct way to ensure the focus will be more on practical aspects rather than theories of teaching.

Furthermore, since the graduates of EFLTEP at Jambi University are also prepared for teaching at primary school level, the program needs to offer courses that provide pre-service teachers with knowledge (both theoretical and practical) of how to teach English to young learners. Based on document analysis of the EFLTEP curriculum, a course in teaching English for young learners has recently been offered as an optional course. It is evident that
the program must also prepare student teachers to teach in primary schools and so courses related to TEYL as compulsory courses is essential to provide student teachers with knowledge of teaching young learners. This would significantly improve the EFLTEP at Jambi University.

7.4.3 Teaching Practicum

According to Freiberg (2002) many new teachers enter teaching with low levels of experience in how to teach and create effective learning environments. So, the quality of teaching practicum for teachers in teacher education programs needs to be more, and must be, helpful in preparing them to be ready for, or feel confident to begin, the journey of teaching. The role of teacher education, in this case, is to provide student teachers with a knowledge base useful for entering the schools where they will work with students (Freiberg, 2002).

Data from survey and interviews (with beginner teachers) both indicated that EFLTEP has provided its student teachers with adequate teaching practicum experience. However, there are some handicaps and weaknesses that derive from the implementation of the teaching practicum. Since the student teachers’ teaching practicum is one of the most important and challenging aspects of teacher education program in terms of providing practical experience for prospective teachers (Ramsey, 2000), the following discussion provides worthwhile information for the improvement of teaching practicum carried out by Jambi University. The discussion analyses the quality of teaching practicum, the length of teaching practicum, and the roles of teacher educators as well as supervising teachers’ guidance of student teachers during teaching practicum.

7.4.3.1 The Quality of Teaching Practicum

Data from surveys indicated that beginner teacher perceptions of the teaching practicum provided by EFLTEP at Jambi University were at good (50%) and very good
(37%) levels. However, in relation to aspects that need to be improved in the EFLTEP, teaching practicum was the second most frequently mentioned aspect by beginner teachers.

It is interesting to note that teaching practicum provided by Jambi University was perceived to be of a good level by student teachers, but at the same time the questionnaire data from open-ended questions indicated that teaching practicum was frequently mentioned by beginner teachers as in need of improvement. One possible explanation is that student teachers are aware that teaching practicum has helped them in their teaching but at the same time could provide even a stronger basis for them to develop and expand their professional identity (Groundwater-Smith, 2002).

That is to say, teaching practicum is the medium where student teachers are to enrich and develop a numbers of teaching skills and professional competencies. Teaching practicum is integral to student teachers’ professional growth shaping their beliefs and thinking about teaching (Mtika, 2011). The more and better it does that, the better they feel prepared.

Data from interviews shows that beginner teachers perceived teaching practicum as helpful in enabling them to implement what they learnt in the program into school teaching practice. For example, one beginner teacher (BT#1) felt that during teaching practicum, she was able to bring theories into practical action in the classroom. She realized that teaching practicum was an opportunity for her to practise teaching skills learnt theoretically in the program.

Moreover, a beginner teacher learnt new things in relation to teaching preparation. The interesting perception of BT#2’s is that what student teachers learned in the program was often not up to date with what they found in school practice. The latest versions of teaching tools, such as newer pedagogies and technological advances, seem to be readily available in schools while the universities appear to be left behind in this case. In order to cope with this
gap, teacher education needs to update information and provide new developments in education so that student teachers and teacher educators have current with teaching and learning materials. For example, the use of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) in both teacher education programs and schools in Indonesia has become increasingly important (Machmud, 2014). ICT in EFL teacher education curriculum is important, as it is a key tool in the process of language teaching and other learning processes nowadays.

While teacher educators provide their student teachers with content, facts, or theories in the courses they teach, in the current digital era students can access that information from Google, Blogs, YouTube, Facebook via smartphones (Machmud, 2014). So, student teachers need to be encouraged to use their mobile devices to improve their learning both inside and outside classrooms.

The role of teaching practicum as a medium to translate student teachers’ theoretical knowledge into practical action was another finding derived from the interview data. According to Putri (2014) teaching practicum is an opportunity for student teachers to fill the gap between theories they have learnt at the university and their teaching practice. In order to make use of the teaching practicum optimally, Putri suggested that teacher educators need to actively mentor student teachers in peer-teaching sessions before they undertake teaching practicum activities in schools.

In the same vein, Goh and Mathew (2011) recommended that in order to take the theoretical aspects learnt at the university into the practical world of the classroom, well-rehearsed, proven strategies are needed to assist student teachers to take tangible benefits from the practicum experience. They further recommended that teacher preparation courses need to be more in tune and applicable to actual school settings and environments. In doing so, a mutual partnership between schools and universities is needed. According to Patrick
(2013), universities need to include practices in their program that enable a collegial relationship between pre-service teachers and mentors to be set up before the beginning of pre-service teachers’ experience of the teaching practicum. Patrick (2013) gives the example that by providing pre-service teachers with an opportunity to meet with potential mentors and negotiate their mutual expectations and ways of working together, a useful collegial relationship will be more likely to be established. These are useful insights generally for the redesign of the EFLTEP at Jambi University and for the position of school university interactions, in particular, in improving the program’s performance and outcomes.

Building mutual partnerships between university and schools could be a highly effective way to share the same understanding and needs with both parties, moving on from traditional approaches in teaching practicum to more collaborative and developed partnerships (Le Cornu & Ewing, 2008; Le Cornu, 2012; Patrick, 2013). According to Luciana (2004) the links between teaching practicum, teacher education programs, and schools should be established on the basis of mutually beneficial collaboration. The program should be able to share theoretical insights while schools nurture the practical aspects of teaching. Sharing updated information in terms of newer teaching tools is more realistically possible through this mutual partnership between schools and the university.

Moreover, Legutke and Schocker-v.Ditfurth (2009) argued that schools are the settings for teachers’ professional lives, so in designing language teacher education programs, school experience should be a strong focus. They further argued that in order to facilitate teacher development, the need for collaboration between teacher education programs and schools is essential. Collaboration is viewed as the process that develops collegiality between teacher educators and schools where related teaching and learning needs are shared after discussing problems regarding teaching and learning activities.
This collaboration aims at preparing student teachers to develop their professional roles as teachers (Hasting & Squires, 2002; Le Cornu 2012; Patrick, 2013; Zeichner, 2010). In addition, Toomey et al. (2005) pointed out that the partnership between university and schools is built on a desire to share the balance of power in which the university partner places focus on more theoretical aspects of the preparation process while schools contributed the venue for experiencing practice.

In an effort to build effective relationships between student teachers and their mentor (supervising) teachers, teacher preparation programs need to design practicum so that it enables student teachers, before beginning their practicum, to meet their potential supervising teachers and negotiate their mutual expectations and ways of working together (Patrick, 2013). If this professional relationship can be established, the quality of professional experience or teaching practicum can be a mutual priority by teacher educators, student teachers, and supervising teachers (Le Cornu, 2012).

7.4.3.2 The Length of Teaching Practicum

At Jambi there is a need to extend teaching practicum, and this was indicated in data from interviews with both recent graduates and beginner teachers. Wickramasinghe (2004) and Yan and He (2010) too have argued that one semester of school placement was not considered adequate for student teachers to practise what they learnt at the University. The conclusion from findings in this study is that teaching practicum should occur in at least two schools at different levels – including primary and secondary classrooms.

It is a common feature of Indonesian teacher education programs that teaching practicum or school placements are offered in the last year of the program, of only one semester duration, with a total of four credit points (as was outlined in the literature review in Chapter Three). Riau University, Jambi University, and Indonesian University of Education
(known as UPI) are all teacher education institutions that offer teaching practicum only in the last year of the program.

Similar issues arose from the limited time for professional placement that is experienced by student teachers in language teacher education programs in Vietnam. Studies conducted by Pham (2001) and Le (2004) found that inadequate time allocated for the teaching practicum gave student teachers less opportunity to develop their understanding of the realities of teaching in schools. In addition, those two studies revealed that there was a missing link - a major separation - between training and the reality of the schools where student teachers would be employed and expected to work.

Interpretation of data gathered from recent graduates and from beginner teachers in this study indicates that Jambi University needs to include some teaching practicum in the early years of the ELFTEP to provide student teachers with early time and experience to become familiar with school environments and routines. In meeting this need, an early teaching practicum should ideally take place in the first year of the program, again in the middle, as well as the already scheduled placement in the final year. This would give student teachers more opportunity for building strong practical links between what they have most recently learnt in university and what they observe in school settings.

There is some connection between the duration of teaching practicum undertaken in schools and its quality, even though it may not always first appear to be the case. According to Nguyen (2013) student teachers in Vietnam did not have enough opportunity to develop their pedagogical reasoning skill and interactive decision-making on the job as a result of the smaller role played by professional placement, compared to other domains in the knowledge base for language teachers, throughout their four years of study. Given this insight, unsurprisingly both recent graduates and beginner teacher participants in this study indicated
that they needed more time to practise their teaching skills in school settings. During teaching practicum, the student teachers experienced teaching that was of a different kind to that they are exposed to in campus-based learning. They were encouraged to use methods and modes of teaching they learnt on campus, but also to blend them with their own ideas developed out of reflections about coping with what was really happening in the school setting. Limited hours of actual teaching, with only one practicum placement, does not suffice to prepare student teachers with refined skills in the way the literature would suggest.

In the case of the Jambi University EFLTEP, the need to extend the time allocation for teaching practicum as well as improving its quality warrants further discussion. In terms of duration of teaching practicum, Jambi University has shorter time than some other teacher education programs in Indonesia. Malang Muhammadiyah University, for example, has Teaching Practicum 1 & 2 courses, encompassing a micro-teaching course (TP1) and a teaching practice in school settings (TP2). Similarly, Riau University offers student teachers a micro-teaching course as prerequisite course before they undertake the teaching practicum in schools. Based on the responses from the participants in this study, and the literature on teacher education curriculum in Indonesia, the need for and expansion of teaching practicum extension is important in any redesign of the EFLTEP at Jambi University. An expansion, both in duration and location in the program, will provide greater opportunity to maximize the benefits of teaching practicum in shaping skill development and identity formation as part of the teaching profession.

With an expansion of the teaching practicum, an improvement of its quality is likely. According to Yan Fung (2005), teacher training institutions in the effort to equip their student teachers with adequate teaching experiences will usually aim for a substantial amount of time to be spent on teaching practicum. In most models, the student teachers will be first equipped with some theoretical understandings of teaching and learning and then practise their skills in
schools, reflecting on their teaching to position themselves against the required standards for the teaching competencies. Sufficient time in schools is needed to provide adequate opportunities to try out new teaching approaches and refines skills during placements. The notion of extending teaching practicum also serves as a way to get breadth in experience for the student teachers to cope with the reality of teaching in schools. Their pedagogical knowledge will increase as the time available to practise is also increased.

