



**TEACHER-STUDENT POWER RELATIONSHIPS
IN LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS: A COMPARATIVE
CASE STUDY IN ESL AND EFL CONTEXTS**

A Thesis

**Submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Award of
the Degree of Master of Arts (by Research) in Applied Linguistics**

by

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Abstract

The aim of this comparative case study is to investigate the representation and realisation of aspects of teacher-student power relationships (TSPR) by the teachers and students of an Australian ESL study centre and those of its Indonesian EFL counterpart in order to investigate the relevance of the power sharing concept in different contexts of second language learning.

This study is concerned with four research questions. These have been formulated in terms of (a) the contextual factors of TSPR, (b) the teachers' and students' perceptions of and experiences with the principal acts of TSPR, (c) the students' learning style preferences that reflect their power relational representation, and (d) the realisation of TSPR practices in classroom interactions in the Australian and Indonesian contexts.

Previous and current studies on student autonomy and empowerment (SA and SE), student-centred (language) learning (SCL), communicative language teaching (CLT) and TSPR are reviewed to provide a rationale for the investigation. The study proposes that power sharing issues should be 'embraced' comprehensively before taking further steps in applying such modern approaches as SCL and CLT in ESL and EFL pedagogy.

This study employs non-experimental methodology in collecting the data using interviews, questionnaires investigating TSPR and the students' learning style preferences, as well as classroom observation. The quantitative and qualitative data yielded were processed, analysed, presented and discussed interpretively in qualitative terms.

The findings of the study are expected to contribute more insights into the contextual factors worthy of consideration in applying modern approaches to ELT in different settings of teaching and learning, and to support the establishment of student autonomy as the central goal in learning and communicative competence in L2 pedagogy.

Dedication

To:

My late father **Rahman**,

who encouraged me to be like himself, a teacher.

My daughter **Adelaida**,

to whom I vowed to be the best father and teacher.

The brave Indonesian **Youth and Students**, true heroes of the *Reformasi* Movement, whose struggle and even martyrdom for a better Indonesia have strengthened my wish to be their comrade and teacher.

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c.a.k.

Adelaide, 29 October 1999

Declaration

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any degree or diploma in any university or other tertiary institution and, to the best of my knowledge and belief, contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference has been made in the text.

I give my consent to this copy of my thesis, when deposited in the University Library, being available for loan and photocopying.

Chairil Anwar Korompot

29 October 1999

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Abbreviations

This thesis contains the following abbreviations, which are presented here in alphabetical order together with what they stand for. Indonesian words or terms are italicised and their English translations are put between brackets.

ACA	After-Class Acts
AMES	Adult Migrant Education Service
BCA	Before-Class Acts
CALUSA	Centre for Applied Linguistics in the University of South Australia
CBSA	<i>Cara Belajar Siswa Aktif</i> (Student Active Learning)
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CUEC	CALUSA University Entrance Certificate
DCA	During-Class Acts
DL	Directed Learning
Dra.	<i>Doktoranda</i> (BA degree for female holders)
Drs.	<i>Doktorandus</i> (BA degree for male holders)
EBP	English for Business Purposes
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EBTC	English for Business and Travel Certificate
EFL	English as Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
ETC	English for Travel and Communication
ETS	English for Tertiary Studies
GIE	General Intensive Course
HE	High Exposure
IQN	Interview Question Number
LASS	Language and Study Skills
LE	Low Exposure
LOTE	Languages Other Than English
MATES	Malaysia-Australia Tertiary Education Scheme
M.Pd.	<i>Magister Pendidikan</i> (Master of Education)
NA	No Approval
NE	No Exposure
QIN	Questionnaire Item Number
SA	(1) Student Autonomy (2) Strong Approval (in Chapter 8 only)
SCL	Student Centred Learning
SCOLP	Student Control over (Language) Learning Process
SDL	Self-Directed Learning
SE	Student Empowerment
SGO	<i>Sekolah Guru Olahraga</i> (Physical Education Teachers' Training Senior High School)
S.Pd.	<i>Sarjana Pendidikan</i> (Bachelor of Education)

SPG	<i>Sekolah Pendidikan Guru</i> (Teachers' Training High School)
STKIP	<i>Sekolah Tinggi Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan</i> (College for Teachers' Training and Education Studies)
TEFL	Teaching of English as Foreign Language
TESOL	Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages
TL	Target language
TOEIC	Test of English for International Communication
TSPR	Teacher-Student Power Relationships
UEC (or CUEC)	(CALUSA) University Entrance Certificate
VHE	Very High Exposure
VSA	Very Strong Approval
WA	Weak Approval.

Part One

Introduction



Chapter 1

**A Study of Teacher-Student
Power Relationships in ESL and EFL Contexts**

1.0. Introduction

The first part of this chapter sets forth the rationale for an investigation into aspects of “teacher-student power relationships” (henceforth TSPR) involving teachers, students and interactions in the classrooms of two study centres that represent the second language (ESL) and foreign language (EFL) contexts of English language teaching (ELT). The second part of the chapter summarises the focus, aims, questions and limitations of the study.

1.1. Rationale

The teaching of English in whatever context nowadays is increasingly confronted with the challenge of creating and applying modern approaches to language teaching that can effectively foster the students’ communicative competence in the target language. This is coupled with a push towards a more dialogic and interactive environment, especially in the form of a ‘non-threatening’ teacher-student relationships, inside and outside of the classroom, that has been widely seen today as a communicative and, more importantly, humanistic approach to promoting L2 acquisition. In addition, this tendency is in line with L2 pedagogical theories that recognise the value of teacher-student interpersonal relationships and their effects on L2 teaching-learning activities.

According to Warschauer *et al.* (1996), the modern approaches include communicative language teaching, task-based learning, process approaches to writing and training in language learning strategies. The central goal of these approaches is to develop the students’ communicative competence and to enhance student autonomy (henceforth SA) as well as student control over the language learning process (SCOLP).

✓ Regarding SA as a key notion in this matter, Nunan (in Pemberton *et al.* [1996: 14]) argues that all teachers and students ought to work towards SA as a goal. The central idea has been that (a) establishing SA helps enhance the opportunities for maximising learning and its outcomes, and (b) students cannot be dependent on the teacher most of the time and the teacher cannot be expected to ‘spoon-feed’ the students all the time.

In this respect, SA and SCOLP are both aspects of *student empowerment* (henceforth SE) with all its pedagogical, curricular, political, sociocultural and interpersonal implications, whose importance in the (language) learning process has long been advocated by numerous humanist educators and psychologists, notably Freire (1970), Dewey (1944, in Robinson 1994) and Vygotsky (1978 in Warschauer *et al.* 1996: 3).

The above mentioned approaches embody a set of notions called *student-centred pedagogy* (O’Loughlin 1991) that has come to be regarded widely as the ‘new’ approach, as opposed to *teacher-centred pedagogy*, the traditional one (Dewey 1916; 1963, in Marjoribanks 1991: 89-107). The traditional approach is seen by many writers, particularly Robinson (1994), as lacking the teacher-student and/or student-teacher dialogical *interaction* (either verbal or non-verbal), that is the “crucial ingredient in a classroom” (p. 2), and thus not conforming to the attitudes and practices that promote empowerment and direction of greater democracy — the essentials of what she calls the *pedagogy of empowerment* (p. 157-159).

In terms of teacher-student classroom interaction, one of the central tenets that marks this shift to the new approach is that “learners and teachers conjointly address issues of moment to them while sharing, turn and turn about, the roles and functions of both learner and teacher” (Marjoribanks 1991: 94). This means that the teacher’s and students’ role, or in this case ‘power’, is acknowledged, because it is “inherent in knowledge production” (Imel 1995) and should therefore be exercised in a relational fashion (i.e. through classroom power sharing) to serve the purpose of affording the students increased and meaningful opportunities for learning that they deserve. According to Imel (1995), we should acknowledge that there is still a “power disparity between the teacher/facilitator and students”. This condition necessitates a power sharing process, which is referred to in this thesis as TSPR.

The disparity might be explained by the notion that TSPR work differently in different contexts, which, according to Wright (1987), is due to such factors as social role and status (including rights, duties, obligations, power, social distance), attitudes and beliefs (including social and personal values), as well as personality and motivation of the teachers and students involved in the process. These factors form part of what is described by Krashen (1982) as an 'affective filter' that may have an effect on learning process and its outcomes (in Lightbown & Spada 1993). The affective filter theory states that the success of a second language learner depends on the learner's feelings. Negative attitudes (including a lack of motivation or self-confidence and anxiety) are said to act as a filter, preventing the learner from making use of input, and thus hindering success in language learning (Richards *et al.* 1992: 10).

One way to go about this, I suppose, is by increasing the quantity and quality of verbal interaction, in addition to non-verbal interaction, between the teacher and students. According to Robinson (1994: 123), this helps the empowerment process to "humanize interaction", that is, to give caring, sharing and supporting pride of place in the classroom, and to allow each member of the [classroom] community their voice.

My point of view here is that classroom verbal interaction provides the participants with the opportunity to actually *use* the target language because it is used genuinely by the classroom community in teaching-learning-related activities. As Mician (1997: 136) puts it, the classroom is a context in which everyday pedagogical activities are associated with a wide range of communicative language uses. This, I assume, is a more effective and meaningful way for developing the *real* communicative language learning situation that may be lacking in certain contexts of learning (Ariyanto 1996).

In this study I consider ESL and EFL as two contrasting contexts of L2 learning from which different perspectives and practices of TSPR can be investigated, compared and then evaluated according to their contribution to L2 acquisition studies. Therefore, it is necessary to investigate aspects of classroom interaction that reflect TSPR in both contexts. These aspects include the teachers' and students' perception of and experiences with TSPR, which have been the subjects of a number of recent studies in language teaching.

For example, Robinson (1994), who was very much inspired by Freire's (1970) *liberation pedagogy*, studied four first grade classrooms and the interaction between the teachers and their students. The results of the case studies she conducted bring to life an *ethnography of empowerment* and examples of 'good teaching' and show better ways for students to learn and teachers to teach. Three aspects of interaction considered to be contributory to the classroom empowerment process are *reflective thinking*, *verbal interaction* (teacher-student, student-student, teacher-teacher, teacher-parent, teacher-researcher, researcher-student) and *non-verbal interaction* (touch, proximity, eye-contact and facial expressions, gestures, posture, appearance, environmental factors, chronemics, personal disclosures and sense of ownership).

Hausfather (1996) investigated one teacher's internal conflict while negotiating the shifting boundaries of TSPR and concluded by suggesting that students take an *inquisitory and active* roles during the lesson and that these were possible only if the boundaries of TSPR are shifted. In other words, some role changes for teachers and students within classrooms and schools were needed. In addition, he found that empowering student voice and limiting teacher control appeared to underlie advances in students' conceptions of knowledge. He thus showed how power relationships are indeed contributory to the shaping of the students' *intake* or what they count as knowledge.

Manke (1997) conducted ethnographic studies of three elementary school classes, their teachers and students. She concluded, through a thoughtful theorising of classroom power relationships, that *power* arises from interaction between teachers and students and is jointly constructed by all of the participants. She proposed a pattern of interaction called a "What Teachers and Students Can Do Here" structure that aims at reducing the level of teachers' responsibility for students' learning so that, among other things, the heavy psychological burden of their profession can be lightened. At the same time, the students, whose actions are said to determine what will eventually be counted as classroom knowledge, can be afforded more opportunities to take control of the learning process by pursuing their own agendas in more positive ways. This reduces the conflict of agendas with their teachers and gives them more time for cooperative and independent modes of action in which their teachers are contributors only.

Within the field of ELT or TESOL, Carroll (in Burton 1994: 134-152) attempted sharing classroom power by way of negotiating the curriculum with three groups of mostly Asian students in three courses. His account was based on the students' and his own reflective writings about the negotiation processes involved during the action research he conducted. It acknowledges that, even though many of the students were relatively unfamiliar with the student-centred process at the outset, they were eventually able, to varying degrees though, to engage in its independent activities and to get involved in changing aspects of the course.

These studies have addressed some of the fundamental issues of TSPR that I am dealing with here. They generally echo the notion that power relations in schools are reflective of the larger societal forces (Robinson 1994: 14; Manke 1997: 9; Cotterall 1999). These ideas are elaborated in this study. I shall look specifically at how these issues of TSPR are perceived and experienced by ESL and EFL teachers and students operating within their respective contexts of teaching and learning. In this study I am thus contrasting ESL and EFL in those contextual terms (linguistic, sociolinguistic, economic, personal, political, cultural, etc.) that are worthy of consideration when it comes to teaching methodology.

In an EFL context of learning such as Indonesia, students learn a foreign language in an entirely foreign setting. In such a learning situation, only formal language education in the classroom can provide them with more learning opportunities. This is because "they have few opportunities to 'acquire' the target language in informal settings" (Ariyanto 1997: 21), unless they have personal links with other speakers of English or, as in the case of LOTE students in Australia, "they go out of their way to establish personal relationships with target language speakers" (Mickan 1997: 3). This and many other sociocultural factors may be responsible for most Indonesian students' reliance on the teachers. Sunaryo (1997) addressed this issue by saying that "Classroom learning in Indonesia, in which instruction is the most important source of target language input, has made the teacher the most dominant person in language learning" (in Coleman *et al.* 1997: 184). This factor may also be responsible for strengthening the image of 'powerful' teachers, in not only instructional but also managerial aspects of EFL classroom life.

In Simic's view (1996: 25), EFL learning situations in Indonesia, as well as those prevalent in most other non-Western/Muslim cultures, have been described as conforming to the following stereotypical characteristics:

- formal, teacher-centred classroom setting
- passive, obedient students
- teacher-dominated classroom discourse

In her recent study of EFL education in Thai and Indonesian primary schools, Liando (1999) found that these stereotypes hold true to a large extent in the classrooms she went into.

On the other hand, in an ESL context of learning such as Australia, the students may come from countries where English is a foreign language. As Lewis (1996) indicates, they may have the "EFL learners' characteristics", i.e. that they are mostly teacher-centred. However, they are learning the target language from native-speaking teachers in the context where the language is spoken daily in the wider community. The classroom as well as the social environment out of class provide them with opportunities for the acquisition of the target language. This may lower the rate of their reliance on the teacher for information, and thus prevents the teacher from becoming too dominant. ESL learning, as Simic (1996) implied, has been thought to have the following stereotypical characteristics:

- informal, student-centred classroom setting
- active, critical students
- negotiation.

Referring back to Liando's work (1999), these so-called stereotypes were also prevalent in the Australian LOTE classrooms she observed.

One might conclude that if power sharing between teacher and students is desired, then EFL learning contexts such as those in Indonesia are unable to provide conducive learning conditions. In other words, the ideal TSPR can only occur in an ESL context such as Australia where all the necessary conditions are potentially available.

However, these stereotypes can be quite misleading. What needs to be taken into account are important issues such as the teachers' and students' personal views of and experiences with power sharing practices (i.e. what is acceptable and practicable) and the students' learning styles (i.e. whether they are more autonomy-oriented or authority-oriented) as well as how these are demonstrated in actual classroom activities. Besides, most of the studies on TSPR conducted so far have been carried out in the ESL context only, with very little reference to what happens in the EFL context. This study serves the purpose of filling the gap in our current understanding of the aspects mentioned above. It studies them as a 'package' in both contexts and then compares the findings.

1.1. Focus, Aims, Questions and Limitations of the Study

1.1.1. Focus

The focus of the study is Australian ESL and Indonesian EFL teachers' and students' 'representation' and 'realisation' of numerous aspects of TSPR in classroom-related activities. Representation is concerned with the teachers' and students' thoughts, perceptions and attitudes towards the issues of TSPR. Realisation is their actual practice in classroom activities.