To sum up, both quality and quantity of teaching practicum in the EFLTEP at Jambi University are important components in ensuring that student teachers gain enough teaching experience in school contexts. Despite persistent debates about the issue of quantity versus quality of school experience, a quality teaching practicum does need an adequate amount of time. The quality component provides a worthy focus for redesigning teaching practicum courses in EFL teacher education programs. It is something that the EFLTEP at Jambi University must address as a matter of urgency.

7.4.3.3 The Roles of Mentor Teachers and Teacher Educators

In order to achieve a good quality teaching practicum, both teacher educators and supervising teachers have important roles to perform in making it possible. Based on the findings from this study, however, it appears that the teaching practicum has not been well implemented and the roles of teaching supervisors and teachers educators in enabling student teachers to have a successful practicum experience requires attention. Beginner teacher participants in this study indicated that gaining suitable supervision from teacher educators and mentor teachers was a hurdle that they faced during their teaching practicum. Few visits and lack of collaborative work between teacher educators and mentor teachers led to minimum assistance and support in coping with concerns such as classroom discipline and motivating students in both regular and challenging school settings.
According to Le Cornu (2012), quality in teaching practicum depends on the willingness of supervising teachers to share classrooms, spend time with student teachers, and provide authentic feedback. Besides that, a commitment from the school principals is also needed for supervising teachers to be encouraged and appropriately prepared and ready to support and accept student teachers. The contribution from teacher educators in supporting pre-service participants involved in a teaching practicum, by providing ongoing dialogue during the school visits and meetings, is also a key factor in the quality and success of teaching practicum. And lastly, an overall program commitment to the development of a learning community involving all the participants in a teaching practicum will enable teacher educators, supervising teachers, and student teachers to take benefit from their respective involvement. The program needs to prioritise a conception of practice that enables student teachers and their mentors to work together to negotiate mutual expectations in order to effectively achieve the aims of the practicum through the student teachers’ experience of it in the school (Patrick, 2013).

The low frequency of visits to schools is one of the EFLTEP program’s practicum weaknesses that should be taken into account when seeking to improve the quality of the program. One beginner teacher (BT#2) mentioned that she experienced little support from supervising teachers and teacher educators in terms of handling and dealing with difficulties such as student discipline, classroom management, and choice of suitable teaching strategies. These circumstances force student teachers to find a way to solve problems, often just-in-time without necessary reflection, by themselves. This finding fits with a study conducted by Ssentamu-Namubiru (2010) who also concluded that the frequency of visits from teacher education institutions was often inadequate and therefore a major impediment to quality.

Effective roles for teacher educators in facilitating student teachers have been clearly described by Allsopp et al. (2006). According to them, university supervisors or teacher
educators are ideally needed at school for at least one to one and half days per week. In addition to that, supervising teachers have to fully accept responsibilities to assist in the growth and development of teacher candidates by modelling effective instruction, by providing opportunities for practice, and by evaluating teacher candidate performance across the multiple domains of EFL expertise.

Regarding the roles of supervising teachers, the data from interviews showed that supervising teachers did not play their roles well in productively assisting student teachers to experience real teaching in the classroom and to gain understanding from professional dialogue about the challenges faced. One beginner teacher (BT#4) commented that when she encountered problems regarding classroom teaching, her supervising teacher was reluctant to discuss finding possible solutions for those problems and preferred to let her solve them by herself.

Several studies have proposed and sketched what can be described as ideal roles for supervising teachers in helping student teachers to enter their initial phase of their teaching career (Smith & Lev-Ari, 2005; Astika, 2014; Dunn et al. 2000). Smith and Lev-Ari (2005) pointed out that in the school context, the support from the mentors or supervising teachers was perceived to be the most valued support when undertaking teaching practicum. In an Indonesian context, Astika (2014) concluded that the supervising teachers in schools and the visiting teacher educators had a key role to play in the models of teaching developed during the teaching practicum. When this role was executed fully, the models of teaching learnt in teaching methodology courses at the university were expanded and refined in very significant ways.

In addition, a study conducted by Dunn et al. (2000) revealed that gaining confidence in the development of strategies to cope with the demands of teaching could be achieved by
student teachers if they were able to witness examples of effective practice implemented by their supervising teachers. In other words, when mentor (supervising) teachers acted as role models in classroom teaching activities - in how to plan and deliver a lesson as well as how to administer students’ assessment and to monitor progress in learning - growth in pre-service teachers’ skills and expertise was more likely to occur.

Conversely, where the roles of teacher educators and supervising teachers have been performed well, student teachers comment positively about their teaching practicum. The data from beginner teachers revealed that this occurred when teacher educators played their roles as expected during the teaching practicum. If the teacher educator visited the student teacher regularly, it was found to be helpful.

According to Sinclair (2006) the role of teaching supervisors is to give advice to student teachers on effective teaching practices, make theory-practice links, observe them teach and comment upon their work, and to evaluate and write reports about the student teachers’ practicum. Regarding the visit of teacher educators during teaching practicum, White (2009) argued that teacher educators’ visits to student teachers on practicum in schools is important for their success. White further pointed out that teacher educator availability is a real support for student teachers during their professional practice. Therefore, teacher educators need to spend more time in schools to assist student teachers and supervising teachers so that the teaching practicum objectives can be achieved. Student teachers, during their teaching practicum, need timely and strategic support in applying the skills of teaching and in their efforts to adapt to school environments, the challenges of which often test their resolve and leave them emotionally exhausted (Arnold, 2006).

Regular and focused interaction between student teachers and their mentor teachers is an important part of a quality teaching practicum. As Mtika (2011) pointed out, when this
occurs supervising teachers can expose trainee teachers to a broader perspective in the
teaching profession and harness a sense of belongingness among student teachers through the
formal structures of professional relationships. Mtika further stated that when supervising
teachers work directly with teacher educators from teacher education institutions (and student
teachers), they have the potential to lead the creation of strong professional relationships
based on mutual respect and an understanding of each other’s expertise, needs, and
perspectives.

The findings from this study indicated that both recent graduates and beginner teacher
participants need more supportive assistance than they currently receive from teacher
educators and mentor teachers if they are to maximise the benefits of the teaching and
learning experience of participating in the school setting. Finding ways to build partnerships
of this kind should be the focus of Jambi University in improving the quality of teaching
practicum when it reviews and or redesigns its EFLTEP.

7.5 Stakeholder Perceptions about University EFL Teacher Graduates as
Beginner Teachers

The data generated from interviews elaborates on what teacher educators and school
principals perceive about teacher graduates’ language proficiency and their language teaching
skills as beginner teachers. Data about the running of teaching practicum in terms of the
selection of school partners is also discussed in this section.

7.5.1 Language Proficiency and Language Teachings Skills of Beginner Teachers

Four out of five school principals who participated in the interviews agreed that the
beginner teachers from EFLTEP at Jambi University had adequate language knowledge and
proficiency. However, they commented that the pedagogical skills of new beginner teachers
could be improved. This observation about beginner teachers was supported by other studies conducted by Luciana (2006) and Abednia (2012) who suggested that while language teachers may have a good level of proficiency in the language they teach, they also need to be able to demonstrate skills to transfer this proficiency to their students.

Data from interviews with school principals revealed that limited experience is the most likely factor that causes beginner teachers to show a lack of strategies in coping with their tasks. EFL beginner teachers from Jambi University tended to agree, as they perceived their inadequate knowledge of pedagogy came mostly through lack of experience.

In contrast, teacher educators gave a view in the interviews that pre-service teachers who had completed an EFL teacher education program were equipped with adequate language knowledge, language proficiency, and language teaching skills. If later, it was found that they could not demonstrate these things in their teaching, there must be another important reason behind that. The interview data with teacher educators implied a belief that the core of knowledge base delivered to EFL student teachers equips and prepares them to be ready to teach English. However, in order to expand and build upon this initial knowledge base, assembled while being student teachers, there is a crucial need to provide them with an in-service program to keep them with updated after they enter teaching profession in the future.

Elaborating on this notion, it is clear that teachers do need to continue to develop professionally in response to ongoing change in the field of EFL teaching. As pointed out by Richards (2001), teachers need regular opportunities to update their professional knowledge and skills through typical activities such as attending conferences, undertaking workshops and in-service seminars, and establishing reading groups. In line with previous comments from teacher educators, one teacher educator (TE#1) pointed out that EFLTEP’s graduates
have been well prepared with the language knowledge and EFL teaching skills needed to teach English but she also believed that to be fully professional in teaching, graduates are to be encouraged to upgrade and update their knowledge through programs initiated by the Indonesian Government such as the Teacher Professional Development Program that is currently popular with teachers in Indonesia.

The need for teacher professional development is essential to the strengthening of the position of English as a foreign language in Indonesia. According to Irmawati (2014), in the context of EFL teachers, Teacher Professional Development (TPD) refers to that process in which the teachers can increase their English skills as well as knowledge of EFL content that they teach. A study investigating teacher professional development in South Kalimantan (Indonesia) conducted by Rahayu and Hizriani (2014) found that in terms of ongoing development, the English teachers involved in the study did several activities to enhance their professional expertise, such as: personal reflection and collaborative discussion with colleagues. There are other kinds of activities that teachers can employ to develop their teaching skills, such as peer observation, student feedback, and engagement with reading materials related to English teaching.

The findings from this study indicated that experiential learning of how to teach in school settings experienced as student teachers was not always optimum. It might cause a lack expertise in pedagogy areas with graduates and beginner teacher. Therefore, the EFLTEP at Jambi University could arrange in-house training for its graduates who are teaching in schools to renew and enhance their teaching skills to meet the demand of high expectations from the teaching profession in EFL contexts nowadays.
7.5.2 The Implementation of Teaching Practicum: The Selection of School Partners

Data from interviews showed that the selection of school partners participating in pre-service teachers teaching practicum did not involve the specific stakeholders likely to take part. For example, school principals were not involved in deciding which schools are going to participate in this project. Before student teachers come to the participating schools, the principals receive a letter from TPU and DoCE explaining they were selected to be partner school for the teaching practicum project.

The process of school partner selection, which does not involve school authorities, can result in the choice of supervising teachers to work with student teachers that is not based on a thorough assessment of those supervising teachers’ professional readiness. Ensuring professional supervision from mentor teachers in teaching practicum is important to ensure that student teachers have a quality experience needed to link the theory and practice of teaching in a comprehensive process. It seems that the ways school principals select supervising teachers are questionable (in terms of quality). In a traditional approach of teaching practicum, Darling-Hammond (2006) pointed out that cooperating teachers or supervising teachers were selected with no regard for the quality or kind of practice they themselves engaged in. The choice was often on the basis of seniority and favouritism. Sometimes it is only because it is their turn to have an assistant to help them in the classroom.

In an interview, one school principal (SP#3) revealed that if a teaching practicum were to be held in his school, only then would he look to find senior teachers to be supervising teachers who will help student teachers during their teaching practice. This late, ad-hoc approach does not fit the quality parameters that the literature suggests is required.

Darling-Hammond (2006) further stated that the supervising teachers who work with teacher educators should be selected as mentors not only because they can offer classrooms
for student teachers, but because of their deep expertise and a strong willingness to share systematically with an entering colleague. By using this form of selection of mentors, it is hoped that student teachers would be able to learn how to teach more effectively.

An interview with another school principal (SP#2) suggested that the selection of school placement is based on the ease of access that the program can have. It was also mentioned that the quality of participation by school partners is one of the important aspects that TPU (Teaching Practicum Unit) and DoCE (Department of Culture and Education) need to take into consideration. There is an urgent need to build mutual relationships between schools and teacher education institutions so that the selection of participating schools in teaching practicum projects is not simply decided by the higher authority alone, in this case the Head of the DoCE.

The relationships or partnerships are best based on a common interest and commitment to improved teaching practice by the school and the university. As noted by Allsopp et al. (2006), the university is usually interested in bridging the gap between theory and practice, and the school is usually interested in gaining a critical mass of future teachers and developing a reciprocal relationship from which both can benefit.

In addition to that, the document analysis indicated that the selection of schools was made by the Head of DoCE appointing schools under his authority as proposed by TPU (Teaching Practicum Booklet, 2009). Schools themselves are not involved in the decision making process. This kind of decision positions schools as passive parties and it has often created problems for schools to prepare well to be part of the teaching practicum. In a partnership, there should be interactions between university and DoCE as well as schools in terms of defining and managing their respective roles.
Decisions in which schools are relegated as a passive party have often created problems for schools in the teaching practicum. Toomey et al. (2005) have called this arrangement an instrumental partnership. In this kind of partnership, there are few interactions between university and the DoCE as well as schools in terms of roles, which in turn builds ‘a power over’ attitude with some partners (Ramsey, 2000) that mitigates against the mutually respectful and supportive relationship that has been argued here as necessary.

It is clearly stated in the teaching practicum prospectus that the Head of DoCE has responsibility to select schools and to ensure that principals and supervising teachers from participating schools will facilitate the practicum so that student teachers gain adequate teaching opportunities and an experience of school life (Teaching Practicum Prospectus, 2009). This rigid hierarchal decision of selecting school partners might impede the success of teaching practicum. The practicum, according to Ramsey (2000), needs to be seen as collaboration between teacher educators and supervising teachers to support and supervise student teachers. The way a university works with schools in mutual partnerships is truly a significant influence on the success of a practicum project.

The data from this study and that from a number of studies in the field of school and university partnerships (Loughran, 2000; Ramsey, 2000; Toomey et al. 2005) showed that in the process of school selection, teacher education programs need to fully involve schools in setting up the teaching practicum from the beginning of the placement. The schools should be involved in planning, developing, implementing, and evaluating the teaching practicum. In addition, the partnership needs to be established in the form of an agreed mutual relationship that offers benefits to both parties.

An effective mutually beneficial partnership is one that enables mentor teachers, student teachers, and teacher educators to work collaboratively and to articulate their roles in
supporting each other. By having this collaboration, student teachers will have opportunities
to actualize their knowledge and skills into the real practice of teaching in classrooms.
Mentors get to interact with new ideas and to pass on experience. Teacher educators get
access to classrooms and to professional conversations with practitioners.

7.6 An Issue about Resourcing in the EFLTEP at Jambi University

Resourcing is a crucial element for the improvement in the quality of the English
teacher education program at Jambi University. Resourcing in this study refers to facilities
that are discussed in this section of the chapter. The discussion on the use of library, the
optimization of existing facilities such as the Self Access Center - set up by the EFLTEP at
Jambi to enable the learning of English skills outside the classroom in more independent and
autonomous ways - and the use of classrooms for teaching and learning are explored.

According to a report from USAID/Indonesia (2009), teacher education programs in
Indonesian Universities have inadequate and out-dated facilities. University facilities for
teaching practice such as micro-teaching and language laboratories were not suitable for
current needs. In addition, there were also either inadequate or no library facilities. This
report’s conclusions are in line with data gathered from the recent graduate and beginner
teacher surveys in which both recent graduates and beginner teachers nominated facilities as
one of the most urgent aspects of the EFLTEP at Jambi University in need of improvement
(in quantity and quality).

Data from interviews with recent graduates and beginner teachers supports the view
that pre-service teachers need adequate facilities to support their learning as student teachers.
Needs such as, the availability of reference books in the library and access to journals related
to teaching are stressed. Beside the limitation to availability of printed materials in the
library, interview data also suggests that that the use of ICT for learning is not adequate.
In the modern world, the integrated use of ICT in teaching and learning is essential. According to Loveless (2012), ICT can be used to shape “the relationships between what we teach, how we teach, and why it matters in our communities, societies and times” (p.311). The use of ICT helps teachers to deliver lessons in more interactive and innovative ways so that the goals of learning can be achieved optimally. The importance of using technology to improve the quality of teaching and learning in an Indonesian context has been raised by a number of scholars such as Rahmasari (2014); Heriawati (2014); Badaruddin et al. (2014), and Machmud (2014). However, the availability and viability of ICT facilities are not up to the required standard and this creates significant barriers for both teacher educators and student teachers.

The lack in learning resources for student teachers is only one resource factor that might affect the quality of the EFLTEP outcomes. Another factor is the less than optimum use of existing facilities such as the Self-Access Center that currently needs to be refocused and reorganized. Student teachers need supportive facilities to improve their language skills outside the classroom. So, the access to a facility that can effectively support individual learning is very important. The interview data from this study showed that both beginner teachers and recent graduates were needing access to learning resources so they can learn to improve their English speaking and listening skills independently outside the classroom. The University used to run a speaking club activity organized by SAC staff. But, it does not occur now due to reduced staff availability and budget constraints. The speaking club activity was considered very helpful to pre-service teachers at the beginning of the program.

Learning aids in the classroom also need to be improved and expanded. It was revealed in interviews that teacher educators did not use learning aids optimally. For example, a language classroom had only had one overhead projector (OHP) and one whiteboard that were already old and out-dated in condition. In the language classroom, EFL
learners need to engage with a diverse range of technologies to help in learning a second or foreign language. It requires too much of language teachers to successfully make use of out-dated resources in order to make teaching effectively (Levy, 2011).

Therefore, there is a need to improve the facilities of the EFLTEP at Jambi University so that both teacher educators and student teachers have access and opportunities to improve their EFL skills and knowledge. Improvement to ICT facilities, libraries, laboratories, and classrooms are a recommendation from the findings in this study as well as by USAID/Indonesia (2009).

7.7 Summary

This chapter addressed important issues gathered from questionnaires, interviews, and document analysis. The first part addressed the first research question: the aims and the contents of English as a Foreign Language Teacher Education Program Curriculum. This part discussed the EFLTEP curriculum encompassing the need for refocusing course content, the need to revise the overlapping courses, and the issues derived from teaching large classes.

The second part focused on recent graduates’ perceptions on their preparation experience as English language teachers. This part discussed what knowledge teachers need to know and what they need to be able to do. English language proficiency and language teaching skill as well as the teaching practicum experience provided by EFL teacher education program were elaborated on with recent graduates’ perspectives.

The third part focused on how well beginner teachers are equipped with language capacity and pedagogy. English language proficiency and teaching skill as well as the teaching practicum experience provided by EFL teacher education program were elaborated upon by using beginner teachers’ perspectives.
The fourth part of the chapter focused on teacher educator and school principals’
perceptions on EFLTEP graduates as EFL beginner teachers in relation to their language
proficiency and EFL teaching skills. The selection of partner schools that participate in the
pre-service teaching practicum was also discussed with reference to school principals’
perspectives.

The last part of this chapter discussed issues on resourcing of the EFLTEP at Jambi
University and how they contribute to the success or otherwise of pre-service teacher learning
in this EFL teacher education program. Analysis of the findings from this study has resulted
in an understanding of what is needed to improve the quality of the EFLTEP at Jambi
University. This study has also generated a number of implications for the development of
effective EFL programs in Indonesia. The implications of this study and its findings are
presented in the following chapter.
Chapter 8: Conclusion and Recommendations

8.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented a discussion of findings from this study of an English as a Foreign Language Teacher Education Program at Jambi University. At this point, all of the study data has been presented, analyzed and discussed, and the four research questions have been addressed. This chapter will firstly summarize the results and findings reported in the previous chapters in relation to English Teacher Education Curriculum in Indonesia, language knowledge and language teaching skills of new teachers, the implementation of student teachers’ teaching practicum, and resourcing and policy for teacher education programs. Then the chapter will highlight the strengths of this study, explain its limitations, and present implications and recommendations that can be derived from the findings.

Accordingly, this chapter contains the following sections: the study overview, strengths of the study, limitations of the study, implications for policy and practice, recommendations for theory and further research, and a final conclusion to the study.

8.2 The Study Overview

This thesis has explored EFL teacher and other stakeholder participant views on the English as a Foreign Language Teacher Education Program at Jambi University. The research study was an investigation of an English teacher education program at a state-owned University in Indonesia. It aimed to explore how graduates of this program perceive their English language ability, pedagogy, and teaching practice experience through the formal learning they received as pre-service teachers.
The adopted research design was a sequential explanatory mixed method approach with the major emphasis on the qualitative phase. The study consisted of an initial quantitative phase that collected data through questionnaires, followed by a significant qualitative phase that included interviews and document analysis. The participants in the questionnaire phase were 48 recent graduates and 30 beginner teachers. In the qualitative phase, five recent graduates, five beginner teachers, five teacher educators, and five school principals participated in the interviews.

The data analysis of questionnaire responses revealed that both recent graduates and beginner teachers felt their EFL teacher education program had prepared them with adequate language proficiency and language knowledge as well as the teaching skills to be ready to teach. In terms of the implementation of teaching practicum, it indicated that graduates and beginner teachers perceived this practical experience provided by the program to be mostly beneficial and effective.