Following Freeman (1990), Nunan (1993:1), in his study of ESL teachers' interactive decision making, argues that one must first understand the *thinking* (of the teachers and students) to make sense of their *practices*. Of equal importance, in my opinion, is that the teachers' and students' practice and experience can explain both their thinking and the role of the external forces that influence them. This study focuses on the aspects believed to be influencing the subjects' pattern of thinking and practice of TSPR within the two contexts.

1.1.2. Aims

The study is aimed at comparing and contrasting the representation and realisation of TSPR by the teachers and students of an Australian ESL study centre and its Indonesian EFL counterpart in order to investigate the relevance of the power sharing concept in different contexts of second language learning. The aims of this study are:

- To describe the principal and peripheral aspects related to TSPR that are currently perceived and experienced by the teachers and students in both contexts.
- To analyse these aspects in comparative terms with respect to their contextual circumstances.
- To propose these comparative aspects as factors to consider in creating and applying student-centred and communicative ELT approaches in both contexts.

1.1.3. Questions

This study poses the following questions:

- How are the contextual aspects related to TSPR perceived by the teachers in both contexts?
- To what extent do the teachers and students share their perceptions regarding the principal acts of power sharing in language classroom-related interactions that they should engage in or have engaged in?
- How do the students' learning style preferences show their perceptions of power relations?
- How have TSPR been practised or experienced in classroom interactions in both contexts?

1.1.4. Limitations

This study is designed to investigate the current perceptions and experiences of ESL/EFL teachers and students concerning the aspects of TSPR. It was conducted in two study centres representing ESL and EFL contexts of ELT, one in Australia and the other in Indonesia. Qualitative as well as quantitative data were collected employing non-experimental procedures. Different outcomes might have been obtained from teachers and students operating in *one context only* or from *action research* in either of the contexts or both

This study is concerned with ways to improve ELT specifically and L2 pedagogy generally. It acknowledges that, together with the teaching of a handful of other 'powerful' and 'imperialistic' languages, ELT has been partly held responsible for the demise of a large number of underprivileged languages throughout the world (see e.g. Phillipson 1992; Mühlhäusler 1993; Crystal 1997). Nonetheless, ELT is viewed in this

study as just like any other subject for instruction that needs improvement from time to time in order to enhance *learning*, which is the focus of any instructional activity, or to maximise *L2 acquisition*, which is the ultimate goal of L2 pedagogy. In addition, the major issues raised in this study have general pedagogical relevance and applicability in the teaching of 'small' or disadvantaged languages which, I believe, should not be excepted from the power relationship problems that are found in the teaching of more 'privileged' languages such as English. In other words, the detrimental effects of linguistic imperialism and ELT are acknowledged here but this issue is not addressed in further parts of this study.

1.2. How the Thesis Is Organised

The literature review is set out in two chapters. Chapter 2 presents a review of theories and studies on TSPR and Chapter 3 addresses the aspects TSPR in the theories of SA, SCL and CLT.

The methodological details of the study are described in three chapters. Chapter 4 outlines the research methods in general and gives a brief profile of the study locations, Chapter 5 specifies the locations, participants, events investigated and the data collection instruments in detail, and Chapter 6 elaborates on all the procedural steps undertaken during the fieldwork activities in the two study centres.

The data are presented and analysed in three chapters and discussed in one chapter. Chapter 7 sets out the results of the interview, Chapter 8 presents the results of Questionnaire A (which investigates TSPR), Chapter 9 presents those of Questionnaire B (which investigates the student-respondents' learning style preferences), and Chapter 10 presents the classroom observation data. Chapter 11 is devoted to discussing all the results. In Chapter 12, conclusions are drawn and recommendations set forth.

1.3. Summary

This study aims to investigate how ESL and EFL teachers and students operating in their respective contexts of teaching and learning perceive the aspects of TSPR. It also seeks to

examine their exposure to these aspects in their classroom activities. The study is meant to fill the gap in our current understanding of TSPR. TSPR, I assume, should characterise the application of CLT and SCL, or any current or future approach, method, and technique, in the field of ELT within either ESL or EFL contexts, or both.

Part Two

Literature Review

Chapter 2

**Literature Review:
Teacher-Student Power Relationships
in ESL and EFL Pedagogy**

Power is not an object that can be owned by anyone, not even by a teacher.
(Manke 1997: 1)

2.0. Introduction

This is the first of two chapters that deal with ‘classroom power relations’ (Manke 1997 — henceforth CPR), which I prefer to call ‘teacher-student power relationships’ (TSPR), as a separate phenomenon within the large body of literature on power relations, student autonomy (SA), student-centred learning (SCL) and communicative language teaching (CLT) approaches.

I am using ‘teacher-student’ in the CPR context to confine the concept to two notions. Firstly, it is *teacher-student* rather than *student-student* power relations that I am focusing on. The radical part of me actually prefers a *student-teacher* to *teacher-student* power relationship concept (Freire 1976: 67) because, while the former is alphabetically ordered, theoretically it reflects the shift of attention from teacher and teaching to student and learning in the current debates on education and especially language teaching. However, I have deliberately used ‘teacher-student’ to denote ‘initiated by the teacher for and with the student(s)’ (refer to section 2.2. for further discussion). Secondly, in spatial terms, power relationship takes place not only within the physical boundaries of a classroom but also outside them, and in temporal terms, it occurs before, during, and after the classroom processes. Taking these notions into account, throughout the thesis I have used TSPR to represent the whole concept of CPR.

I shall establish a rationale for TSPR in second/foreign language pedagogy by addressing two groups of major issues. The first group presents a background to the whole discussion and is illuminated with a brief account of my personal, academic, as well as professional experiences. Emphasising the value of interaction in language classrooms, the second group of issues sets forth the theoretical insights into what constitutes circumstances for language learning, classroom interaction in general and in second or foreign language teaching, and especially TSPR in English language teaching. A reference to a number of pedagogical and sociocultural factors that affect TSPR in both ESL and EFL contexts is also made. In addition, I shall present the key principles of TSPR drawn from the reviewed literature, which will be described further in detail in the next chapter.

I shall begin the review by placing TSPR within the discourse of classroom interaction and discussing context for second and/or foreign language learning. It should be noted, however, that in the ensuing discussion, L2 learning is placed within the notion of instructed language learning through classroom interaction. This means that it excludes language learning by individuals who undertake self-study/learning and individual tutoring.

2.1. Classroom Interaction: A Circumstance for L2 Learning

In my view, interaction in the language classroom follows principally what Flanders (in Marjoribanks 1991: 109) calls the ‘human interaction model’ in general education. As Flanders puts it, this model constitutes the continuous stream of behaviour occurring in the classroom as a series of individual *acts*. An act might consist of teacher-class, teacher-student, student-teacher, student-student contacts, or of a student acting upon an object. Given its human factor, this model synthesises the affective and cognitive aspects both of which have gained importance in language learning.

The learning of English either as a second and/or a foreign language (ESL/EFL) — the teachers and students of which are the participants of this study — is described under one single concept or terminology, i.e. L2 (second language) learning.

In educational terms, L2 learning (in this case: of ESL/EFL) is distinguished from L1 (first language) acquisition as it relies on formal instruction to varying degrees, involving both

teaching and learning processes in a formal setting. In English language learning, the degree of instruction required varies, depending upon whether it is ESL or EFL that is being learnt. It has often been assumed and proven that EFL learning in places such as Indonesia relies heavily on formal instruction to provide as many learning opportunities as possible. This is because, as Ariyanto (1996: 21) points out, the students have few opportunities to acquire the TL in an informal setting and thus rely on the teacher for linguistic information and input. This may mean a heavy emphasis on imparting as much linguistic input as possible, since this is inadequately available outside the classroom boundaries. So essential is formal instruction in EFL learning that Ariyanto even stresses that, in the absence of it, EFL students — except those who undertake self-study, of course — will never be able to learn the TL at all (p. 22). Although the claim remains open for debate, anecdotal evidence of English teaching-learning situations and conditions in Indonesia and other countries where English is a foreign language shows that it holds true to a large extent.

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ESL learning, such as in Australia, requires formal instruction as well. However, it has always been contrasted to EFL learning because it allows for acquisition to take place in an informal setting. This is due largely to the fact that the TL is spoken both inside and outside the classroom, within the community at large, which enables the ESL students to have a maximum exposure to English, reduce their dependence on the teacher for information, and thus enhance their learning achievement. In comparison, EFL learning lacks this acquisition environment, which is essential for maximum learning achievement (Ariyanto 1996: 21).

However, despite the distinction, both ESL and EFL learning contexts require formal classroom instruction, which is seen by Ellis (1994: 565) as “an attempt to intervene directly in the language learning process by teaching specific properties of the L2”. The term formal instruction, in a narrow sense, refers to grammar teaching, which in Ellis’ opinion (p. 611) strives to achieve cognitive goals (i.e. the development of the ‘contents’: linguistic and communicative competence). In broader terms, though, as Ellis points out further, formal instruction also has metacognitive goals to achieve, where the focus is set on the use of effective learning strategies (the managerial aspect). In my view, fully successful language learning needs to achieve these two sets of goals and the nature of the classroom interaction plays a crucial role in developing the students’ skills in mastering both the content and management of learning. It is within this instructed setting of language learning (Lightbown

& Spada 1995) that the quality and quantity of interaction between the teacher and students determines the quality and quantity of learning that take place.

ESL and EFL learning share basic pedagogical characteristics because in principle they are considered to be L2 learning. This means that current theories and practices of L2 learning can be applied to the both of them. The theories and practices, which include those concerning aspects relevant to this study (i.e. SA, SCL and CLT), have in the past decades provided us with insightful ideas about how best to maximise L2 learning in any context. One thing they have in common, based on my observation, is a consensus on the importance of affording the students some classroom circumstances that are conducive to L2 learning.

Among such circumstances is a classroom atmosphere which provides the students with as many interactional opportunities as they can get (Ellis 1994: 26; Nunan 1988: 25) . During the interaction, the students should be able to participate in and to take charge of the many linguistic and managerial phases and aspects of their own language learning. In other words, it is a learning atmosphere that promotes both the students' communicative proficiency in the TL, which is the ultimate goal of language learning, and the development of the students' autonomy in or 'ownership' of the learning process (Dudley-Marling & Searle 1995: v; Boomer 1982: 134), which is increasingly seen now as the ultimate pedagogical goal in education in general.

While communicative proficiency in L2 has received much attention during the 1980's and early 1990's, the development of SA is an *interactive constructivist* point of view (Manke 1997) in line with the current theories and practices in language and literacy education, in which student independence, autonomy, and choice — or what has commonly been referred to as ownership — are increasingly emphasised. This view of ownership in learning opposes diametrically the behaviorist learning theories with their 'transmission approach' to teaching, where learning is "shaped by the initiatives of those around learners who 'teach' them. In such a view of learning, the understanding 'belongs' to those who pass it on and shape it in learners" (Dillon *et al.*, in Dudley-Marling & Searle 1995: 191). Such an approach is seen to be similar to Freire's (1976) metaphor of the 'banking approach' in teaching, where:

...the teacher tries to make deposits of knowledge in the students' heads, to be withdrawn at exam time. Such approaches leave little room for learners to reconstruct new

knowledge, and eventually to 'own' their learning. Indeed, the ownership of the knowledge clearly remains with the teacher, who 'rents' it to the learners

(Dillon *et al.*, in Dudley-Marling & Searle 1995: 192).

Freire (1976: 66) makes it very clear that those committed to libertarian education must reject this banking approach in its entirety because it mirrors oppressive society; the teacher and the students are placed in the following dichotomy, which, for some perhaps, may seem too extreme:

Table 2.1. Dichotomy of teacher and student roles in 'banking approach' (adapted from Freire 1976: 59)

Teacher	Students
teaches knows everything thinks talks disciplines chooses and enforces choice acts choose program content confuses authority of knowledge with professional authority is Subject of learning process	are taught know nothing are thought about listen—meekly are disciplined comply have the illusion of acting through action of teacher (who are not consulted) adapt to it have no freedom to oppose are mere objects

By being in favour of such a constructivist viewpoint, I have deliberately engaged in (and am, quite frankly, biased towards) the effort of repositioning the students' status as the owners of learning, whose involvement in the classroom processes should be built on a cooperative basis. In order to build this basis, the format of teacher-student interaction must be first balanced (and this may mean *reformed*) by reducing the teacher's traditional dominance over the classroom power and by increasing the students' involvement in the classroom processes. In other words, the classroom interaction pattern will need to be a mutual or collaborative act of communication, especially if it is directed towards oral communication skills development. Mickan (1999: 2-3) suggests a useful reference to support the above view. He claims that there are three factors, among many others, that contribute to the development of the students' oral communication skills. These are "factors over which teachers have at least some control and which also constitute part of social interaction in classrooms":

- (a) access to comprehensible texts (his version of Krashen's 'comprehensible input'), which he regards as an essential condition for the whole process of oral language development.

Following Halliday and Hasan (1985), Mickan has used ‘text’ in functional linguistic terms, i.e. as a complete linguistic interaction, either written or spoken, to refer to spoken texts or discourse which the students are able to understand (Krashen 1985);

- (b) collaborative speaking opportunities, which enable the students to learn to speak and involve collaborative acts of listening and speaking;
- (c) analysis of spoken language, the use of which enables the students to examine or study how teacher and students speak together, take turns, initiate topics, ask for clarification, and so on. (Adapted from Mickan 1999: 2-3.)

To sum up, in creating a learning environment that promotes L2 learning, especially in the EFL context, collaborative speaking opportunities should be seen as a classroom interactional event that provides the students with both access to comprehensible texts and analysis of spoken language. In my view, the establishment of TSPR is a precondition for establishing this conducive classroom atmosphere.

2.2. Classroom Power Relations (TSPR)

2.2.1. The Definition

The concept of power relations in language classrooms has not been clearly defined, perhaps due to lack of interest in its relevance to language teaching and learning. However, its closest synonym might be power-sharing — a system in which political power (in this case: classroom power) is shared by different groups (i.e. the teacher and students).

In a work considered to be her important contribution to the field, Manke (1997) proposes a definition of TSPR to using a functional metaphor of ‘building a physical structure’ called “*What Teachers and Students Can Do Here*” (p. 6; my italics). She suggests that this imaginary structure has TSPR as its resident. Its major components — the supply of which is unlimited — are the actions of its participants, which are also unlimited in terms of the space to build the structure. All members have unlimited size and shape of contributions to the agenda that they create together. Nevertheless, they have rules that regulate what one may and may not engage in. As they continue to build and improve the structure, these builders shape and limit one another’s actions in various ways and contribute individually to the building of the structure. Throughout the process, their individuality, personality, points of

view, needs, personal information and experience, blended with some shared cultural influences, shape their individual actions. In this case, the cultural aspects are considered to have a broad influence on the structure being created. In short, the participants, i.e. the teacher and students, operate in a *mutual* power relationship to create the building.

My view of power relations shares — in somewhat operational terms — the gist of Manke's metaphor. It is — ideally — a situation that occurs in an interaction characterised by an equal distribution or share of control over the discourse of the interaction between the parties involved. In the language learning context, it happens when the teacher and students share, in a fair and consistent fashion, all their classroom responsibilities before, during, and after the class sessions, in an effort to provide the students with as many learning opportunities as possible. In its idealistic — perhaps ambitious — form, power relations in a language classroom strives to develop autonomy in learning by incorporating aspects of teacher-student interaction from SCL and CLT approaches.

The definitions given above are meant to set the background for an outline of my personal understanding of TSPR, based on my personal experiences and review of selected relevant literature, all of which are dealt with in detail in the ensuing sections.

2.2.2. The Background: Some Personal Perspectives

I became interested in the idea of classroom power relations for a number of reasons, based for the most part on my personal experiences — as an individual, a long-time student of EFL and ESL, a teacher of EFL, and a postgraduate student of applied linguistics. The first part of the following sub-sections describes briefly how these experiences brought me to the concept. The second part focuses on some theoretical points of view regarding classroom power relations, in general education and, specifically, in English language education.

2.2.2.1. My 'Ideology'

Personally, I am very much attracted to and have always been in favour of the ideas of humanism. To me, humanism exists to strive for liberty, equality and democracy, and like Manke (1997: 4), I shy away from the concepts of control, authority, discipline, management, boss, tyranny, and even fascism. Reaching adulthood in the 1990's, I am part of an idealistic Indonesian young generation that suffered from the dictatorship of the New Order Regime. I

feel I am part of the massive, nation-wide *Reformasi* movement of the Indonesian students and intellectuals in 1997-1998 that eventually forced the collapse of the 32-year rule of the authoritarian Soeharto — who was brought to power partly by the same kind of movement against Soekarno (Indonesia's first president) four years before my birth in 1970. As a citizen, I have an ambitious dream of a totally reformed Indonesia that operates within an entirely new paradigm in all its affairs as a nation. This new Indonesia should have, among others, an education system that *liberates*, among many other things, the way teachers and students look at each other and interact within their educational establishments, including their classroom activities. I found out later that this view has been conceptualised quite philosophically in Freire's (1976) 'ideology' of liberation pedagogy.

2.2.2.2. 'Pour Vous, Sur Vous, Sans Vous': Five Years at IKIP Manado

As a TEFL trainee at IKIP Manado, a teachers' college in Indonesia from which I had my Bachelor degree, between 1988 and 1993 — during which I was very much fascinated with the issues of democracy and democratisation of my country, I experienced an undemocratic '*pour vous, sur vous, sans vous*' kind of teaching-learning situation. It was a situation where the teachers made all the decisions regarding classroom processes; where students were (systematically made) aware of the stigma and even danger of challenging the teacher's 'authority' in terms of the subject matter and assessment — as it could lead to, e.g. total failure from the course of study. It was also a situation where even my haircut and choice of casual clothes had to conform to some unwritten regulations made by some of the teachers — to which I had no say whatsoever. During this period, I was a student wrestling with the search for an alternative concept for life in the classroom.

2.2.2.3. A Year at Michigan College, Manado

Beginning teaching EFL at Michigan College, a private English school in Manado, just two months after graduation, I found myself teaching students who had actually made it possible for me to get the job! Indeed, at one point during the recruitment, my teaching skills were assessed by the school Director and students of three different classes. With the 'arrogance of youth' (Nunan, in Pemberton *et al.*: 1996: 14), I thought that my students had to study what I wanted to teach them in *my* way (as that was how I was taught and trained) but I was wrong. Totally aware of their rights in the school, some of the students showed resistance and even rejection to my teaching agenda and methods. This later reminded me of my own ideals about the alternative classroom interaction. After doing some intro- and retrospection,

receiving institutional support as well as listening to students' criticism, I was finally able to formulate the alternative concept I was dreaming about during the college years and put it into practice.

So, for the next year, I experienced teaching in a school where the students and their learning were high on the school agenda. Treating the students as *consumers* — who had literally paid a lot of money for the courses — whose needs and satisfaction must be met and guaranteed, the school systematically directed the teachers to become the students' best friends — a concept which, of course, had many pedagogical, managerial, and personal implications in practice. It was here that I engaged in applying what I later found out to be the learner-centred approach (see e.g. Nunan 1988) in its real sense, from the point of view of a teacher (although, due to certain managerial reasons, the Director still single-handedly decided on course materials and timetable). The application worked to a large extent in the school due to such ideal factors as smaller classes, emphasis on students' communicative competence development, and students' involvement in decision making and assessment of my teaching performance.

2.2.2.4. Two Years at STKIP Gorontalo

A year later, because of an ambition to be a lecturer, I left the private school and took up a stint teaching post at STKIP Gorontalo — from which I later came to Australia. This was a completely different situation from the private school — very much like the teachers' college I graduated from, as both were run by the central government. Applying what I *learned* from the private English school to my new students — a few of whom were older than I was, who seemed to long for some student-friendly teachers, I found my personal (and to some extent, student-centred) approaches quite popular with them. This was shown by the relatively positive results of an evaluation questionnaire that I personally devised and distributed to all the students at the end of each semester.

My success in establishing good rapport with the students, however, was not followed by success in other areas. Due to (these stereotypes:) large class sizes, heaps of extra administrative duties, busy teaching schedule — e.g. having to teach at least four subjects in a semester, limited instructional and learning resources, not to mention low salary, etc., I had to resort to a large degree of unilateral decision making regarding many essential classroom

activities. Nonetheless, this was a period which saw me strive to be a student-centred teacher in an institutionally centralised and teacher-centred environment.

2.2.2.5. The CALUSA Experience

My postgraduate years in the University of Adelaide began with a five-week LASS training at CALUSA, during which I experienced student-centred practices from a different angle, i.e. as a student. However, this was not the most inspiring facet of the whole process.

Part of the training was a small research project, which brought me to encounter Wajnryb's (1992) *Classroom Observation Tasks*. Wajnryb's short yet inspiring account on classroom power (pp. 119-121) outlines some theoretical, practical, and reflective issues essential to the idea of classroom power relations in language teaching and learning situations. Her entire work inspired me to focus more on ESL and EFL classroom power issues. The list of questions she proposes for investigating language classroom power (see Table 2.3.), which is originally meant for classroom observation purposes, has been the main authentic source for my *Questionnaire A* (see also section 5.3.1.1., Chapter 5) and classroom observation checklist. This was the period which saw me engage seriously in issues of classroom power relations within the realm of such concepts as SCL, SA, and CLT. I have formulated these issues in the following review of relevant literature.

2.2.3. Some Theoretical Perspectives of TSPR

2.2.3.1. A General Point of View

The classroom is traditionally — perhaps, stereotypically — seen as a place where the teacher imparts knowledge and the students learn; where teacher 'knows' and the students 'don't know' and their reason for being there is to 'find out' (Wajnryb 1992: 119). While this view is culture-bound to some extent, as Wajnryb suggests — meaning that it is very much the case in some traditional societies, especially where teachers are culturally very respected and, at the same time, "the students expect the teacher to hold all the decision-making power about the learning process" — this view is shared by those in modern societies as well (*cf.* Manke 1997: 2).

The above view certainly invests a great deal of power in the teachers and seems to deny the fact that the students, just like the teachers, as Allwright and Bailey (1991: 18) suggest, do

not go into the classroom empty-handed. While the teacher brings life, learning and teaching experiences, the learners bring with them their learning and life experiences into the classroom, their own reasons for being there, and their needs. These 'learning agendas' are addressed by Boomer (1982: 135-136), who also reports the results of a study on the many aspects that average students in Australia consistently considered to be favourable to their learning process.

Nunan (1988: 23) shares Allwright and Bailey's viewpoint, with a special reference to a study of adult learning principles by Brundage and MacKeracher (1980), which concludes that "adult learners are profoundly influenced by past learning experiences, present concerns and future prospects. They are less interested in learning for learning's sake than in learning to achieve some immediate or not too far distant life goals". These views have obviously placed the teachers' and students' roles on an equal footing — and I would add, status. This, however, is not to suggest that the vital role of the teachers and their expertise should be dismissed.

A teacher indeed has a vital role in the students' learning as well as in classroom processes. Moore (1995: 4-6) has pointed out that there are at least three important roles a single teacher can play in this regard. These are (a) instructional expert, the person who plans, guides, and evaluates learning; (b) manager, the person who orders and structures the learning environment; and (c) counsellor, a sensitive observer of human behaviour. None of these roles, however, should justify the claim that a teacher is the most powerful person in the classroom or in the learning process. The teacher has a socially described role with duties and responsibilities, and the role is bound up with power relationships in the community. Besides, a distinction should be made between the teacher's classroom role and their contribution to learning, i.e. the teacher does not control learning because the students are in charge of it, they can resist or reject instruction — "there are no relations of power without resistances" (Foucault 1980: 140). My experience at Michigan College Manado shows that this view holds true. One of the experts who strongly advocates the view is Manke (1977), who is credited as the first author who adopted the constructivist theory of classroom power relations.

Manke attacks the radical viewpoint of Willard Waller (1932), an early sociologist of education, who wrote: "Children are certainly defenseless against the machinery with which

the adult world is able to enforce its decisions: the result of the battle [between teachers and students] is foreordained” (p. 196, in Manke 1997: 1). Although Waller’s statement might not be the best starting point, Manke sees it as reflecting our traditional understanding of classroom power. She establishes her view that the power relations should be built by the teachers and students together (see also Boomer 1982: 137) and proposes three objections to Waller’s statement:

Firstly, power is *not* an object that can be owned by anyone, not even by a teacher. In a classroom context, it is a structure of relations in which teachers and students can build or participate (Manke 1997: 1; see also Allwright & Bailey 1991: 18). Secondly, teaching has always been seen by many as a stressful, burdening profession, due to the many responsibilities of teachers. Waller’s statement implies that the teachers are the only ones who should be held responsible for what happens in the classroom because they are the only ones who have power, thus making the burden even heavier, which, of course, is not fair for the teachers. Thirdly, classroom power cannot be owned — teachers and students should share it. Moreover, teachers who perceive classroom interaction as a ‘battle’, as suggested in Waller’s statement, will always focus their attention only on owning classroom power (adapted from Manke 1997.: 2). This objection implies, in my view, a strong demand for *liberating* (Freire 1976) not only the students but also teachers from what I call ‘classroom authoritarianism’ as well the burden of responsibilities that come with or are implied by it (Nunan 1988).

To justify the above viewpoints, it is desirable to look closely at what actually happens in the language classroom during — ideally, even before and after — the teaching and learning processes. Gaies (1980) sees the classroom as the crucible, that is “the place where teachers and learners come together and language learning, we hope, happens. It happens, when it happens, as a result of the reactions among the elements that go into the crucible — the teachers and the learners” (in Allwright & Bailey 1991: 18). These reactions happen as a result of teacher-student classroom interactions, which will be discussed in the next subsection. Indeed, it is interaction that underlies the aspects of classroom life which Manke refers to as the four key ideas about classroom power derived from the literature on power and interaction:

1. Power belongs to both teacher and students. Just as teachers have interactional resources that affect how students act, students use their own resources to shape teachers' behaviour.
2. Human interaction creates a context in which further interaction occurs. The actions of participants are shaped by the actions of those around them — both teachers and students.
3. Teachers and students bring their own agendas to the classroom — agendas with potential for significant conflict. For their own reasons, they often conceal these agendas beneath a public shared agenda of cooperation or perhaps beneath some other shared agenda.
4. Some of the resources teachers and students use as they build a structure of power relationships can be found in the area of discourse; teachers (and students) choose from an array of interactional resources as they construct classroom power relationships.

(Manke 1997: 7)

To sum up, I have summarised Manke's (1997) proposition in shorter terms, so that by referring to each of the four factors above respectively, it can be suggested that TSPR in classroom interactions are dictated by the respective (a) interactional resources, (b) interactional actions, (c) classroom agendas, and (d) discourse strategies that they bring into the classroom.

2.2.3.2. Classroom Interaction and Language Learning

To be able to develop their linguistic capability optimally, students need sufficient access or exposure to the TL through interactive communication. Such access does more than provide them with practice in the use of the language, because it also allows them to negotiate meaning, through which “they develop their discourse skills and build their grammatical and lexical resources in order to achieve understanding and collaboratively to build meaning” (Mickan 1999: 4). The classroom has the potential to provide these opportunities, especially when the teacher and the features of the students' classroom language use are collaboratively exploited for learning purposes.

Interaction, in Allwright and Bailey's (1991) opinion, is obviously not something one does to other people, but something people (in this case, teachers and students) do together (Boomer 1982: 137), collectively or, more precisely, cooperatively, because both parties are equally entitled to a fair share of power over each other. As the following quotation illustrates:

In a classroom, of course, it is usually considered normal for the teacher to ‘run the show’ — to make many of the managerial decisions about who should talk, to whom, on what topic, in what language, and so on, but none of this alters the fact that everything depends on the learner's co-operation.... In a sense, the learners have power of veto over any of

our attempts, as teachers, to manage interaction as if we were in sole charge, and their power is still there even if they choose, for the most part, not to use it

(Allwright & Bailey 1991: 19)

In a language classroom, interaction (including contributions such as turns, questions, initiation of topics by either the teacher or the students, etc.) plays a very significant role as it helps foster communicative competence, the very skill which language teaching and learning are basically striving to develop. Classroom language use, which is an important feature of classroom interaction, can contribute greatly to this effort, because it “makes evident the extent to which the language user demonstrates his ability to use his knowledge of linguistic rules for effective communication” (Widdowson 1978: 3, cited in Ellis 1994: 727). Ellis holds that, through language use, learners (and, I would add, teachers) convey meaning via the process of constructing discourse (p. 13). As an EFL student/teacher myself, I have first hand experience of how this discourse construction results in the occurrence of learning, i.e. acquisition of L2 discourse elements. However, when it is dominated by a certain element in the interaction (e.g. the teacher), language use can turn out to be counter-productive to the learning process (Ellis 1994: 227-28).

Research has shown that, while classroom interaction should provide collaborative speaking opportunities, teacher speech (often referred to as ‘teacher talk’ [Chaudron 1988: 8]) is still found to be a dominant feature of classroom talk which limits the students’ opportunities to speak the TL (Mickan 1999: 6-8). This factor supplements four out of fourteen other factors of classroom language use that Mickan has drawn from the works of Chaudron (1988), Mickan (1995; 1998), and Tsui (1995), which I consider relevant to the topic of this study. These include:

- Learners’ spoken contributions are predominantly very short and usually in response to teacher initiated topics;
- Teachers ask questions to which they already know answers, i.e. to practice language rather than to create meaning with the students;
- The register of classroom language use is academic and formal (Tarone and Swain 1995), which may make it difficult for learners to join in;
- Learners are not provided with the discourse elements for participation in collaborative meaning-making, i.e. they are not taught the discourse elements for asking questions, initiating topics, terminating discussions and so on (Clyne *et al.* 1995: 153).

(Mickan 1999: 6-8)

Tsui (1995: 7) has reinforced the above view by emphasising that, in first language learning, the language produced by the students, the kind of interaction generated and hence the kind of learning that takes place are affected by the teacher's language use. Following Lemke (1985: 1-2), Freeman (in Nunan 1992: 56) also lends some support to this view. In other words, the more dominant the teacher is in using the language for interaction, the fewer learning opportunities are made available to the students. To illustrate this phenomenon, Tsui refers to a study by Wells (1986) that compares children's language at home and at school. Wells found that children (students) in school speak with adults (teachers) much less than they do at home, get fewer speaking turns and ask fewer questions. In addition, the meanings they express are of a smaller range and the sentences they use are syntactically much simpler (Tsui 1995: 7). According to Tsui, the reason was that:

teachers do most of the talking in the classroom, determine the topic of talk, and initiate most of the questions and requests. As a result, students are reduced to a very passive role of answering questions and carrying out the teacher's instructions. Wells also found that, while parents often incorporate meanings offered in children's utterances, teachers tend to develop meanings that they themselves have introduced into the conversation, and expect students to follow the teacher's line of thinking rather than the other way round.