The analysis of the qualitative data revealed that there are a number of features of the program that needed improvements if student teachers were to be prepared ready to teach. Data from interviews also revealed that courses related to knowledge and general pedagogical skills needed improvements in finding a more appropriate balance between theory and practice. Another issue raised was the perceived limited time allocated to pedagogical skill related courses. Data from interviews showed there was a perceived overlap in course material that led to boredom for pre-service teachers due to repetitiveness in topics taught and learnt across different courses.

In terms of language proficiency, language knowledge, and language teaching skills for recent graduates and beginner teachers, data from interviews with teacher educators suggested that there is significant change required in the design of the program if it is to
improve the acquisition of writing and listening skills by pre-service EFL teachers. Moreover, grammar and listening courses were considered the most difficult to learn. Therefore, writing, listening, and grammar are three English skill related courses that were identified as those most in need of review and improvement.

In relation to pedagogical skills, interview data suggested that there is a need for more opportunity to practise teaching in those courses related to pedagogical skills. Pre-service teachers feel that these kinds of subjects are focused too much on theoretical aspects compared to learning that is practical in nature. Several of these pedagogical skills courses need to be improved in their content and focus. Courses related to pedagogy are likely to be more effective if attention is given to issues related to teaching English rather than teaching in general. One way to address this would be to mandate that the lecturers delivering these courses come from EFL teaching backgrounds.

Currently, the pedagogical skills included in the EFLTEP focus on teaching students in junior and senior high school students rather than those at primary school level. Given current education policy and directions in Indonesia, it is essential that student teachers are prepared and equipped to teach not only in junior and senior high schools but also graduate with the capacity to teach in primary school as well.

Regarding the experience of teaching during practicum, recent graduates reported challenges, particularly in dealing with the complexities in teaching large classes. At this time, micro-teaching courses in the program are not adequate in preparing student teachers with the basic skills they need to teach well in the practicum schools. Recent graduates explained that the current micro-teaching pre-requisite project undertaken by student teachers before the teaching practicum was not an effective approach because it did not focus enough
on how to teach English to students. It only prepared student teachers with general issues of teaching and this was not sufficient for EFL teaching.

The duration of teaching practicum requires extension to give adequate opportunity to work with children and other teachers in schools. Time extension in this case is a key factor in ensuring that student teachers have more quality opportunities to experience school life and practise teaching. Thus, both quality and available time are complementary factors for student teachers in their experience of useful teaching practice in schools. There is a need to extend practicum from a one-semester school placement. This is simply not adequate for pre-service teachers to practise what they have learnt at the University. Also the teaching practicum should take place in at least two schools at primary and secondary levels. Micro-teaching preparation before practicum placement is not currently able to prepare student teachers with the skills needed to teach as a pre-service teacher in schools.

Beginner teachers reported learning new things in their university courses, but what was learnt was often not up to date with what they needed for, or found in, school practice. The latest versions of teaching tools and technologies found in the schools showed that the universities seem to be left behind in this area. Recent graduates reported both positive and negative experiences with the support received from mentor teachers and university supervisors. As evidenced in the data and in other similar studies, it is clear that further development of mentors and supervisors in executing their roles and responsibilities would be beneficial to all concerned. Also, structuring and rethinking the function of school-university partnership in the management of practicum is an important way in which this professional learning for supervisors can take place. Through cooperation and collaboration in this way, shared understandings and agreements about roles and the nature of the required support can be developed to provide student teachers with enhanced quality in their practicum experience.
The selection of school partners as sites for the provision of Jambi University teaching practicum does not currently involve the key stakeholder – the schools themselves. The selection of school placement sites is based on the easy access without consultation with the schools. There is an urgent need to build mutual relationships between schools and teacher education institutions so that the selection of participating schools in the teaching practicum project can be based on mutual benefit and not simply decided by a higher authority on convenience.

From the results of this study, a number of implications are evident, for the field of EFL teacher education and particularly to the improvement of EFL teacher education programs in Indonesia. These implications, for policy and practice, are:

- Reform of EFLTE program content and delivery
- Improvement in student teachers’ practicum
- Teacher educators’ and mentor teachers’ professional development
- Improvement of teaching facilities and resources
- Introduction of innovative pedagogical practices through professional learning.

8.3 Implications for Policy and Practice

In view of the findings derived from this study and the conclusions arising from them, the following implications for theory and practice are presented. Based on the findings of this study, these implications lead to recommendations for the attention of universities, curriculum developers, and policymakers in EFL teacher education to ensure the improvement of pre-service EFL teachers programs.
8.3.1 Reform of EFLTEP Content and Delivery

The findings of this study suggest that the EFLTEP curriculum needs to be redesigned in order to better prepare teachers with language proficiency and knowledge and EFL teaching skills. This recommendation for curriculum reform is in line with a call for reforms in the content of EFL teacher education found in the literature from a number of other Indonesian scholars (Riesky, 2013; Luciana, 2006; Lie, 2007; Bismoko, 2003; Madya, 2003; Lengkenawati, 2005; Zein, 2012).

The areas recommended for reform include the balance between theory and practice in pedagogy courses, a stronger curriculum focus on teaching English rather than teaching in general, and a reduction in overlap in course content through careful course redesign. As discussed in the literature and in Chapters Five and Six, the balance between courses related to subject matter knowledge and language proficiency of EFL teachers and courses related to pedagogical skills needs to be addressed given that the balance is not adequate at present. The need for EFL teacher education programs to offer compulsory courses related to English for young learners is also strongly recommended in order to prepare student teachers for teaching in primary schools.

The TEFL literature suggested a balance between theory and practice in pedagogical related courses can be achieved by allocating more credit points to those courses that focus on practical aspects of their learning. Another way is to decrease the numbers of student teachers enrolling in the courses or by allowing parallel classes with smaller numbers in these courses. This is particularly important in classes where student teachers learn and practise English skills (such as listening, speaking and writing) and in pedagogical courses that require practising teaching skills. Instead of having more than 40 student teachers in one class, student learning would be better served with class sizes of 20-25 participants. This
would be more manageable for teacher educators and provide student teachers with quality learning experiences especially with practical activities integral to the achievement of learning outcomes.

The content of the curriculum must have more focus on EFL teaching rather than teaching in general. Thus, there is an urgent need for EFLTEP’s curriculum to be adjusted in order to provide student teachers with courses directly related to English language teaching rather than to teaching in general.

In relation to the perceived overlap in course content, there must be a clearer content boundaries in courses offered in the program. Curriculum developers need accurate information regarding the aims and the purposes of each course before they write the syllabi for EFL teacher education programs. The literature review in Chapter Three suggested that the content for teacher education should be about what is taught and how this is connected to how students learn. This includes adequate knowledge of teaching that allows students to see relationships between the domains of teaching knowledge and to connect useful theory to practices that support student learning.

Intensive consultation among teacher educators on course content can serve as the development means to reduce the overlap in courses in the program. Having feedback and peer review about what is taught and how they perform their teaching (from the colleagues) has the potential to build mutual understanding and in turn will lead to agreed course descriptions and strategies for achieving the goals of each course.

The balance between courses related to subject matter knowledge and language proficiency of EFL teachers and courses related to pedagogical skills need to be better accommodated. This can be done by putting more courses related to language knowledge and English skills as well as language elements such as English grammar and pronunciation into
Courses about pedagogical knowledge and classroom management and organization need to be improved so that they are up to date with latest trends that are informed by the recommendations in scholarly literature (Coscun & Daloglu, 2010; Erozan, 2005; Salli-Copur, 2008, and Sevki-Komur, 2010).

Although the structures of EFL teacher education may vary depending on contextual factors that influence the development of the curriculum (Nguyen, 2013), language teacher education curricula in EFL contexts tends to be focusing more on language knowledge and skills rather than on pedagogical skill on one hand and focusing more on sociocultural and contextual competence in ESL or “inner circle” context on the other hand (Kahmi-Stein, 2009, p.22). The idea of designing a balanced EFL teacher education curriculum in terms of the contents of language knowledge and skills and language teaching skills is a better solution in the Indonesian context.

A teacher education program needs to decide on the skills that student teachers are required to have and to expose them to theoretical and practical experiences that they will support their learning of those skills (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Freiberg, 2002, and Goh and Mathews, 2011). Madya (2003) in her study suggested that EFL teacher competencies can be developed through appropriately designed pre-service and in-service EFL programs. One of the major reforms in the EFLTEP at Jambi University (in particular), and in other relevant teacher education programs in Indonesia, is the clear connection between skill acquisition and the development of mandated teacher competencies.

Another implication for curriculum reform is the need for EFL teacher education programs to offer compulsory courses for teaching English to young EFL learners. Since the demand for primary English teachers is increasing as a result of the government initiative to introduce English lessons to young learners in Indonesia, EFL teacher education programs
need to respond with courses related to the teaching of English to young learners in the programs.

The literature review in this thesis suggested that teaching English for young learners needs to be done by teachers who have knowledge and skills for the job (Supriyanti, 2014). In order to provide student teachers with knowledge in the area of teaching English for children, the courses offered need to have relevant content about child development. The course contents may include teaching methods and approaches as well as the knowledge of children’s language acquisition and language teaching methodology for children.

In addition, practical components in the EFLTEP that will fit the needs of the teachers in teaching English at primary level are essential. It is essential that student teachers have at least one practicum placement in a primary school. The role of teacher educators in providing exposure to young learner pedagogy is crucial. Preparation of student teachers will be pointless without also an adequate preparation given to teacher educators in specific knowledge and skills relevant for teaching English to young learners (Zein, 2014).

8.3.2 Improvement on Student Teachers’ Teaching Practicum

The findings from this study would suggest that significant improvements can be made to the implementation of the teaching practicum carried out by the EFLTEP at Jambi University. The duration and scheduling of the practicum, the extent and nature of the assistance from teacher educators and supervising teachers to student teachers practising and developing teaching skills, and the weak relationship between the university and practicum schools are problems that need to be taken into account in developing a better teaching practicum for the EFLTEP. The following are recommendations for improving the role, function and performance of the EFLTEP practicum at Jambi University.
Careful, research-informed thought is needed about how much time student teachers need to spend in schools, and about the best timing of practicum placements over the four years, to ensure that it serves its purpose in the program. Student teachers need more time than they currently have to become professionally familiar with school environments and to practise their teaching skills (Pham, 2001; Le, 2004). This needs to be driven by a view that teaching practicum is essential in preparing student teachers to recognise the realities of classroom life and how to cope with those realities. It has been argued here that providing opportunities to link field experience to practice requires a lengthy commitment of time by the program and the students (Le Cornu & White, 2000). More opportunities are needed for the EFLTEP student teachers at Jambi University to have teaching practicum conducted over several semesters throughout the four-year program rather than only once in the final year of the program. It is needed to build an evolving and coherent awareness of professional responsibility in student teachers throughout the program. The amount of micro-teaching and teaching practicum in teacher education programs in Indonesia is currently insufficient (Madya, 2003) and this needs to be addressed as a matter of urgency.