(Tsui 1995: 7)

Apart from the teacher talk factor, as Mickan (1990: 10) suggests further, at least some patterns of language use in classroom interaction are indeed artificial (e.g. the materials for student dialogues) and are different from those in social settings outside of the classroom boundaries. He reinforces this by using a sociolinguistic point of view to show how teacher talk relates to the functions of class management, organisation of learning, content teaching and socialising. As he puts it:

If we view the classroom sociolinguistically, we see the language used in the classroom as contextually determined by the social requirements of teaching and learning. The classroom is a context of institutional language use, which has distinctive patterns of speech stemming from the roles and functions of teachers and learners. The school is a normal social setting with distinctive patterns of discourse, in which the discourse of the context is part of the power and purpose of the cultural situation.

(Mickan 1999: 10)

The above phenomenon appears in the following example of the initiation-response-feedback (IRF) exchange, which is a typical pattern of teacher-student interaction in traditional classes, where the focus is on *transmission of information* (van Lier 1996: 149).

Teacher: What is your name? (Initiation)

Students: My name is Peter. (Response)

Teacher: Good! (Response).

(Mickan 1999: 8)

In normal situations, this three-part exchange does not happen, or, more precisely, is not socially acceptable in contexts other than the classroom, e.g. between parent and child, at the market, in a meeting, etc. Mickan, however, prefers to see some of the features in the exchange as “not necessary in comparable spoken exchanges out of class” (p. 7), and according to van Lier (1996: 149), they are obviously *designed for instruction*. On van Lier’s own count, IRF exchanges constitute between 50 and 60 per cent of the secondary-school data in Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), about the same is estimated by Mehan (1979) for his primary-school data, and up to 70 per cent in Wells’ (1993: 2) data (who fails to quote sources for this figure).

The example shows how we can view the classroom as a different social context with its own type of social activity. Just as any other activity in a different type of context, classroom interaction determines what is socially acceptable within its context. (This and the other factors mentioned previously seem to suggest that the classroom cannot provide the type of interaction which promotes L2 learning.)

However, following Mickan’s (1999: 8) suggestion, the factors do not necessarily constitute the whole picture of classroom talk and opportunities for L2 learning. He implies that a more effective teaching method would be one that emphasises real-life communication; one that creates a classroom context of authentic language use that promotes the goal of learning to speak the TL in contexts outside of the classroom (p. 9). What Mickan has in mind is communicative language teaching (CLT). A similar view is shared by Ariyanto (1996: 48), in a study of Indonesian EFL teacher-trainees’ communicative competence, who also argues that the CLT method can help reduce the students’ mental block and dependency on the teacher.

As far as the factors of classroom language suggested by Mickan are concerned, I view the establishment of TSPR as a relevant strategy within a package of classroom policies that involves the development of SA, SCL and CLT, in dealing with the possible counter-

productive problems those factors can cause in classroom interaction and in acquisition of L2 elements.

2.2.3.3. Interaction in Foreign Language Classrooms

In his 'guidebook' to student-centred foreign language teaching (FLT), Papalia (1976) reminds us that FLT is a process which involves interaction, communication, personal contact, a deep understanding of the student, as well as the teacher's competencies in working with different kinds of students. In my view, Papalia's interactionist suggestion — which, following Ellis (1994: 244), is "more social in orientation" — is worth looking at in this regard as it implies the need to actually develop interpersonal relations between the teacher and students (see also Nunan 1988: 25) inside and outside the classroom, before, during, and after classroom routines and activities. NB

In relation to the above statement, Tsui (1995: 12) proposes a relevant argument. Unlike other subjects' classrooms, she argues, a language classroom has a distinctive characteristic because the language is both the *content* and *medium* of instruction. This explains why the language classroom needs a great deal of teacher-student interaction. It is only through interaction, through the myriad facets of major classroom routines — listening to the teacher's instructions and explanations, expressing their views, answering questions, and carrying out tasks and activities, etc. (Tsui 1995: 12) — that the students internalise as well as practice the language. (Classroom interaction plays an even more important role in foreign language learning contexts where the students' exposure to the TL is simply not or seldom available outside the classroom. The classroom is therefore a major source of the TL input for the students.)

The above statement may well be disputed by Krashen, who doubts the usefulness of classroom instruction in providing what he calls 'conscious learning' as opposed to 'naturalistic acquisition' of the TL through interaction (Tsui 1995: 12) or 'on the street' (Lightbown & Spada 1995: 69), which is assumed by many as more effective. However, by referring to a study by Long in 1983 that observes how advanced students had relative success in instructional settings over those who acquired the language naturally, Tsui argues that instruction does have an important role to play in language acquisition — that it does make a difference. By implication, classroom instruction will have to include interactional

activities that allow as many opportunities as possible for the teacher and students to engage in communication in all its aspects.

In my view, this can be achieved — ideally — when TSPR (in which the teacher shares power) are established between the teacher and students. In practice, however, this will certainly have many implications for language teaching and learning activities as well as the type of TSPR that eventuates.

2.2.4. TSPR and ELT: Some Pedagogical Considerations

In whatever professional context they operate, teachers have multifaceted responsibilities (pedagogical, personal, social, cultural, political, financial, legal, managerial, etc.). According to Lemlech (1988: 3-19), these include:

- Organize procedures and resources;
- Arrange the environment to maximise efficiency;
- Anticipate potential problems;
- Set classroom routines and standards and communicate these to students;
- Monitor compliance with standards and rules by teaching and reinforcing them, helping students to accept and understand them;
- Preplan instruction, anticipating students' needs for materials, assistance, and movement;
- Analyze tasks and learning experiences to anticipate time allotment, involvement, and task constraints;
- Model appropriate social behavior;
- Plan situations in which students will work together to achieve a common goal;
- Teach interpersonal skills;
- Ensure that students are successful in their group work;
- Individualize and personalize instruction;
- Give students opportunities to move around the classroom;
- Check students' understanding of assignment instructions and of work in progress;
- Verify students' short- and long-term accomplishments;
- Check up on student behavior.

(Cited in Manke 1997: 148-149).

Manke (p. 148) calls this an amazing list of teacher responsibilities. Indeed, it is amazing as it reflects the heavy burden of all the ideals associated with pedagogical endeavours teachers are responsible for, as well as the enormous power they can assume when affecting all of them.

An important pedagogical aspect implied in the above list is decision making, which most teachers would probably claim to be, or, in some contexts, perhaps, have to accept as, one of their major responsibilities. The degree of decision making might vary from one context of learning to the other. However, it is being in charge of classroom decision making that seems to invest much classroom power in the teachers, “many of whom assume that classroom power, as well as the responsibility for learning success, are fixed in their hands” (Deller 1990; Leather and Rinvoluceri 1989, cited in Wajnryb 1992: 119), no matter what the teaching-learning context is.

Table 2.2. Procedures in language classroom - “unit of work” (adapted from Macaro 1997: 219).

Teacher	Pupil might...
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • chooses a topic • decides what the learning objectives will be • decides on structures and vocabulary • selects materials: textbook; text; cassette; video; visuals; realia • makes additional materials: worksheets; OHT's; gamecards • decides which will be classwork and which will be homework • decides whether <i>all</i> pupils will do <i>all</i> the activities • decides upon and devises some activities which will extend the more able • decides how the classroom will be organised • decides on any groupings: friendship; ability; gender; random • decides how much (if any) L1 will be used • decides what L2 the learners will use; how often; how structured the sequences; in what order; medium or message oriented • introduces some new language using own voice • plays tape recordings • practices structures and vocabulary using teacher-pupil question and answer • organises a game • organises communicative oral exchanges (e.g. pair work) • organises non-communicative writing • organises communicative writing • monitors language learning • assesses language learnt • diagnoses learning difficulties and problems • evaluates unit of work and teaching 	

Macaro (1997: 171.) presents a detailed list of what language teachers of ‘all levels of experience’ would recognise as being common to their practice (see Table 2.2.). Without implying any criticism towards this ‘unit of work’, Macaro describes the procedures as reflecting how heavy is the emphasis on teacher’s decision making; so heavy that most teachers usually fail to realise how little time they have given their students to be involved in

the whole process. Even Macaro admits that he himself has had to adopt the procedures many times often, due to time constraints, with less elaboration. In my view, this ‘excuse’ may, on the one hand, explain his ‘reluctance’ to criticise this unit of work in the first place, and on the other hand, point out most teachers’ difficulty in actualising what they themselves ‘preach’. Indeed, for most teachers, regardless of their points of view on TSPR, being in control of the classroom processes, such as those suggested in Macaro’s list, is seen as ‘more comfortable’ for them (Dr. Frans Liefink, former Director of CALUSA, personal communication). One of the reasons is that, in classrooms where a ‘balance of power’ exists, some risks are involved in that less of the lesson is predictable, less can be planned and more is spontaneous (Wajnryb 1992: 121).

I have also found that Macaro’s proposition appeals to my personal experiences. As a student, it was not until I had been in Australia that I experienced being given the opportunity to have a say in or to be in charge of a number of classroom routines stated or implied in Macaro’s list. One of these was a first-in-a-lifetime opportunity in 1996 to assess my CALUSA and IBP lecturers’ performance at the end of the courses, which to me was really inspiring. As a teacher of English, especially during the period of my obsession with innovative teaching methodology, I noted helplessly as my attempts to delegate some of my responsibilities to the students had to come face to face with institutional shortcomings which, I believe, if not economically motivated in a certain setting, stemmed from the political top-down approach in most situations in the Indonesian political system, including the educational management network.

Macaro’s unit of work has clearly set out the technical as well as managerial procedures usually undertaken in a language classroom. This appears to be more detailed than that of Wajnryb (1992:120; see Table 2.3. below), which is merely a list of managerial classroom processes worthy of close attention during observation of power in a language classroom, and of Lemlech (1988: 3-19, in Manke 1997: 148-149), presented in the beginning of this subsection.

Table 2.3. List of questions from Wajnryb (1992: 120); adapted from Deller (1990).

Classroom processes	T	S	T/S
1. Who chooses the aims? 2. Who chooses the language and/or skills focus? 3. Who chooses the topic(s) and activities? 4. Who chooses and prepares the materials? 5. Who chooses the seating arrangements? 6. Who writes on the board? 7. Who cleans the board? 8. Whom do the students speak to? 9. Who creates the pairs or groups? 10. Who decides when to stop an activity? 11. Who operates the equipment? 12. Who decides which questions or problems in the lesson are explored? 13. Who chooses the vocabulary to be learned? 14. Who gives meaning for words? 15. Who spells out new words? 16. Who gives explanations? 17. Who asks questions? 18. Who answers student questions? 19. Who repeats what is said if others do not hear it? 20. Who creates the silences? 21. Who breaks the silences? 22. Who checks the work? 23. Who chooses the homework?			

However, in my view, the three models they propose have one thing in common in that they imply:

1. How enormous the power of a teacher can be when assuming some, let alone all, of the prescribed classroom-related responsibilities.
2. The importance of, probably even the value in, teachers sharing their instructional responsibilities with the students. The models, particularly Macaro's, with all their details and relevance to the language classroom situation in any context, may serve to supplement Manke's (1997) whole concept of classroom power relations, which lacks such a straightforward presentation of details.
3. A suggestion for the teachers to initiate the sharing process as it would be unfair to expect the students, not to mention those being educated or having been educated in a teacher-centred learning environment, to do so. While it is true that TSPR should be established by the teachers and students together, as Manke (1997: 2) suggests, the systematic planning of the initiation, construction, and maintenance of TSPR — in most cases — lies in the hands of the teachers. This view of the teacher's role is also advocated strongly by de López (1989).

Despite all this, however, Wajnryb (1992: 121) and Mican (April 1999, personal communication) have underlined that it is essential within the TSPR discourse to analyse further such questions as: Which classroom responsibilities are the teacher's? Which can be delegated? What duties are best done by the teacher? By the students? What value is there in having students, for example, choose the topics in a lesson? Organise the seating? Do some writing on the board? Decide on their own homework? The list goes on. To address these complex questions, an eclectic approach is required so that the full picture of the multidimensional TSPR in both practice and theory can be portrayed clearly. The aspects of student-centred TSPR in SA, SCL and CLT reviewed in this and the next chapters will have to be referred to in their entirety. No one, not even myself, can give definite answers to these questions because the personal, professional and sociocultural dimensions may dictate one's opinion and can be the source of an ongoing debate. For example, in a study reported in Nunan (1988: 38-41) it was found that teachers still saw themselves as having primary responsibility for all curriculum tasks in a student centred setting, except that of grouping the students.

The bottom line that should be drawn in this regard is that we need to remind ourselves that the language classroom is a context of negotiated interaction, in which interaction contributes to the acquisition of comprehensible input (Long 1983: 124, in Allwright & Bailey 1991: 122), or an interactional context, where each individual involved can choose to perform whatever actions will promote her or his agenda (Manke 1997: 131). Criticising Long's theory, Allwright and Bailey argue that language acquisition is perhaps not the outcome of an encounter with comprehensible input *per se*, but the direct outcome of the *work involved* in the negotiation process itself (p. 122). In this regard, I view "the work involved" in a broader sense, i.e. that it includes teacher-students' sharing of classroom responsibilities (TSPR), the negotiation of which can also be directed to convey the comprehensible input or texts, so long as the TL is used in the process. Teacher-student negotiation is a central issue here as it is seen to offer the best chance of maximising the learning productivity of the classroom (Boomer 1982: 134). Of equal importance in this regard is the development of negotiation skills needed for such a process (Hyde 1992, in Boomer *et al.* 1992: 74).

To conclude, it would probably be ideal if the students take charge of the majority, but, perhaps, not all, of the classroom acts and the teachers "step back and distribute some of their power to the students" (S hlstr m 1994: 31). However, the ability to take charge of one's

own learning is not an inborn capacity. The teacher has a responsibility to develop it systematically in their students and establish it in the classroom processes. Besides, as Manke (1997: 131) points out, the students have their own agenda; their behaviours constantly shape and define the teacher's action, whether or not the teacher invites them to participate in that process. This explains the notion that the teacher should not be the locus of all responsibility. Power sharing empowers the students and frees the teachers from excessive loads of responsibility.

2.2.5. Roles and Power in ELT Settings: Some Sociocultural Considerations

TSPR are present in classroom interaction. In a classroom learning context, the question associated with TSPR is to what extent the teacher shares his/her power with the students. Within a certain (language) context this is dependent on the classroom procedures relating to teacher-student interpersonal relations that are accepted or, probably, that work within the social and cultural setting of that context. Even personal backgrounds play some role in this regard. In her review of literature on student autonomy in language learning, Cotterall (1999) makes it very clear that culture, learning mode and individual differences are the variables in learning contexts which affect roles.

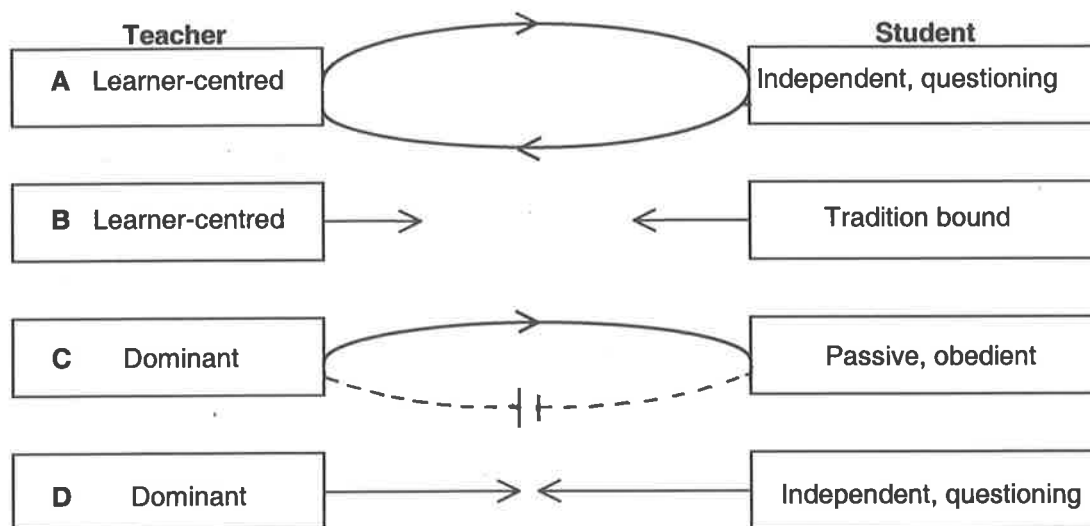
Manke (1997: 8-9) has noted that a classroom is a 'closed society' in which all aspects of life, including the 'interactive construction of power' occurring in it, take place within a larger society. The school, the community, and the nation surround the classroom and limit, as well as influence, what takes place within it. Of an equal influence to that of 'large social forces' — as Manke has noted — are institutional forces (i.e. government or school policies), and the personal experiences and cultures of teachers and students. Some of these cultural, societal or personal influences are shared by several, many or all members of the group. However, acknowledging the difficulty in observing them in the classroom, Manke has also noted that the influences of these factors in shaping TSPR still need to be studied.

As indicated previously, I have regarded the above factors as affecting the classroom procedures that can happen in the classroom during the course of interaction. These classroom procedures, in my view, are determined by how teachers and students in certain sociocultural as well as sociolinguistic contexts see or define their *roles*. As Wright (1987: 3) indicates, we all have roles — we play parts — in society. In terms of gaining these roles, the

students' role is one that is thrust upon them by circumstances while the teachers' role is one that they choose for themselves.

The differential ways of gaining and, as a consequence, playing these roles may, to some extent, have effect on the way the 'players' interpret and perform their roles. They may also determine how much power they think they can assume and share and what kind of interaction they create in the classroom. Lewis (1989: 459, in Simic 1996) argues that the interactional patterns vary from one context to another, as depicted in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1. Possible teacher and student roles in different contexts (Simic 1996: 25).



The A Model depicts an interaction in which a non-dominant teacher and active students share the classroom power, resulting in an ideal student-centred classroom atmosphere. The B Model shows an interaction between a non-dominant teacher who is committed to establishing SCL and students who are still bound by their tradition, which in turn prevents them from engaging actively in the interaction. As a result, some form of social and cultural distance is apparent. In the C Model, the teacher dominates the classroom discourse unchallenged in any way by his/her passive and obedient students. This results in a heavily teacher-dominated interaction that denies teacher-student negotiation. The sociocultural distance in this model extends even further and, of course, communication is blocked. The D Model depicts perhaps a worse example of teacher-student interaction that results in a conflict caused by each other's classroom agenda. On the one hand, the dominant teacher

thrusts his/her own agenda, and on the other, the independent and critical students keep challenging the teacher's agenda and authority during the interaction.

Taking the sociocultural contexts represented by ESL and EFL into account, Bickley's (1989, in Simic 1996) opinion of culture as an influential factor in determining a person's choice of style, his/her development of personality and attitude and motivation in learning, might be relevant at this point. Simic has used this view to suggest that the A Model (a student-centred TSPR) would probably be more suitable for an ESL context such as that in Australia, due to the various aspects of Western culture/society that are associated with it and that Australians are used to (p. 25). On the other hand, the C Model (a teacher-dominated TSPR) is prevalent in some cultures/societies where English is a foreign language (EFL), e.g. in some Asian and Islamic countries (p. 36). Hofstede (1986 in Cotterall 1999) justifies this point of view and identifies four dimensions along which cultures vary. In relation to autonomous L2 learning and roles which teachers and students adopt, Cotterall discusses two of the dimensions (i.e. 'individualism/collectivism' and 'power distance') as follows:

In *collectivist* societies (amongst which he cites Hong Kong, Korea, Taiwan and Japan), Hofstede (1986: 312) suggests that there is a "positive association ... with whatever is rooted in tradition", that "students are expected to learn how to do", and that "individuals will only speak up in small groups". In *individualist* societies, on the other hand (amongst which he cites New Zealand and Australia), he asserts that there is a "positive association with whatever is 'new'", "students expect to learn how to learn" and "individuals will speak up in larger groups". ... In discussing differences related to the dimension of **power distance**, Hofstede (1986: 313) notes that in large power distance societies (he cites Hong Kong, Korea, Taiwan and Japan), "a teacher merits the respect of his/her students (according to Confucius, 'teacher' is the most respected profession in society)", students expect [the] teacher to outline paths to follow" and the "effectiveness of learning is related to [the] excellence of the teacher". In small power distance societies (such as New Zealand and Australia) on the other hand, he suggests that "a teacher expects students to find their own paths", and the "effectiveness of learning [is] related to [the] amount of two-way communication in class

(Cotterall 1999: 67-68).

While such a distinction may be a form of stereotyping (see e.g. Littlewood 1999), whose extent still needs to be proven, I assume that it is underpinned by the fact that, in most societies, high and low status is accorded to the social roles of teacher and student respectively (see, e.g., Wright 1987: 12). A student-centred TSPR, for example, may be more difficult to achieve in an EFL teaching-learning context where the *teaching* or a *teacher* is accorded a high status on the one hand, and the *learning* or a *learner* a low status on the

other hand. Wright (1987) suggests that this differential relationship has many implications for what can happen in the classroom. As he puts it:

Role and status imply a set of power relations.
 Role and status also confer on their holders a set of rights, duties, and obligations.
 Social distance results from differing status and position.
 Status and position have a great influence on the sorts of role a teacher or learner may fulfil.
 They underpin all role behaviour.

(Wright 1987: 12)

The above sociological points of view of classroom power are justified by Manke (1997: 143) who has concisely summarised Weber's (1947) 'analysis of the sources of power'. According to Weber, these sources include (a) charismatic authority, or the personal qualities of the person; (b) traditional authority, or the established mores of the society; (c) legal authority, or the office held by the person. In the context of classroom interaction — which can also be seen as a social activity in this regard — the teachers, in Manke's opinion, might have authority thanks to their personality, societal respect, or institutional support for their educational roles.

My suggestion is that, while some teachers might have just one of these sources, others can be so fortunate as to have a combination of the three. In other words, the more sources of power one is 'bestowed' with, the more powerful he/she may become. However, that is not to suggest that the possession of just one source does not make a teacher powerful enough in a given context, time and space. To deal with these issues in more detail, it is worthwhile to have a look at TSPR in an EFL context such as Indonesia.

2.2.5.1. TSPR in an EFL Context

Associated with traditional teaching approaches, *teacher-centredness* is assumed to be one of the most salient characteristics of language classrooms in an EFL teaching-learning context (see e.g. Nunan 1988: 10; Simic 1996). Students coming from this context are considered, categorically, to be teacher-centred to a large extent (Lewis 1996). While this is too stereotypical a claim to some extent, it might also bear some truth. Empirical as well as anecdotal evidence (e.g. Sunaryo 1997, in Coleman *et al.* 1997:184) has shown that most EFL teachers are indeed 'dominant' and their students 'reliant' on them. At the very least, this is caused by certain sociolinguistic and sociocultural factors.

Sociolinguistically, EFL students reliance on the teacher has something to do with such factors as the lack of input in the TL, which is caused by the absence or lack of “contact with the native language community” (Loveday 1982: 17, in Ariyanto 1996: 3). Sunaryo (in Coleman *et al.* 1997: 184) has also pointed out that, in such a situation, as apparent in most Indonesian language classes, classroom learning is the most important source of the TL input for the students. The non-native-speaking teacher then conveys much of the information. As a result, the teacher turns out to be the most dominant person in language learning.

Socioculturally, in most (non-Western/Islamic) societies in which English is taught as a foreign language, such as Indonesia, teachers usually hold a high position and status. Since early childhood, all traditional Indonesian students have been taught to be polite, deferential and respectful to their teachers, in addition to their parents. In fact, teachers (of English, particularly) are among the most respected members of the society. A set of high social and moral values is even assigned to the teaching profession. This phenomenon appears in traditional philosophical anecdotes. In Javanese philosophy, as an example, the Sanskrit word *guru* — literally meaning a (Hindu) spiritual leader, a teacher or an expert — has been loosely assumed to be made up of two words, i.e. *gu* and *ru*. While *gu* is short for *digugu* (to be trusted), *ru* is for *ditiru* (to be imitated; to be followed) — as appears in the old saying: *Guru itu digugu dan ditiru* (teachers are to be trusted and followed). This philosophy serves dual functions: on the one hand it reminds the teachers of the moral and social values attached to their profession and, on the other, it defines the reasons why students should pay respect to the teachers and their profession. Thus, while the teachers should convey the truth, the students should believe in what the teachers say; while the teachers should behave properly, the students should always see them as a model for proper and acceptable behaviour.

Taken to extremes, this sort of social stereotype means that, both inside and outside the classroom, there will always be that element of social distance (see Wright 1987: 12) between the teacher and students. This may, to some extent, hinder their interaction, no matter what teaching methodology is involved in the process. The teachers are in possession of a set of rights and obligations that make them dominate classroom activities. This tendency results in the pattern of interaction shown in the C Model (see Figure 2.1.).

In addition, the commitment to improve teaching practices in EFL countries, such as Indonesia, often suffers from managerial and economic shortcomings. My first hand experience — rather than empirical studies, unfortunately — shows that these include large class sizes, unavailability or lack of affordable (not to mention the latest) materials, references and facilities, abundance of extra administrative duties associated with teaching and learning, institutional inability to hire highly qualified native- or near-native speaking teachers — the list goes on. To overcome these problems, the teachers — who teach a uniform national curriculum, usually have to make more decisions and take more actions than the students for the sake of ‘efficiency and effectiveness’ (a very popular rhetoric used in the Indonesian [educational] bureaucracy, e.g. when referring to teacher-centred practices). As a consequence, the pattern of TSPR that evolves from the EFL context can be said to be mainly teacher-dominated. On the one hand, the teacher tends to dominate the decisions regarding the classroom activities, and on the other, having limited access to additional learning resources, the students expect the teachers to do so. It is problematic within this context to expect a maximum application of CLT and SCL, not to mention a student-centred TSPR.

In summary, by taking into account Manke’s points of proposition (see subsection 2.2.3.1.), within an EFL context it is the teachers who dominate the interactional resources, interactional actions, classroom agendas, and discourse strategies in the classroom.

2.2.5.2. TSPR in an ESL Context

One of the reasons why many overseas students decide to come to learn English in a Western ESL environment such as Australia might be that they may have better, or, perhaps, more, access to sociolinguistic and sociocultural support for their learning process, which may not be sufficiently available in their original learning context. Although this might be stereotyping, a distinction between learning English in a Western ESL context and in a non-Western EFL context does need to be made. Simic (1996: 36-48), who initially opposes the idea of stereotyping groups of people from certain cultures, has eventually sided with the view that culture is significant, following empirical studies of Asian EFL students in China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, and Japan conducted separately by Lewis, Workman, Clark, Dockery, Anley, Katchen, Malcolm and Hongjio, Ligett, as well as Duppenhaler, Viswat, and Onaka (all in 1989) and Nickel (1990). The bottom line is that, in the Asian (and also Islamic) societies, teacher-centred instruction using a traditional, structured approach is the typical

method of teaching L2, and that in Western societies, on the other hand, learner-centred teaching is an increasingly popular form of L2 instruction (Lewis 1989, in Simic 1996: 36).

The findings support the notion that the ESL context is more amenable to a student-centred TSPR, thanks largely to all the sociocultural and sociolinguistic supports it can provide the students with. This means that, in a narrow sense, the student-centred TSPR can work optimally in an ESL, rather than EFL, context of teaching and learning.

However, despite these findings, without comparative results of a study in a Western ESL context it would be quite misleading to suggest firmly that the ESL learning context is entirely supportive. Manke (1997: 2), for instance, claims that 'our culture', and by this she means American (i.e. Western) culture, envisions classrooms, especially at the elementary level of schooling, as where the teachers have power and the students do not — a view shared by most non-Western educational cultures. Whether this vision and the practices it entails are still existent and persistent in Western societies still have to be tested by empirical studies.

In a Western, English-speaking, multicultural country such as Australia, ESL students come mostly from non-Western, non-English-speaking countries. They come to Australia as either immigrants or overseas students. As Lewis (1996) implied, these *ESL* students have the characteristics most *EFL* students have. Applying CLT and SCL and a student-centred TSPR to these students may be problematic in that they may always be dependent on the teacher for classroom decision making and the development of what will count as 'classroom knowledge' (Manke 1997: 131). No matter what teachers do to make learning happen in such a situation, as Manke warns, it is the "students' actions [that will] constantly shape and define what will count as classroom knowledge, whether or not the teacher invites their participation in that process".

To sum up, given all the characteristics, within an ESL context the teachers and students might be more aware of and could share fairly the four aspects of interaction that Manke proposes (see subsection 2.2.3.1.), i.e. interactional resources, interactional actions, classroom agendas, and discourse strategies. However, given the fact that the students are mostly from EFL backgrounds, they may not always succeed in being more involved in employing those four aspects during the interaction — a situation that might force the teacher to make all the

decisions, thus dominating the subsequent classroom discourse and dismissing all the ‘good’ stereotypes associated with Western ESL context.

2.3. Summary

The arguments proposed in this chapter are based on my own observation of the concepts behind the terms ‘ESL’ and ‘EFL’ in the instructed learning process and their contexts. To me, the two terms not only imply two different sociolinguistic and pedagogic situations but also two contrasting social, cultural, political, economic, and, one might add, personal contexts of English teaching and learning. These factors may have some influence on the attitudes, behaviours and actions of the classroom participants, i.e. the teacher and students. Efforts to establish student autonomy, student-centred language learning and communicative language teaching may also be affected by these factors.

The primary focus of language teaching is to develop in the students the linguistic skills needed for communication in the TL, in writing or talk. A language should be taught in ways that involve the teaching methodology that promotes communicative competence. Classroom interaction allows for the TL input to be absorbed by the students, as it provides the students with a great deal of learning and practice opportunities needed for enhancing the input. This should be especially promoted in language learning contexts where the students — even the teachers — have low exposure to the TL.

Interaction occurs when there exists a ‘balance’ of classroom power between the teacher and students; where the teachers’ traditional dominance over the discourse of interaction, which hinders the students’ learning process, is replaced by the construction of student-centred TSPR, the initiation of which is the teachers’ full responsibility.

Therefore, within the concept of student-centred TSPR there are, at the very least, four most important principles from SA, SCL, and CLT — the three major approaches in the current debate over second and/or foreign language pedagogy. These are (a) interactional opportunities for communicative proficiency development, (b) students’ involvement in classroom decision-making processes (teacher-student negotiation), (c) teacher-student

collaboration (sharing of responsibilities) before, during and after lessons, and (d) systematic efforts to develop student autonomy.

Studies in pedagogy and applied linguistics provide us with theories from which the principles of student-centred TSPR can be extracted. A discussion of these principles will be canvassed in detail in the next chapter. A rationale constructed from these principles will in turn be useful for proposing a comprehensive rationale for establishing TSPR in language classrooms.

Chapter 3

Literature Review:
Aspects of Teacher-Student Power Relationships
in Student Autonomy, Student-Centred Learning
and Communicative Language Teaching

The teacher, and only the teacher, leads the learner to freedom and autonomy.