This transition in thinking about teaching practicum is based on evidence from research literature that demonstrates that student teachers should be practising teaching at the same time as they are learning about the theory of teaching. So, the practicum and the courses that support it must be redesigned to ensure that student teachers are simultaneously learners and pre-service teachers. This has not been the case at Jambi or with Indonesian universities generally. More placement visits to schools provide more opportunities to become familiar with school environments and routines, to observe, and to learn from experienced teachers.

To sum up, the recommendations made from this study are that longer practicum placements are needed to provide more time for teaching practice in schools. Secondly, it is recommended that school practicums take place in several semesters during the candidature.
These recommendations for longer time and better scheduling of practicum are aimed at addressing the overall quality and effectiveness of teaching practicum.

Insufficient assistance from both teacher educators and mentor teachers can be addressed by reformulating the roles they play in assisting student teachers to practise their teaching knowledge and skills when placed in school settings. This could be done through establishing different, closer relationships between university and schools, and through better integration of theory and practice components of selected supportive courses in the program. This would include ensuring that teacher educators visit student teachers in schools during practicum to observe their teaching and give meaningful feedback (about theory and practice integration) on their performance (White, 2009).

Mentor teachers need to give more assistance to student teachers, especially in classroom management and curriculum delivery techniques (Sinclair, 2006). In doing so, the mentor teachers will also be able to help student teachers bridge the gap between theory and practice. The development of teaching skills and professional competencies can also be supported through ongoing discussion, feedback, and support programs that involve teacher educators, mentor teachers, and student teachers working together. To initiate this, a first step is to establish good communication and mutual respect between teacher educators and mentor teachers (through establishing a closer relationship between university and schools).

Establishing better school-university partnerships is also an effective way to deal with problems regarding the choice of school partners for teaching practicum. In doing so, the university needs to dismantle hierarchical legacies and initiate new partnerships with schools based on a desire to work with schools as equal partners. This will not happen unless good communication between university and schools informs the teaching practicum program. In order to maximize the roles of both parties in supporting teaching practicum program, there
should be supervisory workshops to train teacher educators and mentor teachers in their roles and to provide a forum to share knowledge between universities and schools.

In order to make partnerships effective, it is important that the roles and responsibilities of those involved in the practicum are clearly defined and understood by both parties. Openness and mutual respect must be encouraged to create an effective shared responsibility for ongoing collaboration. Having strong and effective partnerships between schools and universities benefits both parties. For the university, it enables teacher education programs to have qualified and well informed school partners for student teachers’ school placements, thus resolving the current problems linked to the selection of participating schools. Next, the practicum expectations of pre-service teachers, the program’s practicum goals, and the roles of teacher educators and supervising teachers will all be clearly stated and coordinated. It will then be easier to ensure that preparations are complete and organized prior to the teaching practicum. Collaborative practices in the practicum will lead to knowledge sharing between schools and universities, with supervising teachers from schools being able to update their theory about teaching skills and university teaching staff getting direct access to rich information about current practice dilemmas and problems faced by schools.

8.3.3 Teacher Educators Professional Development

Data from interviews and open-ended questionnaires suggested that there is a need to provide teacher educators with training to improve their teaching and performance in other roles when working with student teachers in the EFLTEP. This can be most directly addressed by carrying out in-service training to expand and update their teaching approaches and understanding of what is most appropriate for preparing EFL teachers in current times.
This study has revealed that, among other things, teacher educators need to become better role models for student teachers through effective demonstration and modelling of concepts and the practical aspects of learning and teaching. In-service training can address several identified aspects of what teacher educators need to know and be able to do to provide ‘learning about teaching’ to student teachers. This can be done by exposing them to new pedagogies for EFL teaching and to new educational theories and knowledge more generally in the field of teacher education. Targeted intentional mentorship in teaching and learning may also be helpful for individual teacher educators to increase their teaching expertise and their capabilities as role models for student teachers.

Besides in-service training, teacher educators can undertake other activities to enhance their professional expertise through gaining further academic qualifications such as masters and doctoral degrees from English speaking countries such as Australia, New Zealand, USA, and UK. A study conducted by Luciana (2006) suggested that only a small portion of teacher educators teaching in the EFL teacher education programs in Indonesia have higher degrees in education. So, recommending that teacher educators pursue higher degrees is a good option to enhance professional development and knowledge, not only for the individuals concerned but also that which arises from the collegial impact and leadership when they return to their home universities.

In-house training is another approach to improving and updating teaching skills. EFL teacher education programs can arrange workshops on new teaching approaches and methodologies. This can be done, for example, by inviting senior teacher educators or professors from other teacher education programs in Indonesia or from overseas.

As was recommended by a USAID/Indonesia (2009) report on teacher educator professional development in Indonesia, teacher educators need to engage in personal
reflection and collaborative discussions with colleagues. That is, thinking critically about what happened in course delivery, about strengths and weaknesses of their teaching, the quality of student experience, the reasons why and how to do it differently and make it better. Collaborative discussions with colleagues will allow teacher educators to feel connected to others – something bigger than themselves - in finding solutions to problems and in finding new and innovative teaching ideas.

8.3.4 Improvement of teaching Facilities

It was found, both in the literature review and in the findings from this study, that learning and facilities available to Indonesian English teacher education programs are often out of date and inadequate (Lie, 2007; Mulyasa, 2008). There is an urgent need to improve the facilities for EFL teacher education programs so that student teachers have better access to the necessary resources to improve their skills and knowledge and thereby achieve the Government’s aim of high quality English teaching in schools. It is a recommendation of this study that facilities such as ICT, libraries, laboratories, and classrooms be improved.

Micro-teaching laboratories and language laboratories are vital in facilitating student teachers to improve their language and teaching skills. The literature review revealed the importance of student teachers being equipped with practical knowledge of teaching through micro-teaching exercises before undertaking a teaching practicum program. Access to a micro-teaching laboratory with supported resources is necessary for student teachers to conduct mock teaching practice lessons under supervision and guidance from their teacher educators. It is recognised that resources alone are not entirely the solution without also the introduction of innovative pedagogical practices through professional learning.

An important finding from the study was that student teachers felt underprepared with listening skills. A major reason for this was that availability of listening teaching materials
was inadequate. A language laboratory with updated materials and technologies will play an important role in supporting student teachers to improve their language and listening skills.

The availability of scholarly journals and databases in the library is also important to help student teachers and teacher educators keep their language knowledge, language teaching skills, and pedagogical resources up to date. Classrooms with ICT facilities are needed to support teaching and learning and to enable the development of technological competence. Also, the availability of WiFi and Internet access throughout the university needs to be increased to ensure that ICT can be effectively employed for the full suite of academic purposes.

An EFL teacher education program has responsibility to provide schools with qualified English teachers. In doing so, it needs to have resources available to deliver on that responsibility.

8.4 The Strengths of the Study

This study was a mixed methods study, which involved various participants including recent graduates, beginner teachers, teacher educators, and school principals. The strength of this study is in the insights it offers about EFL teacher education from the perspectives of those participants from Jambi University.

The findings presented in Chapters Five, Six, and Seven have provided evidence about aspects of EFL teacher education programs, particularly in Indonesia, that are in need of improvement. It has enabled the identification of implications for practice and recommendations for improvement about the EFL teacher education program at Jambi University. The recommendations for improving the program are derived from the findings of the study and connected to the findings from other local and international studies about EFL
teacher education. Given the similarities between Indonesian EFL teacher education programs, and their common curriculum imperatives and mandated responsibilities, this study provides valuable insights for all Indonesian universities that have EFL teacher education programs and indeed for other countries with similar EFL contexts.

The mixed method approach employed in this study used both quantitative and qualitative data to build comprehensive findings about EFL teacher education at Jambi University. Utilizing quantitative and qualitative approaches enriched the interpretations possible form the data gathered which in turn addressed relevant issues about improving the quality of EFL teacher education programs. The insights gained expanded the understanding of the research problem and allowed detailed responses to the four research questions.

Based on the findings and implications for practice derived from this study, EFL teacher education authorities, particularly those at Jambi University can focus clearly on the key areas of EFL teacher education that will lead to better EFL graduate teachers for Indonesian schools. As has been stated, these key areas are availability of teaching and learning resources, access to innovative pedagogical practices through professional learning, quality of teaching practicum experiences, graduate language proficiency levels, and language teaching skills.

The review of literature about EFL teacher education programs in Indonesia, in the East Asian region, and in other countries has suggested similar priorities for teacher education programs to focus on. The findings of this study contribute to that evidence base through the detail about the particular case of the EFLTEP at Jambi University.
8.5 Limitations of the Study

Like any other research project, this study had several limitations in regard to the scope, scale, methodology, and the extent of the data collected and analysed. For the current study, the focus was on seeking the perceptions of recent graduates and beginner teachers about their language proficiency, content knowledge, teaching skills, and experience during teaching practicum in schools. The followings were limitations of the study:

1. The knowledge base for language teachers investigated in the current study focused only on language proficiency, content knowledge, and language teaching skills. Other dimensions or domains of a knowledge base, as suggested by Richards (1998, 2010), Day and Conklin (1992) and Day (2012), were not covered in this study.

2. The current study employed a small-scale survey as a snapshot of how graduates of EFL teacher education program at Jambi University felt equipped with skill and knowledge to be English teachers. The number of participants in this survey consisted of 30 beginner teachers and 48 recent graduates. More participants would have added further breadth to the findings from the survey.

3. The study took place in the EFLTEP at Jambi University. This was a specific local context for the investigation. It is impossible to generalize the findings of the study to other local contexts. Therefore the results may or may not be applicable to other similar educational institutions in Indonesia. The main aim in this study was to gain participants’ perceptions on the quality of graduates of EFL teacher education programs at Jambi University. However, it is hoped that others will be able to utilize the findings and the methodology, at least to some extent, in their own contexts.
4. There might be inconsistencies between what participants actually perceived and what they actually answered in the questionnaire and with what is actually shown to be best practice in scholarly research.

8.6 Recommendations for Theory and Future Research

This study has highlighted a number of aspects concerning the improvement of EFL teacher education programs. In evaluating the results of this study, limitations are inevitable. However these limitations can serve as starting point to conduct further research. The study focuses specifically on how graduates of the programs were equipped with language proficiency, language knowledge, and language teaching skills in order to be able to teach English effectively.