(Little 1991 in Pemberton *et al.* 1996: 58)

3.0. Introduction

In this chapter I shall present some of the aspects of TSPR that are described and formulated in a set of selective literature on SA, SCL, and CLT.

The central point I would like to make is that the aspects of TSPR are found in the existing — and in fact, growing — body of literature on SA, SCL, and CLT. These can be regarded as a useful reference for justifying the relevance of establishing TSPR in all contexts of language learning, including those of ESL and EFL. The second, related point I would like to propose is a rationale for the classroom acts presented in the lists proposed by Macaro (see Table 2.2., Chapter 2) and Wajnryb (Table 2.3). The key components of SA, SCL and CLT cited in this chapter are meant to shed some light on the questions highlighted by Wajnryb (1992: 121) and Mickan (April 1999 — personal communication) as regards the value in having either the students or the teacher responsible for certain classroom acts in order to establish student-centred TSPR both in and out of the classroom. (See sub-section 2.2.4. Chapter 2, for details.)

3.1. Student Autonomy: A Rationale for L2 Learning

3.1.1. The Concept

Student autonomy (SA), or *learner autonomy* in some sources, is not an entirely new concept (see e.g. Macaro 1997: 167), although it has shaped views on (language) education, mainly in Europe, ‘only’ in the past thirty years. Internationally, according to Macaro, a revival of interest in SA took place just in recent years. While Esch (in Pemberton *et al.* 1996.: 35) attributes this development to the influence of the work of the Council of Europe’s Modern Languages Project, Macaro suggests that this was due to the progress of the ‘maturing process’ in CLT, which explains how close SA is related to CLT. This reinforces Pemberton’s (in Pemberton *et al.* 1996: 2) suggestion that the term *autonomy* is now taking over in popularity from the terms *communicative* and *authentic* of the 1980’s. The 1990’s could therefore be regarded as the era of SA in language teaching and learning.

Esch further argues that the concept of SA develops out of a fundamentally optimistic view of a human being. According to this concept, students — as human beings, of course — are able to be in charge of their own learning.

Boud (1988: 18), who was one of those few experts who laid the foundation for modern studies of autonomy in education, implies that the concept of autonomy has its roots in different cultures (see also Macaro 1997) and also in the political context. According to Boud, the word autonomy was used with reference to “the property of a state to be self-ruling or self-governing”. By analogy, he writes, the educational use of autonomy refers to the “capacity of an individual to be an independent agent, not governed by others”. Related to this is the Ancient Greek philosopher Socrates’ (circa 400 BC) view of how he developed autonomy in his disciple: “I shall only ask him, and not teach him, and he shall share the inquiry with me: and do you watch and see if you find me telling or explaining anything to him, instead of eliciting his opinion” (quoted in Brandes & Ginnis 1986: 10)

The concept, however, cannot be regarded to be exclusively ‘Western’, as historical evidence has shown that it also existed in the Oriental philosophy, as written by various Chinese Confucian scholars. One of them, according to Pierson (in Pemberton *et al.* 1996: 55), was Lu Tung-lai (1137-1181AD) from the Sung Dynasty, who strongly stigmatised

rote learning and encouraged independent, individual efforts for increasing one's knowledge. Lu reinforced his predecessor Ch'ingtsze's (1032-1107AD) notion that in studying history, students should understand the causes, as this is more important than just memorizing facts. He wrote, "the youth who is bright and memorizes a large amount of information is not to be admired; but he who thinks carefully and searches for truth diligently is to be admired" (Chiang 1963: 97).

This view was very much advocated by Wong Yang-min, a Ming Dynasty scholar, about 450 years later who regarded pure memory training in education as a lower type of schooling. According to Pierson, during the Sung Dynasty there was another scholar, Chu Hsi (1130-1200), whose ideas of learning came close to what we now understand as autonomous learning. For this scholar, notes Pierson, "true knowledge must be obtained for and by the student himself". Metaphorically, Chu Hsi considers learning as as important as eating

To gain knowledge is similar to eating. When one is hungry, one eats. Nourishment concerns the individual only. If one studies in this way, according to Chu Hsi, one will learn. To learn is to satisfy one's mental hunger. This is up to the individual, not others. To learn well, one must want to learn, not because his parents or teachers want him to learn, but because he is eager to learn

(Cited by Pierson, in Pemberton *et al.* 1996 : 56)

Chu Hsi then strongly advocates SA by encouraging self-inquiry and independence from others for one's own advancement in study.

The concept of autonomy in learning in the modern era has been advocated by many authors in general education. Boud (1988) and his contributors (especially Higgs, Powell, and Cornwall) provide useful insights into the relevance of autonomy, including the pedagogical principles, aspects worthy of attention, and problems experienced when it is put into work. The bottom line is that SA is a very important goal of education and that efforts should be systematically made to translate it into practice. The concept is also very relevant to L2 learning in the classroom, whoever the learner is or in whatever environment it takes place, whether it is formal or informal (see Rubin & Thompson 1994: 22) or in SL or FL contexts. I have adopted Rubin's and Tompson's points of view to illustrate this claim, as they make it very clear from the outset that it is the learners who are the most important factor in the language learning process. Many learners, they say,

“tend to blame teachers, circumstances, and teaching materials for their lack of success, when the most important reason for their lack of success can ultimately be found in themselves” (p. 3). It is true that teachers play an important role, i.e. they may determine the textbook and the method, set the pace, create the classroom atmosphere, model the language, be an important source of information and motivation, etc. However, none of these will be much help to the students unless they participate actively and provide the teacher with input regarding their learning process, derived from autonomous efforts to reflect on what they intend to achieve. Teaching, in van Lier’s (1996: 12) opinion, cannot cause or force learning; at best it can *encourage* and *guide* learning by emphasising the students’ *choice* and *responsibility*.

In summary, given the above theories, the relevance of SA in L2 learning and in the establishment of student-centred TSPR is undoubtedly significant.

3.1.2. The Definition

Many modern day authors have contributed to the field of SA with varying interpretations of the concept. According to Holec (1979; 1981) this has resulted in a ‘semi anarchical use’ of the term in the area of adult education. Thus, in recent years, modern authors on the subject have often had to devote a preliminary section of their texts to defining what the term actually is about. Some of them even have had to specify what the term means *to themselves*, such as Higgs (see Boud.1988: 40). Nevertheless, many of the authors (e.g. Benson as well as Nunan, both in Pemberton *et al.* 1996: 29; Macaro 1997: 168) have adopted the definition of SA that was coined by Holec (1981). Boud (1981; 1988) and his contributors also make substantial contributions to the field although they fail to mention Holec’s fundamental work at all.

In his report to the Council of Europe, which was later described by Little (1991: 6) as a ‘foundation document’ in the field (Benson in Pemberton *et al.* 1996: 29), Holec defines autonomy as an *ability* or *capacity*, that is “a power or capacity to do something”, rather than a *behaviour*. Holec sees autonomy as a potential capability to act in learning. He prefers to regard it not as the actual behaviour of an individual in a learning situation, and goes on to establish a claim that autonomy in learning should be differentiated from autodidaxy, which he describes as just a set of behaviours in learning.

In Holec's point of view, a student is autonomous, basically, when he or she is capable of taking charge of his or her own learning. Holec argues that the adjective 'autonomous' can only be applied to a person and not to a process. Therefore, a student who takes charge of his or her own learning is an 'autonomous student' but the learning process itself should be referred to as 'self-directed learning' rather than an 'autonomous learning'. In the subsequent sections of his work, Holec indeed uses the two terms quite differently.

Pemberton (in Pemberton *et al.* 1996: 3) claims that Holec's distinction has been accepted by most writers in the field, except Dickinson (1987: 11), who prefers to see the two terms (autonomy and self-direction) from a somewhat different perspective, i.e. autonomy as "complete responsibility for one's learning, carried out without the involvement of a teacher or pedagogic material" and self-direction as "the potential to accept responsibility for one's learning". In this respect, I have adopted Macaro's conclusive, working definition of SA, which says that:

Autonomy is an ability which is learnt through knowing *how* to make decisions about the self as well as being *allowed* to make those decisions. It is an ability to take charge of one's own language learning and an ability to recognise the value of taking responsibility for one's own objectives, content, progress, method and techniques of learning. It is also an ability to be responsible for the pace and rhythm of learning and the evaluation of the learning process.

(Macaro 1997: 168)

In conclusion, despite all these different approaches, as Boud (1988: 7-8) indicates, the element encompassed by the definitions is clear, i.e. the goals of developing (the students') independence and interdependence, self-directedness, and responsibility for learning. While this may sound too ambitious a set of goals to achieve, I view the establishment of student-centred TSPR as a necessary condition for effective L2 learning in institutional settings.

3.1.3. Key Components of SA: A Rationale for TSPR

3.1.3.1. The Basic Principles

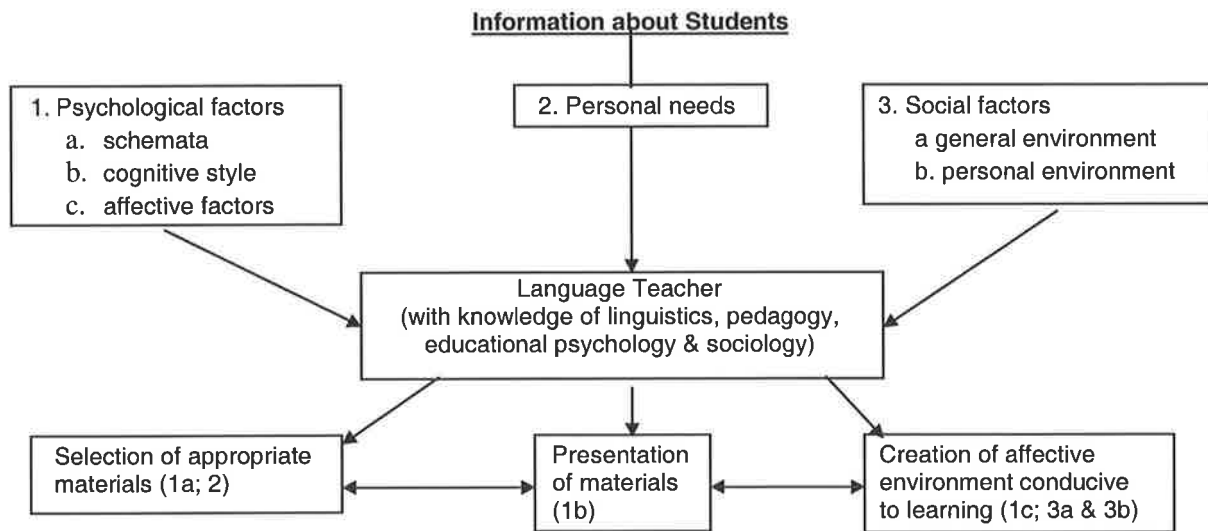
SA has so far been recommended largely for adult education at higher level. It has been suggested that, pedagogically, the most important goal of education, especially at higher

levels, is to enable students to become more autonomous in their learning, that is, to learn more effectively “without the constant presence or intervention of a teacher” (Boud, 1988: 7). In this regard, Nunan even believes that all teachers and students ought to work towards one single goal, namely SA (see Pemberton *et al.* 1996: 14). Within this framework, the role of teachers is described by Boud as to help students take increasing responsibility for their own learning, instead of just transmitting knowledge. To a large extent, I suggest this is what SA and student-centred TSPR are all about. Macaro (1997: 168) points out the relationship, stating that SA involves learner-teacher negotiation, involvement in decision making, learning contracts, and participation in the organisation of working groups.

However, as already indicated in the previous chapter, all the above suggestions are not to dismiss the teacher’s role. While the students are the focus of learning, the teacher will always have a central role to play as he/she is professionally trained to provide guidance and support in a number of crucial classroom-related activities (de López 1989: 3). Holec (1981: 25) has even stressed that, if the traditional teacher’s role is considered ‘replaceable’ (e.g. by print and audio-video self-study materials), in the development of SA the role becomes *irreplaceable*, due largely to the aspects that de López puts forward. In this regard, de López illustrates the teacher’s central position in a diagram, shown in Figure 3.1. In conclusion, according to her, what happens in the classroom should be a ‘shared responsibility’ between the teacher and the students. (Refer to de López 1989: 3-5, for complete analysis and discussion of this issue.) Boomer (1982; 1992) prefers to emphasise *negotiation* as a concrete conceptualisation of the process involved.

3.1.3.2. The Components

The four authors above (Macaro 1997; Nunan [in Pemberton *et al.* 1996]; Boud 1988; Holec 1981) propose their own versions of the key components of SA. These are parts of its *redefined* system, with implications for all the aspects (people, materials, activities) involved in it. I shall present their propositions in this sub-section. In the final part of the chapter, in conjunction with those derived from SCL and CLT, these components will be referred to in addressing more detailed questions related to TSPR. (Note that, in the tables that follow, *T* stands for teacher, *E* for establishment, *S* for student, and *TL* for target language.)

Figure 3.1. Teacher's role as a facilitator in L2 learning (de López 1989: 3).**a. Macaro (1997)**

Macaro implies that teachers should systematically direct their students to be more in charge of their own learning by developing three different, but related, kinds of autonomy, which he calls the 'three functional subdivisions' of autonomy (pp. 170-171). These include SA in terms of:

- language competence or the students' ability to communicate having acquired a reasonable mastery of the L2 rule system;
- language learning competence or the students' reproduction and transference of L2 learning skills to many other situations;
- choice of action for the students, which is the opportunity given to the students to develop autonomy of choice if the required skills are to be developed.

b. Nunan (in Pemberton et al. 1996: 21)

Nunan differentiates between various stages of classroom-related acts in *institution-centred* and *autonomy-focused* classrooms (see Table 3.1.) As he emphasises students' involvement in the decision making process right from the beginning to the end, Nunan also proposes two questionnaires for needs-assessment as well as a reflection, for students to complete before and after the learning processes. (These two questionnaires appear in Appendix J.)

Table 3.1. Comparison of two types of classrooms (adapted from Nunan 1996, in Pemberton *et al.* 1996: 21).

Stages	Institution-centred classrooms	Autonomy-focused classrooms
Planning	T / E decides; little or no reference made to Ss' communicative needs.	- Ss are involved in selection, modification, adaptation; - References made to Ss' use of language outside classroom.
Implementation	T / E dominates	- T introduces range of learning activities & tasks; - An attempt to identify Ss' learning style preferences as basis for methodological selections.
Evaluation	T / E dominates	- Ss are encouraged to reflect on learning experiences; - Opportunities made available to Ss are evaluated

c. Boud (1988: 23)

Boud proposes an approach which might involve the students taking the initiative in any of the following acts:

- identifying learning needs;
- setting goals;
- planning learning activities;
- finding resources needed for learning;
- working collaboratively with others;
- selecting learning projects;
- creating 'problems' to tackle;
- choosing where and when they will learn;
- using teachers as guides and counsellors rather than instructors;
- opting to undertake additional non teacher-directed work, such as learning through independent (structured) learning materials;
- determining criteria to apply to their work;
- engaging in self-assessment;
- learning outside the confines of the educational institution, for example in a work setting;
- deciding when learning is complete;
- reflecting on their learning processes;
- making significant decisions about any of these matters, that is decisions with which they will have to live.

d. Holec (1981: 9-26)

Holec proposes his own comparison of classroom-related acts in what he calls *self-directed learning* (SDL) classrooms, where the student is autonomous (*cf.* Nunan's *autonomy-focused*), and in 'traditional' *directed learning* (DL) classrooms, where the

teacher and the language learning establishment are categorically dominant (*cf.* Nunan's *institution-centred*). I regard Holec's proposition as the most comprehensive and elaborate as he also includes the details of what he thinks would be the implications of SA for the teachers and the students, as well as the processes they engage in. Holec contrasts the two approaches and suggests the components of SA in detail. I have summarised these in the following tables.

- **Objectives**

Table 3.2. Comparison of objectives in DL and SDL (adapted from Holec 1981: 9-12).

Directed learning	Self-directed learning
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Fixed by T / E. 2. Based on what knowledge is 'indispensable' S—native speaker as a standard. 3. Include cultural aspects of country of TL. 4. Fixed once and for all in the temporal framework and subdivided into intermediate objectives. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Fixed by S. 2. Based on 'final behaviour' aimed at to may apply subjective criteria & 'specific personal dimension'. 3. S chooses only <i>some</i> relevant cultural aspects of TL to be included. 4. Not fixed for all time—subject to S's evaluation & alterations; S may consider professional/vocational, social, material situations, level of knowledge, and may even change his/her mind.

- **Contents and progressions**

Table 3.3. Comparison of contents and progressions in DL and SDL (adapted from Holec 1981: 12-14).

Directed learning	Self-directed learning
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Defined by T, who 'has the knowledge', in terms of lexis, grammar, phonology. 2. A 'globalistic' approach to the contents—all are considered necessary for learning 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Defined by S—only certain elements for realising selected communicative functions are incorporated into curriculum. 2. Priority & flexibility regarding thematic contents; contents are not 'brought in' from outside but are 'created' by S.

- **Methods and techniques**

Table 3.4. Comparison of methods and techniques in DL and SDL (adapted from Holec 1981: 14-15).

Directed learning	Self-directed learning
Defined by T & E based relatively on: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - trust in certain theory of learning; - belief or fanaticism in certain method & importance of certain technical tool; - lessons learned from experience; - intuition & creative imagination, etc. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Selected by S at beginning of & during learning process, proceeds by trial & error. (<i>Selection criteria: efficacy of objectives & adaptation to external & internal constraints on him-/herself</i>). 2. S uses methods & techniques used before, learned from others, devised by him-/herself.

- **Monitoring the acquisition procedure: spatial and temporal dimensions**

Table 3.5. Comparison of monitoring in DL and SDL (Holec 1981: 15-16).

Directed learning	Self-directed learning
T / E decides where, when, at what rhythm learning will take place.	S decides for him-/herself when & where to study, how long to work, at what rhythm he/she learns—not restricted by spatial & temporal limitations

- **Evaluation of what has been acquired**

Table 3.6. Comparison of evaluation in DL and SDL (adapted from Holec 1981: 16-19).

Directed learning	Self-directed learning
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>Certification</i> = assessment is made outside learning process. S has no power to decide; administration and rules apply. 2. <i>External evaluation</i> = at end of studies objectives must have been achieved; S is appraised based on criteria made for all Ss. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>Internal evaluation</i> = integral part of learning, as with objectives & contents. S evaluates attainment by comparing with his/her own aims 2. <i>Self-evaluation</i> integrates S's specific personal dimensions. 3. S defines component parts of successful attainment. 4. S defines his/her own criteria of satisfactory performance.

e. Boomer (1982: 128-130; 1992: 9-12)

With special reference to the curriculum in general education, Boomer introduces two curriculum models, *motivated learning* (Model A) and *negotiated learning* (Model B). (See Figures A and B, Appendix K.) The traditional Model A shows that the students' learning only approximates to the teacher's goals and the curriculum may touch only a little of each student's key and associated interests. This model may involve:

- the teacher's reflection on the past and the content to be taught;
- practical constraints of school and society;
- motivating the students in some way to learn;
- tension between the teacher's goal and the students' intent;
- external examination and decision on learning outcomes.

The proposed Model B, on the other hand, is inspired by an "outlook on open communication, a personal learning theory and an awareness of the harmful effects of inexplicit power." (1992: 9). The teacher therefore may develop strategies for negotiating the curriculum. The process may involve:

- (as in Model A) the teacher's reflection on the past and the content to be taught. However, the key principles and concepts of the content are formulated;
- the teacher talking openly to the students about the topic to be covered, why it is to be included, why it is important and what constraints prevail;
- the teacher and students planning the unit, activities, goals, assignments and the negotiable options;
- on-going negotiation—teacher's main role is giving information and teaches only when it is needed;
- last but not least, the teacher's and students' collaborative *reflection*, which is crucial after the learning products have been materialised.

In conclusion, to be in favour of or to adopt the many aspects of student-centred TSPR in the classroom processes discussed thus far means to consider a number of implications in both theoretical and practical terms. As far as the teachers and students are concerned, these may imply some redefinition of, among others, the way they view and play their roles.

• The General Implications: Some Redefinition

As regards the implications, Holec (pp. 19-20) argues that the roles of the students and the teacher as well as of the teaching establishment will need to be redefined as a result of the nature and operation of self-directed learning. However, the whole process actually starts with the redefinition of the *knowledge* or the *know-how* (Janne, 1977; in Holec, 1979: 21). I have summarised these as follows:

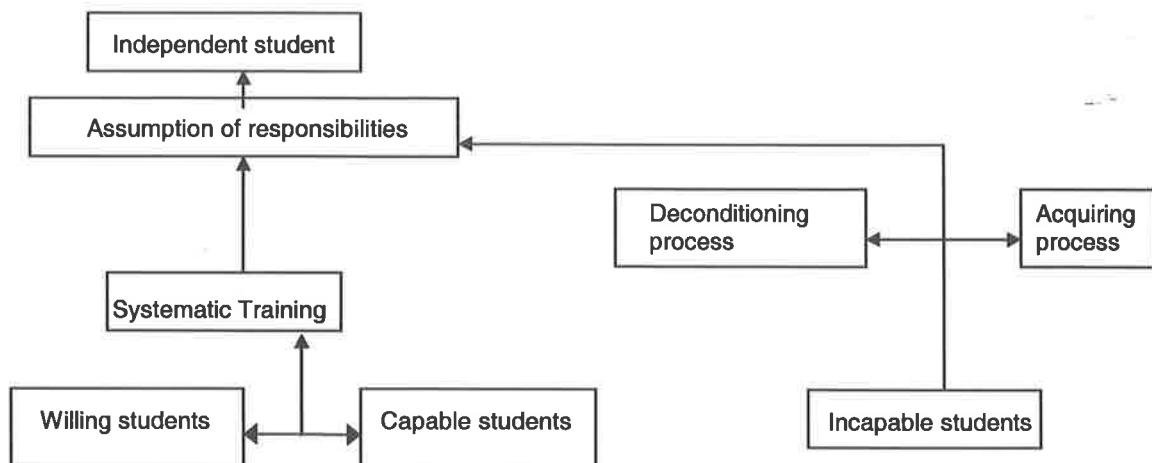
Table 3.7. Implications of SDL for knowledge and know-how (adapted from Holec 1981: 21-26).

	From	To
1 Knowledge	Objective, universal	Subjective, individual
2 Students	- Independent reality	-Constructed and dominated reality
	- Passive	-Active, critical
	- Mediatisation (instruction)	-Independent inquiry
3 Teaching	Producing learning/making Ss learn.	Facilitating/helping Ss learn.
4 Objectives	Defined by T / E	Ss acquire linguistic & communicative abilities they have defined for themselves. Ss acquire autonomy for themselves, i.e. learn [how] to learn.

• The student's roles redefined

As Holec (p. 22) points out, these new roles of students can only be achieved if two conditions are fulfilled, i.e. the students are *willing* and *capable* of assuming responsibilities. However, to create independent students, it is the teachers' duty to carry out systematic development during the learning process, because, as Schwartz (1977: 15) suggests, "participation in education in our present day societies must be learnt, does not occur automatically and is not a response to a spontaneous aspiration". Those who are incapable of assuming the responsibilities will have to undergo systematic processes of *deconditioning* and *acquisition* of the knowledge and know-how, which should be operated in parallel in order to make students more independent. I have summarised this in Figure 3.2. below.

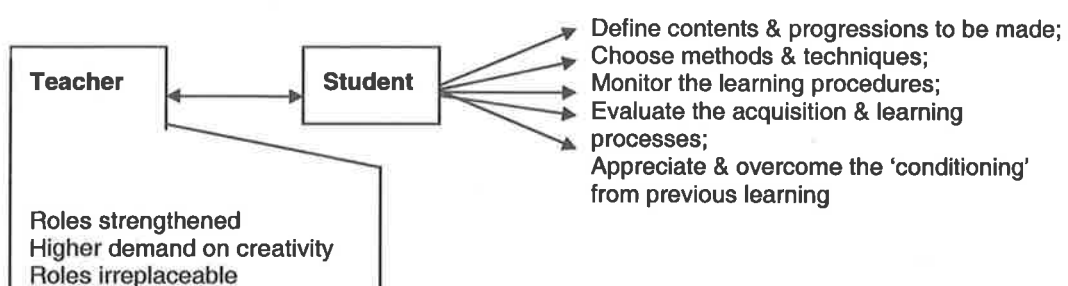
Figure 3.2. Redefinition of student's role in SDL (adapted from Holec 1981: 22-23).



- **The teachers' roles redefined**

According to Holec (as depicted in Figure 3.2.), the teachers' roles "will in part still be what they sometimes are in a directed system" (p. 24) and will change very considerably in the matter of 'help' and 'advice' which are necessary for supporting the students in learning how to learn (see also Boomer 1982: 6) and acquiring the language. The teacher and the student are therefore of equal importance in this interactive process.

Figure 3.3. Teacher's redefined roles in SDL (adapted from Holec 1981: 24-25).



Holec's final note is that autonomy is an act of learning and not of teaching, done by the student and not by the teacher. On autonomy and self-directed learning, his final note is that while autonomy must definitely be one of the objectives of every adult training establishment, self-directed learning must remain a *possibility* offered to and not forced upon the students. More importantly, what must be developed is the students' ability to assume this responsibility. Therefore, a conducive learning structure, atmosphere, and strategy can (or needs to) be created systematically so that the students' control over the

learning can be exercised. That is, they have the *possibility* of exercising their ability to take charge. In other words, teachers should be able to develop teaching and learning procedures that can direct their students towards more self-directed learning.

In summary, the development of SA requires a great deal of effort to reposition the ‘traditional’ directed learning to self-directed learning, where the students are actively involved in the decision making process right from the beginning. In its ideal form, this repositioning is expected to produce autonomous students, that is, students who are capable of taking charge of their own learning. An optimal application of this approach will certainly have a number of implications for L2 pedagogy. These include redefinition of both the teachers’ and the students’ roles as well as the linguistic, communicative, managerial, and pedagogical processes they engage in, including the pattern of their power relationships.

3.2. Student-Centred Learning: A Rationale for TSPR

3.2.1. The Concept

According to Withall (1991, in Marjoribanks 1991: 89-107), in general education, the concept of SCL owes its inception to distinguished and pioneering thinkers such as Dewey (1916, 1963), Freire (1973), Rogers (1965, 1969), and Illich (1971, 1973).

Dewey is noted for his foresightedness in analysing what we now refer to as teacher-centred instruction and student-centred instruction. He used the terms ‘traditional’ for the former and ‘new’ for the latter, complete with their contrasting traits. Freire, as already discussed in the previous chapter, recommended the abandonment of ‘banking education’ and replacing it with ‘problem-posing’ education, in which, according to Marjoribanks, “learners and teachers conjointly address issues of moment to them while sharing, turn and turn about, the roles and functions of both learner and teacher” (p. 94). Rogers saw student-centred education and client-centred therapy as equal. The essence of both lies in the “enabling of the clients to assume full responsibility, with the aid of an acceptant and emphatic therapist or mentor, for decisions, actions, and their consequences” (p. 99). Illich, in Marjoribanks’ words, envisioned a learner-centred style of instruction as

affording opportunities and procedures that enable the students to pursue freely, in consultation with mentors who trust and respect them, ideas, concepts, skills, and values.

In language pedagogy, just as SA, SCL has its roots in CLT. Both “grew out of the dissatisfaction with structuralism and the situational methods of the 1960s” and their status was enhanced quite prominently by the Council of Europe (Nunan 1988: 24).

As well, just as the concept of SA, SCL shares a common denominator with such concepts as *independent learning* and *flexible learning*, and draws its rationale from theories of individual learner differences (Macaro’s 1997: 167-8). These include age, sex, beliefs, affective factors (anxiety), aptitude, motivation, personality, cognitive style, rate of and approach to learning, actual achievements, etc (Ellis 1994), which can affect learning outcomes positively and/or negatively. Therefore, as Macaro points out, SCL seeks to create a learning environment in which those differences are best catered for to produce successful learning outcomes. Therefore, in principle, the SCL learning environment has at least these characteristics:

- There is an active teacher-student collaboration in making decisions about the curriculum content and its delivery method (Nunan 1988: 2).
- The focus of learning is decentralised (Evans 1993: 13, in Macaro 1997: 167)
- The students participate in setting the goals and objectives, their feelings and values are taken into account and the teacher plays the role of a helper, adviser, or counsellor (Richards *et al.* 1992:359).

3.2.2. The Definition

There seems to be no dispute over the definition of SCL, except that some authors prefer to use ‘learner-’ instead of ‘student-’ centred learning. The SCL characteristics mentioned in the previous sections are apparent in the following definition of SCL, in which it is said to be:

an approach to education which places the student [sic] and their needs at the centre of the learning environment. The teacher’s role is to *facilitate* learning, and therefore is non-directive. Students are encouraged by the teacher to approach their learning in a way most meaningful and relevant for them as a person and scholar. In this way,

students are able to take increased responsibility for their learning while also acquiring skills for life-long learning.

(University of Queensland's *Student Centred Learning Kit*
[henceforth: UQ-SCL Kit] 1996: 83)

3.2.3. The Key Components

Based on the UQ-SCL Kit (1996: 119-135), the key elements or components of SCL in general education, especially in higher education are:

- (a) a supportive learning environment;
- (b) the promotion of the student's critical and creative thinking;
- (c) student responsibility for their learning (Rogers 1983).

According to the kit, various theorists from different fields of learning have contributed their ideas regarding the important aspects to be developed in each of these elements. I have summarised them as follows:

a. A Supportive learning environment

Emotional and physical support

- A relaxed, open and non-threatening atmosphere (Rogers 1951,1980, 1983; Freire 1972);
- Teacher's respect for student's existing knowledge and skills (Säljö 1988; Ericksen 1984; Candy 1991);
- Teacher's genuine caring for students (Rogers 1983: 26; 1980: 272);
- Teacher's enthusiasm for teaching and learning (Ericksen 1984; Deci *et al.* 1991; Candy 1991; Rogers 1980, 1983).

b. Promotion of student's critical and creative thinking

- Actively engaging the student (Meyers & Jones 1993; Candy 1991; Candy *et al.* 1994), e.g. through questioning;
- Promoting relevance and context of new knowledge (Cox 1993), e.g. through explanations and demonstrations;

- Fostering extension of current knowledge (Langer 1993; Abercrombie 1969; Shermis 1982; Barrow 1988; Shor 1987), e.g. by encouraging the student to experiment with new ideas or to question assumptions.

b. Student responsibility for learning

- Fostering student's skills in group processing (Meyers & Jones 1993; Dick 1991; Jaques 1991; Barrow 1992), i.e. through discussions (sharing knowledge and experiences);
- Encouraging teacher-student negotiation of learning content and process (Schuell 1993; Freire 1972), i.e. through regular review of strategies, etc.