These foci, however, are only part of the knowledge base for language teachers proposed by Richards (1998; 2010), Day and Conklin (1992), and Day (2012). Therefore, further research investigation that takes into account all domains in the knowledge base for language teachers can be undertaken.

A different data set, with different results from analysis, may have been obtained if the study was conducted with a different approach and with different methods such as focus group discussion and classroom observation. Further research is possible by employing different methods to provide other insights into the EFL teacher education program. Involving larger number of participants and including categories such as gender, age, and other demographic variables may also lead to other findings.

Conducting further study into the most frequently mentioned aspects about improvement in this EFL teacher education program in this study is recommended. The
issues about the availability of teaching and learning resources, the roles and the quality of
teacher educators, and the implementation of teaching practicum in schools are the aspects
indicated to be significant in improving the quality of the teacher education program and
therefore they are worthy of further investigation.

8.7 Conclusion of the Study

Teaching English as a foreign language requires a teacher with strong capacities in
language proficiency, language knowledge, and language teaching skills. These abilities are
crucial to help English teachers to be a source of language input and act as role models in
how to use English for the purpose of communication. An EFL teacher education program
has a responsibility to provide schools with qualified teachers to teach English to students.

This study aimed to investigate to what extent an EFL teacher education had prepared
student teachers with the knowledge and skills needed to be qualified English teachers at
school level. This study has made recommendations for improving the quality of the program
via curriculum reform, improvement of the student teachers’ practicum, teacher educator
professional development, and updating teaching and learning resources.

A greater proportion of language knowledge and language teaching skills need
to be included in the English Teacher Education Program’s curriculum. This would
provide more opportunities for student teachers to improve their language and teaching
skills. Improvement of the teaching practicum is needed to provide better teaching
experiences and opportunities to link what is learnt at university to the real world of
teaching practice in schools. Professional training for teacher educators must be made
relevant to the national educational reforms as mandated by Act No. 20 Year 2003 on
the national education system and the Government Law of Republic Indonesia No. 19
Year 2009 on the National Standard on Education. Finally, resources in teacher
education need updating in order to provide supportive facilities to assist prospective teachers become the professional and effective EFL teachers of the future.
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Appendix 1: Consent Form

RMIT HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

Prescribed Consent Form for Persons Participating in Research Projects Involving Interviews, Questionnaires, Focus Groups or Disclosure of Personal Information

COLLEGE OF Design and Social Context

SCHOOL/CENTRE OF Education

Name of participant:

Project title: Improving English Teacher Education in Indonesia: A Case Study of Jambi University

Name(s) of investigators:

(1) Urip Sulistiyo Phone: 0450 691 746
(2) Phone: 

1. I have received a statement explaining the interview/questionnaire involved in this project.
2. I consent to participate in the above project, the particulars of which—including details of the interviews or questionnaires—have been explained to me.
3. I authorise the investigator or his or her assistant to interview me or administer a questionnaire.
4. I give my permission to be audio taped/photographed □ Yes □ No (delete if inapplicable)
5. I acknowledge that:
   a) Having read the Plain Language Statement, I agree to the general purpose, methods and demands of the study.
   b) I have been informed that I am free to withdraw from the project at any time and to withdraw any unprocessed data previously supplied.
   c) The project is for the purpose of research and/or teaching. It may not be of direct benefit to me. The privacy of the information I provide will be safeguarded. The privacy of the personal information I provide will be safeguarded and only disclosed where I have consented to the disclosure or as required by law. If I participate in a focus group, I understand that, while all participants will be asked
to keep the conversation confidential, the researcher cannot guarantee that other participants will do this.

d) The security of the research data is assured during and after completion of the study. The data collected during the study may be published, and a report of the project outcomes will be provided to the School of Education, RMIT University. Any information that may be used to identify me will not be used unless I have given my permission (see point 5).

Participant’s Consent

Name: ________________________ Date: ________________________

(Participant)

Name: ________________________ Date: ________________________

(Witness to sign)

Participants should be given a photocopy of this consent form after it has been signed.

Any complaints about your participation in this project may be directed to the Executive Officer, RMIT Human Research Ethics Committee, Research & Innovation, RMIT, GPO Box 2476V, Melbourne, 3001. Details of the complaints procedure are available at: http://www.rmit.edu.au/governance/complaints/research
Appendix 2: Plain Language Statement for Recent Graduates and Beginner Teachers

29 June 2011

Plain Language Statement

Dear graduates and beginner teachers,

My name is Urip Sulistiyo. I am undertaking my PhD in Education at RMIT University, Australia. The title of my research thesis is: *Improving English Teacher Education in Indonesia: A Case Study of Jambi University.*

I would like to invite you to be part of my research project. You have been approached because you are working (or about to work) as English teachers in Jambi, and the thesis topic is about improving the English teacher education program in Indonesia. The project has been approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee.

The aim of this study is to explore English graduate teachers’ perception of their preparedness to teach. It attempts to investigate the process of becoming a teacher and challenges in professional life. I would like to explore how graduates of the English teacher education program feel about their English language ability, pedagogical skills and teaching practice experience. Should you agree to participate, you will be asked to complete a survey that will take you approximately 25 minutes. Some of you may also be asked to participate in an in-depth interview at a later stage.

There are no identified risks associated with this study. The data collected in this study will remain confidential and will be used for research purposes only. The data may be published in seminars, journal articles or presented at conferences, but your name will not appear in these publications. I will respect your anonymity and store all data accordingly.

Please be advised that your participation in this study is completely voluntary. Should you wish to withdraw at any time, you are free to do so without prejudice.

If you are willing to participate, please indicate that you have read and understood the above information by signing the accompanying consent form and returning it to me.

Should you require any further information, or have any concerns, please do not hesitate to contact me, Urip Sulistiyo or my supervisor, Dr Julie Faulkner (julie.faulkner@rmit.edu.au).
Yours sincerely,

Urip Sulistiyo

Any complaints about your participation in this project may be directed to the Secretary, RMIT Human Research Ethics Committee, University Secretariat, RMIT, GPO Box 2476V, Melbourne, 3001. The telephone number is (03) 9925 1745.
Appendix 3: Plain Language Statement for School Principals

29 June 2011

Plain Language Statement

Dear principals,

My name is Urip Sulistiyo. I am undertaking my PhD in Education at RMIT University, Australia. The title of my research thesis is: Improving English Teacher Education in Indonesia: A Case Study of Jambi University.

I would like to invite you to be part of my research project. You have been approached because you are working as school principals in Jambi, where beginner teachers of the English teacher education program at Jambi University are teaching. The thesis topic is about improving the English teacher education program in Indonesia. The project has been approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee.

The aim of this study is to explore English graduate teachers’ perception of their preparedness to teach. It attempts to investigate the process of becoming a teacher and challenges in professional life. I would like to explore how graduates of the English teacher education program feel about their English language ability, pedagogical skills and teaching practice experience.

It would be particularly useful for my study to interview the principals of the beginner teacher participants in order to strengthen the reliability of the data.

There are no identified risks associated with this study. The data collected in this study will remain confidential and will be used for research purposes only. The data may be published in seminars, journal articles or presented at conferences, but your name will not appear in these publications. I will respect your anonymity and store all data accordingly.

Please be advised that your participation in this study is completely voluntary. Should you wish to withdraw at any time, you are free to do so without prejudice.

If you are willing to participate, please indicate that you have read and understood the above information by signing the accompanying consent form and returning it to me.

Should you require any further information, or have any concerns, please do not hesitate to contact me, Urip Sulistiyo or my supervisor, Dr Julie Faulkner (julie.faulkner@rmit.edu.au).

Yours sincerely,
Any complaints about your participation in this project may be directed to the Secretary, RMIT Human Research Ethics Committee, University Secretariat, RMIT, GPO Box 2476V, Melbourne, 3001. The telephone number is (03) 9925 1745.
Appendix 4: Plain Language Statement for Teacher Educators

29 June 2011

Plain Language Statement

Dear teacher educators,

My name is Urip Sulistiyo. I am undertaking my PhD in Education at RMIT University, Australia. The title of my research thesis is: Improving English Teacher Education in Indonesia: A Case Study of Jambi University.

I would like to invite you to be part of my research project. You have been approached because you are working as teacher educators in the English teacher education program at Jambi University. The thesis topic is about improving the English teacher education program in Indonesia. The project has been approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee.

The aim of this study is to explore English graduate teachers’ preparedness to teach. It attempts to investigate the process of becoming a teacher and challenges in professional life. I would like to explore how graduates of the English teacher education program feel about their English language ability, pedagogical skills and teaching practice experience.

It would be particularly useful for my study to interview teacher educators in order to strengthen the reliability of the data.

There are no identified risks associated with this study. The data collected in this study will remain confidential and will be used for research purposes only. The data may be published in seminars, journal articles or presented at conferences, but your name will not appear in these publications. I will respect your anonymity and store all data accordingly.

Please be advised that your participation in this study is completely voluntary. Should you wish to withdraw at any time, you are free to do so without prejudice.

If you are willing to participate, please indicate that you have read and understood the above information by signing the accompanying consent form and returning it to me.

Should you require any further information, or have any concerns, please do not hesitate to contact me, Urip Sulistiyo or my supervisor, Dr Julie Faulkner (julie.faulkner@rmit.edu.au).

Yours sincerely,
Any complaints about your participation in this project may be directed to the Secretary, RMIT Human Research Ethics Committee, University Secretariat, RMIT, GPO Box 2476V, Melbourne, 3001. The telephone number is (03) 9925 1745.
Appendix 5: List of EFLTEP Courses in Jambi University

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Semester</th>
<th>Credit Points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Semester 1</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Religion Course</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Citizenship</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Introduction to Education</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Listening I</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Speaking I</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Reading I</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Writing I</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Grammar I</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Semester 2</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Bahasa Indonesia</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Student Development</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Listening II</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Speaking II</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Reading II</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Writing II</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Grammar 2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Vocabulary 1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Pronunciation</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Translation</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Semester 3</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Basic Social Science</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Basic Natural Science</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Learning and Educational Theories</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Listening III</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Speaking III</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Reading III</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Writing III</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Vocabulary II</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Introduction to Linguistics</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Introduction to Literature</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Semester 4</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Teacher Profession</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Listening IV</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Speaking IV</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Reading IV</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Writing IV</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Grammar IV</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Phonology</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Morphology</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Syntax</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Semantics</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Prose</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Semester 5</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Curriculum of EFL</td>
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<tr>
<td>Semester 6</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. TEFL II (Practice)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Material Design and Development</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Language Testing</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Cross-Cultural Understanding</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. ESP II (Social and Science Studies)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. English for Young Learners</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Literacy Criticism</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Statistics for Education</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Semester 7</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Teaching Practicum</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Research on ELT</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Classroom Action Research</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Research Proposal and Seminar</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Research on Linguistics</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Research on Literature</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Semester 8</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Fieldwork</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thesis</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| |</p>
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<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required credit points</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 6: Questionnaire

IMPROVING ENGLISH TEACHER EDUCATION IN INDONESIA: A CASE STUDY OF JAMBI UNIVERSITY

Survey

Description
The aim of this survey is to investigate to what extent graduates and beginner teachers feel prepared by their English teacher education program, regarding language capacity, pedagogical knowledge and teaching experiences. This survey will take about 25 minutes. Your answers to the questions are much appreciated and will be kept confidential and anonymous. The survey consists of two sections.

Section 1: Background Information

Number : .........................................................
M/F : .........................................................

Section 2: Instructions

Please answer the following questions as accurately as possible and respond in as much detail as you can.

1. How well did your pre-service English teacher education provide you with the level of language proficiency you feel you need/needed in order to be confident to teach?
   Poor Adequate Good Very good Excellent
   1 2 3 4 5
   Why?.........................................................................................................................
   .....................................................................................................................
   ........................................................................................................................
   ........................................................................................................................
   ...........................................................................................................................
   ..........................................

2. How well did your pre-service English teacher education provide you with the level of pedagogical skills you now feel you need/needed?
   Poor Adequate Good Very good Excellent
   1 2 3 4 5
   Why?.........................................................................................................................
   .....................................................................................................................
   ........................................................................................................................
   ........................................................................................................................
   ...........................................................................................................................
   ..........................................

296
3. How well did your pre-service English teacher education provide you with the time and quality of school experience (teaching practice) you feel you need/needed to begin teaching?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Poor</th>
<th>Adequate</th>
<th>Good</th>
<th>Very good</th>
<th>Excellent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Why? .......................................................... ..........................................................
..........................................................................................................................
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4. What features of your pre-service English teacher education best prepare/prepared you to teach English to students?
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5. Are/were there any other aspects of your pre-service English teacher education that you would recommend changing? What were they? How might they be changed?
..........................................................................................................................
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6. Is/was your pre-service English teacher education well aligned with the curriculum you are now expected to teach? If not, which part(s) do you think are/were not relevant?
..........................................................................................................................
..........................................................................................................................
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Thank you for your time answering this survey. Your responses will help us improve the quality of pre-service English education at Jambi University.
Appendix 7: Sample Questions for Recent Graduates and Beginner Teachers

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW

The semi-structured interview questions will extend the key responses received from participants in the initial survey.

Sample Questions for Recent Graduates and Beginner Teachers

1. How well has your pre-service program prepared you with:
   a. the level of language proficiency you need to teach?
   b. the level of pedagogical skills you need to teach?
   c. the time and quality of school experience/teaching practicum you need to teach?

2. In terms of language proficiency, in which areas do you think you need to prepare more?

3. In terms of pedagogical skills, in which areas do you think you need to prepare more?

4. In terms of teaching practicum, which parts do you think you need to be improved?

5. What features of your pre-service program best prepared you to teach English?

6. Are there any other aspects of your pre-service program that you would recommend changing? What are they and how might they be changed?

7. Is your pre-service program well aligned with the curriculum you are now expected to teach?
Appendix 8: Sample Questions for School Principals

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW

Sample Questions for Principals

1. How well have you found your graduate English teachers from Jambi University to be prepared for their teaching role in terms of:
   a. language capacity?
   b. pedagogical knowledge?
   c. other?

2. How well have you found graduate English teachers to be prepared in:
   a. speaking?
   b. writing?
   c. reading?
   d. listening?
   e. other?

3. How well have you found graduate English teachers to be prepared in pedagogical skills such as:
   a. classroom management?
   b. student–teacher relationship?
   c. students’ assessment?
   d. other?

4. Would you like to comment on any other areas that you feel need to be improved in language teacher education programs, as reflected by graduate English teachers’ performance in your school?
Appendix 9: Sample Questions for Teacher Educators

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW

Sample Questions for Teacher Educators

1. Can you describe the curriculum for the English teacher education program in your university?
2. How do you implement the curriculum in your teaching practice?
3. In your opinion, what do you think the strengths are of English teacher education program graduates’ competence standards?
4. What are the relevance of competence standards for preparing students for the real work environment?
5. What is the correlation between the English teacher education curriculum and current competence standards?
6. How well do you think the teacher educators in your faculty know the content area they are teaching? In terms of:
   · breadth of content coverage
   · depth of teaching experience.
7. What can we do to improve the English teacher education program of Jambi University?
## Appendix 10: Sample Thematic Analysis from Interview

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Responses in Quotation</th>
<th>Themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Content knowledge/language proficiency</td>
<td>RG#1: I think I need more writing subjects … when I have to write a thesis for last assignment in the program, I got problems to organise my writing.</td>
<td>1. Specific subjects’ extension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RG#3: I found it difficult to understand grammar as the lecturer is not an expert on the subject taught … some lectures are run monotonously.</td>
<td>2. TE’s lack of content knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RG#4: In one semester, for one subject, sometimes we only had less than 50% meeting … then the lecturer who teach the subject said, ‘See you in the semester exam’ … Some lessons are too difficult for my level, I think … Some lecturers do not care to their students when they are teaching.</td>
<td>3. TE’s lack of pedagogic knowledge and PCK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BT#2: Listening skill is more difficult than other skills, I think … I have discussed with my colleagues and they said the same thing about listening skill, especially when we took TOEFL test, listening was quite difficult … we need more for listening … sometime we were taught by less qualified lecturers … graduates from bachelor degree, not master degree yet.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BT#5: Now when I am teaching English to students, I feel less equipped regarding grammar subject.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RG#2: We have no enough reference books, especially English written books … Classroom is not proper to teaching and learning activities … lack of chairs … no AC [air conditioning].</td>
<td>4. Less resources in library’s collection of books</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RG#3: We used to have SAC for students to learn and practice English independently … Now, it is not running, well, or no longer running, I am not sure.</td>
<td>5. Less resources in language laboratory’s equipment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RG#4: It is really hard to find English</td>
<td>6. Less resources in terms of the SAC’s service</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
reference books in our library.

RG#5: When I took listening subject, the language laboratory is not in good condition … a lot of tools we need for listening are not working anymore … sometimes we just used tape recorder to practice our listening … it really need to repair.

BT#2: Language lab must be kept up to date … to be honest, it was left behind if I compare to language laboratory in the school where I am teaching now … SAC as a place for students to practice their English outside the classroom is not optimally used.

BT#3: We used to have native speaker from British Council and I found him helpful in terms of learning and understanding a foreign culture beside English.

BT#5: SAC is not well managed; it is supposed to be a right place for student to practice their speaking.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pedagogic knowledge</th>
<th>RG#4: I found them helpful to help me feel prepared to teach, but more practice is better, rather than only focusing too much on theory.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RG#5: Of some subjects related to pedagogy, only one subject that provide me more practice: Learning Theory and Practice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BT#1: Pedagogic subjects I learn from the program are general, not specifically dealing with how to teach English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BT#2: Too much theory than practice … it should be balanced.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BT#3: For TEFL subject are focusing only on how to teach English for students on high school level, but not for primary school students … some subjects are to general, not specifically for English subjects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BT#4: Subjects related to pedagogic skills are not well explored if I compare to English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. Providing more practice than theory of pedagogic knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. Changing subjects related to pedagogy to specifically learning how to teach English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. Broadening TEFL subjects to all school levels</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Teaching practice or practicum

RG#1: During my teaching practice, the teacher educator only visited me three times, which was not enough ... I found my supervising teacher was very helpful in giving comments on my performance during practice.

RG#2: My teacher educator and supervising teacher were too busy, so they only once visited in my classroom practice.

RG#3: Supervising teacher is okay ... she helped me much ... she taught me to understand and know well the students ... find solution if I found a problem in teaching ... Teacher educator only three times visited me in my teaching in the classroom.

RG#4: Teacher educator came to visit me twice ... better than nothing ... first visit to see me teaching in the classroom ... but no comment after that ... ideally, she gave me advice or comments for my practice ... I asked my supervising teachers for help if I got problems regarding my teaching.

BT#1: Teacher educator’s role is not so helpful ... He visited me twice in the school ... He was not at school when I need to share experience and problems dealing with my teaching ... but my supervising teacher is very helpful and responsible for his role ... there was no any communication before between teacher educator, me as pre-service teacher and the supervising teacher.

BT#2: Ideally, the teacher educator visits her pre-service teacher more often ... she should assess my performance in teaching regularly ... the role of supervising teacher is good ... she checked my lesson plan before I started teaching, she assisted me how to manage the class, gave comments on my performance.

BT#4: It seems that my teacher educator did not play her role properly. She visited me
only once during my teaching practice …
there were not an evaluation, comments for
my performance … it also affected on my
supervising teacher who did the same thing.

RG#3: Microteaching need to be focused on
English teaching … It should not be in one
big classroom with other different major
students … I think it will be good idea if
microteaching becomes a prerequisite
subject before students take teaching
practice.

RG#4: In other university, microteaching is
one semester subject … in my program, I
only get two weeks microteaching as a part
of teaching practice subject … and it was in
very big classroom with many people in it.

BT#4: It was a short time for microteaching
… two weeks is not enough to prepare
everything.

RG#5: I think I need more teaching practice
not only for one semester.

BT#1: I think teaching practice duration
should be extended because the program
aims to train students to be English teachers
so we need more practice.

BT#2: Teaching practice in schools which is
carried out in one semester is not enough …
It will be better to extend teaching practice
… It can replace some irrelevant subjects.

BT#3: Teaching practice is more important
than fieldwork subject … instead of
fieldwork subject, we’d better take teaching
practice for another semester.

BT#5: I suggest that teaching practice
duration should be prolonged because it will
be a big chance for us to implement what we
have learnt from the program..

RG#1: As pre-service teachers, in teaching
practice, I had opportunities to face the real
world. I learn how to understand students in
my classroom. I bring the theories I have
learnt in the program to the classroom.

RG#4: My supervising teacher helps me to design good lesson plans, assessments, which are good for my experience.

BT#2: There are some good points I got during my teaching practice which I did not get in the program, such as how to make school program in annually basis, design a good lesson plan, make Minimum Competence Criteria.

BT#3: I know better how to be a good teacher after I took teaching practice subject … I can design and develop a good teaching material, lesson plan.

BT#4: To be a good teacher, we need teaching practice and some related subjects to implement theory to practice.

Teacher education program’s features that prepared pre-service teachers to teach English to students

RG#1: Teaching English as a Foreign Language 1 and 2. Those subjects provide me both theories and practices of how to teach English to students.

RG#2: Some subjects related to English skills are very helpful and TEFL 1 and 2 … those subjects prepare me the content and how to teach the contents to students.

RG#5: TEFL2 gave me practical experience how to attract students’ attention, interact with students, implement teaching materials to real practice.

BT#4: Beside teaching practice, I think TEFL and Curriculum Material and Development are two subjects which gave me knowledge to design teaching material and lesson plan.

BT#5: TEFL 1 and 2, which cover how to teach English skills, manage classroom, deal with students both theories and practices.

Some changes to be made to improve the program

RG#2: Number of students in one class is big, so it is not good for learning atmosphere … insufficient resources in library.

16. TEFL, Curriculum and Material Development, and teaching practice are features that helpful for pre-service teachers to feel equipped to teach

17. Class size, program duration, subject loads and
RG#4: It takes long time to complete the program … based on my own experience, I spent four, five years to complete the program … I always pass all subjects in every semester … I could not imagine other students who failed in some subject how long they will complete the program.

RG#5: Too many credits I have to take to complete the program … in other major, like math, the students take 148 credits to complete their program, but in English major, students must take more than 150 credits.

BT#2: Updating some facilities with ICT, such as in language laboratory, library and classrooms.

BT#3: Curriculum used in the program should cover some subjects related to how to teach English to primary school students … at the moment, the focus only on how to teach higher school students.

BT#4: I think CMD subject should be more comprehensive … more discussion on type of curriculum currently used in schools.

The relevancies of curriculum used in the program to what teachers need in the workplace

RG#2: Curriculum used in the program, I think it is relevant in most aspect … a bit different I found in the school maybe in a way to design lesson plan, teaching instrument.

RG#3: There are some subjects are not so relevant … curriculum need to focus on teaching content and pedagogy.

RG#4: Some subjects, such as Morphology, Intro to Linguistics, Literature, are less relevant because I do not use them in teaching English to students.

BT#3: When I am teaching to students, subjects such as poetry and drama are not taught in school curriculum, so such subjects should be replaced by other subjects with more focus on content and pedagogy.
Appendix 11: Tabulation of Open-ended Questionnaire

1. Features of EFLTEP that best prepared beginner teachers to teach English to students

1. Microteaching
2. Lecturers
3. Teaching practice experience
4. TEFL courses and teaching practice
5. English skill–related subjects
6. Pedagogical skill–related subjects
7. Pedagogical-related subjects
8. Lecturers
9. Lecturers
10. Pedagogical-related courses
11. Pedagogical-related courses
12. Lecturers
13. Pedagogical-related courses
14. Teaching practicum
15. Teaching practicum
16. Teaching practicum
17. Teaching practicum
18. Microteaching
19. CMD
20. TEFL
21. Lecturers
22. TEFL
23. Microteaching
2. Features of EFLTEP that best prepared recent graduates to teach English to students

1. Teaching practicum
2. TEFL and CMD
3. English skills
4. Lecturers
5. Lecturers
6. Lecturers
7. TEFL 1 and 2
8. Speaking skills
9. Pedagogical skill–related courses
10. Pedagogical skill–related courses
11. Pedagogical skill–related courses
12. Pedagogical skill–related courses
13. Teaching practicum
14. Teaching practicum
15. TEFL
16. Microteaching
17. CMD
18. Teaching practicum
19. Microteaching
20. Microteaching
21. Teaching practicum
22. English skills
23. Teaching skills
24. Lecturers
25. Teaching practicum
26. Teaching practicum
27. Teaching practicum
28. Teaching practice
29. Pedagogical skills
30. TEFL
31. Teaching practicum
32. TEFL
33. Microteaching
34. Microteaching
35. Teaching practicum
36. CMD
37. TEFL
38. Skill for teaching English
39. Quality of lecturers
40. Teaching practicum
41. Speaking skills
42. Teaching practice
43. Teaching practice
44. Pedagogical skills
45. English skills
3. Aspects of EFLTEP of Jambi University that need to be changed

**Beginner teachers**

1. Inadequate supporting facilities
2. Subject related to pedagogical skills
3. Limited resources of learning
4. Lecturers’ preparation before teaching
5. Teaching practicum
6. Lack of facilities
7. More courses related to pedagogical skills
8. Teaching practicum quality
9. Student teachers’ recruitment
10. Learning facilities
11. Lecturers’ ability to teach
12. Facilities: teaching and learning media
13. Teaching and learning facilities
14. Quality of teaching practicum
15. Program duration: 4.5 years is a long time to complete the program
16. Updating and upgrading the teaching and learning facilities
17. General courses related to pedagogy that should be taught by English lecturers
18. Facilities
19. Quality of lecturers
20. Teaching facilities
21. Teaching practicum program
22. Teaching practicum
23. Microteaching needs more focus on teaching of English, rather than the general teaching practice
24. Facilities
25. Speaking skills
26. More pedagogical subjects
27. Pedagogical skills
28. Teaching practicum
29. Teaching skills
30. Teaching practicum

**Recent Graduates**

1. Lecturers’ ability to teach
2. Facilities that support the teaching and learning process
3. Facilities
4. Teaching practicum
5. Lecturers’ ways of delivering courses
6. Teaching skill–related courses
7. Pedagogical skills
8. More courses related to how to teach English
9. Teaching practicum
10. Facilities
11. Teaching practicum
12. Facilities
13. Lecturers’ ability to teach
14. Teaching and learning facilities
15. Lecturers’ attendance
16. Facilities related to classroom availability and quality
17. Lecturers’ competence
18. Teaching and learning facilities
19. Learning resources, such as the library
20. Lecturers’ attendance
21. Teaching practicum
22. Pedagogical skills
23. Teaching skills of pre-service teachers
24. Classroom facilities
25. Teaching skills
26. Pedagogical skills
27. Teaching facilities
28. Lecturers’ responsibility
29. Teaching practicum
30. English skills need to be added more
31. Administration/academic and office staffs’ service
32. Student teacher recruitment
33. Teaching roster/course roster
34. Teaching practicum
35. Speaking skills
36. Teaching practicum
37. Facilities
38. More practice of subjects related to pedagogy
39. Teaching practicum
40. Lecturers’ ability
41. Lecturers’ teaching skills
42. Teaching facilities
43. Teaching practicum
44. Pedagogical skills
45. Teaching practicum
Appendix 12: Ethics Approval Letter

RMIT University
Human Research Ethics Sub-Committee
Office of the Pro Vice-Chancellor
Phone: 9925-2974
Email: lisa.mann@rmit.edu.au

3 November 2011

Urip Sulistyo

Dear Urip,

Re: Human Research Ethics Application – Register Number CHEAN B-2000524-06/11

The Chair of the Design and Social Context College Human Ethics Advisory Network (CHEAN), Associate Professor Heather Feluring, assessed your amended ethics application titled:

Improving English Teachers Education in Indonesia: A Case Study of Jambi University

I am pleased to inform you that your application has been approved at a Low Risk classification. This now completes the ethics procedures.

Your ethics approval expires on 2 November 2014.

Please note that all research data should be stored on University Network systems. These systems provide high levels of manageable security and data integrity, can provide secure remote access, are backed up on a regular basis and can provide Disaster Recover processes should a large scale incident occur. The use of portable devices such as CDs and memory sticks is valid for archiving, data transport where necessary and some works in progress. The authoritative copy of all current data should reside on appropriate network systems, and the Principal Investigator is responsible for the retention and storage of the original data pertaining to the project for a minimum period of five years.

You are reminded that an Annual/Final report is mandatory and should be forwarded to the College Ethics Subcommittee Secretary by mid-January 2012. This report is available at http://www.rmit.edu.au/browse?ID=65q007s0d0w0kp or can be located by following the link under Policy at http://www.rmit.edu.au/dsc/chem.

Should you have any queries regarding your application please seek advice from the Chair of the College Human Ethics Advisory Network (CHEAN) Associate Prof Heather Feluring on (03) 9925 7840, heather.feluring@rmit.edu.au or contact Lisa Mann on (03) 9925 2974 or email lisa.mann@rmit.edu.au.

On behalf of the DSC College Human Ethics Advisory Network I wish you well in your research.

Yours sincerely,

Lisa Mann
Ethics Officer
DSC College Human Ethics Advisory Network (CHEAN)
Appendix 13: Interview Participant Profiles

The following is a brief summary of the interview participants (names has been coded for anonymity).

School principal participants (SP):

1. SP#1: 45 years old, 15 years’ experience in ELT, seven years’ school principal experience.
2. SP#2: 43 years old, 10 years’ experience in ELT, three years’ school principal experience.
3. SP#3: 50 years old, 20 years’ experience in mathematics teaching, eight years’ school principal experience.
4. SP#4: 40 years old, 12 years’ experience in social science teaching, two years’ school principal experience.
5. SP#5: 40 years old, 10 years’ experience in ELT, four years’ school principal experience.

Beginning teacher participants (BT):

1. BT#1: 28 years old, 1.5 years’ experience in ELT, teaching at one of the private vocational high schools in Jambi Province of Indonesia.
2. BT#2: 30 years old, two years’ experience in ELT, teaching at one of the senior high schools in Jambi Province.
3. BT#3: 26 years old, two years’ experience in ELT, teaching at one of the Islamic primary schools in Jambi Province.
4. BT#4: 24 years old, one year experience in ELT, teaching at one of the junior high schools in Jambi Province.
5. BT#5: 25 years old, two years’ experience in ELT, teaching at one of the junior high schools in Jambi Province.

Teacher educator participants (TE):

1. TE#1: 43 years old, 12 years’ experience teaching EFL teacher education in Jambi University.
2. TE#2: 35 years old, 10 years’ experience teaching EFL teacher education in Jambi University.
3. TE#3: 39 years old, 11 years’ experience teaching EFL teacher education in Jambi University.
4. TE#4: 33 years old, eight years’ experience teaching EFL teacher education in Jambi University.
5. TE#5: 39 years old, 11 years’ experience teaching EFL teacher education in Jambi University.

**Recent graduate participants (RG):**

1. RG#1: 23 years old, just completed teacher education program in 2010.
2. RG#2: 24 years old, just completed teacher education program in 2010.
3. RG#3: 23 years old, just completed teacher education program in 2010.
4. RG#4: 23 years old, just completed teacher education program in 2010.
5. RG#5: 23 years old, just completed teacher education program in 2010.