With language teaching and learning, Nunan (1988: 4-7) provides the key elements of SCL in more detail, together with the value of delegating the responsibilities to the students. He proposes four aspects, and their components, to be developed, which illuminate the factors mentioned in the principles of SCL. I have summarised these as follows:

a. Initial planning procedures — data collection and student grouping

The aim is to diagnose the students' objective needs, i.e. their external needs, by collecting their:

- *Superficial data*: current proficiency level, age, educational background, previous learning experiences, time in the target culture, previous and current occupation
- *Subjective data*: preferred length and intensity of course, preferred learning arrangement, learning goals, preferred methodology and learning style preferences.

b. Content selection and gradation

The aim is to guide selection of materials and learning activities and assist in assessment and evaluation by way of:

- training the students to set their own objectives;
- modifying decision-making as the course progresses;
- refining content and objectives during the initial stages of learning;
- encouraging the students to reflect on learning experiences and articulate their preference;

- using L1 resources (e.g. by involving bilingual assistants) to facilitate low-level development of critical self-awareness in students.

c. Methodology — selection of learning activities and materials

The aim is to reduce potential conflict and resolve any conflict that arises between the teacher and students. This is done by developing techniques and procedures for negotiation and consultation between the two parties.

d. An ongoing monitoring, assessment and evaluation

- *Assessment:*
 - determines whether or not the objectives of instruction have been achieved;
 - is an informal monitoring carried on alongside the teaching-learning process by both the teachers and the students;
 - provides the students with skills in evaluating materials, learning activities and their achievement of objectives.
- *Evaluation.* This occurs at various times during the planning and implementation.

In conclusion, the bottom line suggested in the various sources on SCL, including the above, is that the development of SCL in language teaching and learning is focused on a 'humanistic' endeavour of catering for student individual differences in order to enhance learning and its outcomes. This is done through a number of activities which give the students the opportunity to be actively involved in all facets of decision-making procedures right from the beginning to the end of the course. This is the access to optimum learning which was principally denied to the students by traditional methods (Nunan 1988 4-7). I suggest that the establishment of these ideals in the instructed setting of L2 learning implies the establishment of the principles of TSPR.

3.3. Communicative Language Teaching: A Rationale for TSPR

3.3.1. The Concept

CLT is one of the 'modern teaching methods' (Macaro 1997: 38). Compared with others, it is more a humanistic teaching 'approach' (Richards & Rodgers 1986: 83) that has been promoted for foreign and second language teaching for at least two decades now

(Widdowson 1978, Wilkins 1976, Littlewood 1981, in Mican 1996: 7). I would call it the 1980's and 1990's methodological solution to the Grammar-Translation Method and the Direct Method, the two major traditions in language teaching history in the previous decades, perhaps centuries.

In principle, CLT strives to allow the students to acquire a general communicative ability — in both structural and functional terms, which will enable them to cope with everyday situations (see Littlewood 1981).

As far as the teacher-student relationship goes, one of its major tenets underlines the teachers' reduced dominance over (but certainly not importance in) the learning process and the students' increased responsibility for their own learning (see Littlewood 1981: 18-19; Richards & Rodgers 1986: 76-79; Nunan 1988; Ariyanto, 1996: 48). This emphasis seems to be very much consonant with the characteristics of student-centred TSPR discussed in the previous chapter.

3.3.2. The Key Components: Some Characteristics

Due to their historical and theoretical backgrounds, CLT and SCL share a great deal of key components. A detailed description of CLT's principles in a descriptive account of SCL would perhaps be redundant.

However, the following characteristics, as opposed to those of classrooms using traditional methods, might shed some light on what usually happens in CLT classrooms. These characteristics are proposed by Quinn (1984, in Nunan 1988: 27-28). Similar ones are also described in e.g. Lightbown and Spada (1995: 72-3), Brown (1987: 213) and Macaro (1997: 42-3). The following is my summary:

- | | |
|---------------------------------|---|
| • Learning focus: | Communication |
| • Selection of language items: | Based on what language items students need to know to get things done |
| • Sequencing of language items: | Emphasised content, meaning and interest. |
| • Degree of coverage: | Only what students need and see as important |
| • View of language: | Variety of language is accepted and seen as determined by character of particular communication contexts. |
| • Criterion of success: | Students are able to communicate effectively and appropriately. |

- | | |
|---|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language skills emphasis: • Teacher-student roles: • Attitude to errors: • Similar to natural language learning? | <p>Spoken interaction is at least as important as reading and writing.</p> <p>Student-centred</p> <p>Partial and incomplete utterances are seen as such, rather than just ‘wrong’.</p> <p>Yes, due to its emphasis on the content of the utterances rather than the form.</p> |
|---|---|

According to Macaro, 1997: 40, these characteristics of SCL are able to provide an ‘input rich’ environment, which in Krashen’s opinion should develop the students’ communicative proficiency in the target language and, at the same time, foster improved skills in managing the learning process in an independent way. In Krashen’s term, proficiency in the *content* (i.e. target language) cannot be acquired without *process* (i.e. learning management). As far as the teacher-student relationship is concerned, the fact that CLT establishes a student-centred classroom situation is enough to justify its relevance to the principles of student-centred TSPR discussed so far.

3.4. Summary

As already indicated in the conclusion of the previous chapter, the concept of student-centred TSPR has, at the very least, four major aspects drawn from SA, SCL, and CLT. These are:

- interactional opportunities for communicative proficiency development;
- students’ involvement in classroom decision-making processes (teacher-student negotiation);
- teacher-student collaboration (sharing of responsibilities) before, during and after lessons;
- systematic efforts to develop student autonomy.

These four factors are prevalent in the key components of the three approaches set out and discussed in this chapter. The key components may well be considered as providing:

- a rationale for student-centred TSPR in instructed language learning;
- a complete reference to addressing the issues of whether or not it is of value to share classroom power and what areas of classroom processes need to be specifically considered for sharing.

In more practical terms, all the factors discussed in these two literature review chapters pose explicitly and implicitly stated aspects of student-centred TSPR, closely related to the many facets of learning, language acquisition, schooling, classroom life and teacher-student interpersonal relationships. These, among many others, are such aspects as:

(a) Reference to learning environment:

- Relaxed, non-threatening, comfortable classroom atmosphere;
- Opportunities to communicate freely in L1 or L2;
- Small-group work.

(b) Reference to student / learning:

- Student involvement;
- Students' needs and interests;
- Awareness, autonomy and authenticity in the learning process;
- Acceptance or rejection;
- Personal choices / preferences;
- Experiences and expectations;
- Self-assessment and evaluation;
- Control over the pace / rhythm of learning;
- Access to materials

(c) Reference to teacher / teaching

- Teacher's commitment to teaching and learning processes;
- On-going assistance to students;

(d) Reference to teacher-student interaction:

- Teacher-student interpersonal relationship;
- Teacher-student negotiation;
- Classroom management and interaction.

These key concepts have been utilised in designing the data collection instruments of this study and will be referred to in the presentation, analysis and discussion of the data collected.

The next three chapters will set forth the methodological details of this study.

Part Three
Methodological Details

Chapter 4

Methodology of the Study

4.0. Introduction

This chapter constitutes the first part of three chapters on the methodology of the study. It outlines the research methods in general terms and gives a brief profile of the locations of the study. A more detailed presentation of the methodological principles and procedures involved in this study appears throughout the next two chapters, i.e. Chapters 5 and 6.

In this investigation, the teacher-student power relationships (TSPR) are treated as an aspect of behaviour — an aspect of classroom behaviour set within a certain language teaching-learning context.

The investigation is a case study in that it pays particular attention only to TSPR as an aspect of classroom behaviour, within a particular context at a specific time, and within a certain period of time. This definition is based on Nunan's (1994: 75) suggestion that, like ethnography, the case study investigates phenomena in context. Indeed, I have interpreted Nunan's concept of context in both spatial and temporal terms. It also follows from Nunan's argument that, while a case is a single instance of a class of objects or entities, a case study is the investigation of that single instance in the context in which it occurs (p. 79).

Many researchers criticise case study research because of the validity and reliability problems that it carries (Nunan 1994: 88), mainly with regard to its basis of assumption that the information gathered on a particular individual, group, community, etc., will also be true of other individuals, groups or communities (Richards *et al.* 1992: 47). One of its weaknesses is that a case study research fails to indicate the degree to which the case is representative of other cases, this usually being left to the reader to decide (Stake 1988: 261-263; in Nunan 1994: 89). Despite this however, as Nunan suggests, the case study has great potential as a research method in applied linguistics, due, according to Richards *et al.* (1992: 47), to its ability to provide an opportunity to collect detailed information

which may not be observable using other research techniques. Nunan claims that case study research is well-established in the area of second language acquisition, and goes on to offer the following two factors as the major strengths of the case study — which in turn may also serve to explain the nature of this investigation.

- It is suitable to small-scale investigations of the type often carried out by graduate students and/or the classroom practitioner.
- It is particularly suited to the types of action-oriented research projects where the purpose is to help practitioners enhance their understanding of, and solve problems related to, their own professional workplace, and where the problem of external validity is less significant than in other types of research

(Adapted from Nunan 1994: 88-89.).

At the same time, this study is a comparative one, due to its secondary but related focus on contrasting the findings concerning the central aspect from one context (ESL) with that from the other context (EFL). The three different kinds of instruments used in collecting the data (i.e. questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observations) are meant to triangulate the findings in both quantitative and qualitative ways. The final results are expected to enable me to draw conclusions and provide a comprehensive description of the similarities and differences between the points found in each or both contexts. I hope to be able to utilise these as the basis for making empirical as well as practical suggestions and recommendations for future directions at the two study centres.

(Note: many abbreviations appear throughout this chapter. These have been set out in the list of abbreviations on page xv.)

4.1. The Research Methods Employed

I found Grotjahn's (1987) distinction of research traditions in applied linguistics (cited in Nunan 1994: 4) particularly insightful and relevant to the detailed explanation of the research methods I have employed. Adopting Grotjahn's ideas, I shall describe the research methods employed in this study based on (a) the method of data collection, (b) the type of data yielded by the investigation, and (c) the type of analysis conducted on the data (Nunan 1994: 4).

4.1.1. The Data Collection Method

According to Grotjahn, data collection methods are distinguished according to whether the data are collected 'experimentally' or 'non-experimentally'.

This study is non-experimental because it does not yield the data by carrying out an experiment testing hypotheses and controlling the conditions under which the behaviour under investigation is observed. Moreover, although classroom observation is involved, this study has a primarily explorative nature as it measures the subjects' subjective attitudes towards the issue under study (i.e. TSPR) and the extent to which TSPR are realised in their own respective contexts. These data are collected through the use of questionnaires and interviews.

To some extent, this study also employs the research methods derived from naturalistic inquiry (see e.g. Guba & Lincoln in Keeves 1988: 81-85). This is both because it is non-experimental, as suggested earlier, i.e. the behaviour is investigated in the natural contexts in which it occurs, rather than in the experimental laboratory, and also because it follows the belief that the context in which behaviour occurs has a significant influence on that behaviour (Nunan 1994.: 53). This *naturalistic ecological hypothesis* (Wilson 1982, in Nunan 1994: 53.) is derived from the traditions of anthropology and sociology, the approaches of which I have utilised in collecting most of the data, especially during the interviews and classroom observation.

4.1.2. The Type of Data Yielded

The terms 'qualitative' and 'quantitative' are used to refer to the kinds of data collected for the investigation. According to Richards *et al.* (1992: 302), while qualitative data are not in numerical forms, for example a written account of what happened during a lesson or an interview, quantitative data are numerical and obtained through counting and measurement (see also Chaudron 1988: 15-16). For this investigation, I have collected both qualitative and quantitative data.

The data I collected from the two questionnaires and the classroom observation checklist were mainly quantitative. In addition, these were backed up by some qualitative data, which appear in the form of the respondents' written comments (in the questionnaires) and

my own field notes (taken during classroom observation). By means of the interviews and classroom observation, a large body of qualitative data were also yielded.

4.1.3. The Data Analysis

Grotjahn (in Nunan 1994.: 4) holds that there are two kinds of data analysis: statistical and interpretive. As far as this investigation is concerned, despite the large body of quantitative data yielded, the analysis is done interpretively, meaning that both the numerical and non-numerical information is processed and analysed interpretively in qualitative terms. Some minor statistical procedures are employed, mainly, to process the questionnaires data. However, these procedures are only used to quantify a percentage which indicates the respondents' overall tendency towards a number of pre-specified categories of responses.

More information on data analysis utilised for this study appears in the introductory sections of Chapters 7, 8, and 9, in which all the data results are presented and analysed.

In conclusion, methodologically, this is a non-experimental study of TSPR in ESL and EFL contexts that employs a naturalistic inquiry approach in which the qualitative and quantitative data yielded are analysed in an interpretive way.

4.2. A Brief Profile of the Two Study Centres

The study was conducted within two study centres for English in Australia (for ESL context) and Indonesia (for EFL context). The Australian study centre was the Adelaide-based Centre for Applied Linguistics in the University of South Australia — popularly known as CALUSA. The Indonesian counterpart was the English Study Program of the Department of Language and Arts Teaching at the Gorontalo State College for Education and Teachers' Training — locally known as STKIP Gorontalo. (Note that STKIP is pronounced '*stikip*' for convenience.) These two locations are referred to as CALUSA and STKIP throughout the thesis.

4.2.1. CALUSA Adelaide, South Australia

CALUSA has been involved in the provision of English language courses for international students for over twenty years. Nationally and internationally regarded and accredited for English language teaching and testing (e.g. CALUSA is accredited by the National ELICOS Accreditation Scheme [NEAS] to conduct a comprehensive range of ELICOS [English Language Intensive Courses for Overseas Students] training and tests), it is the only centre in South Australia where international students can sit for the IELTS (International English Language Testing System) and the TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) tests and also take the LCCI (London Chamber of Commerce and Industry) examinations.

4.2.1.1. A Brief History of CALUSA¹

CALUSA was founded in 1990, at the same time as the establishment of the University of South Australia (henceforth: UniSA) in Adelaide. While UniSA was founded as an amalgamation of the South Australian College for Advanced Education (SACAE) and the Institute of Technology (IT) as a realisation of the Australian Government policy on amalgamation of educational institutions, CALUSA was created out of three English study programs at the two institutions, i.e. the Adult Migrant Education Program (AMEP) and the Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) Program at SACAE, as well as the English Language Intensive Courses for Overseas Students (ELICOS) Centre at IT.

When it was first founded, CALUSA offered two major English education programs, i.e. TESOL Teacher Education and English Language Programs. The former offered TESOL courses for individuals pursuing TESOL degrees of Master of Education, Graduate Diploma of Education and Graduate Certificate and the latter provided English language proficiency training to overseas students and newly-arrived immigrants to Australia at pre-intermediate, intermediate and advanced levels. The courses offered in the English Language Programs included English for Academic Study, International Bridging Program, Language and Study Skills, General Intensive English, English for Professional

¹ I am indebted to Dr. Frans Liefink, former Associate Director and Head of English Language Programs Section of CALUSA, for providing me with the information about the establishment history of CALUSA in an interview on 10 April 1999.

Employment (specifically designed for professional immigrants), Study Tours and Short-Term Courses. (See also section 4.2.1.3. for details of these courses.)

Since its foundation, CALUSA developed quite substantially in qualitative and quantitative terms. This expansion was short-lived, however, and subsequently CALUSA has had to undergo some substantial changes. This has been largely due to (a) the Liberal Government's funding-cut policy launched when they came into power in 1995 and (b) the economic crisis that started to hit Asia in 1997, which drastically reduced the number of Asian students taking English courses in Australia. As a consequence and for efficiency and commercial reasons, CALUSA is now no longer part of UniSA, having become an independent ELICOS centre by mid 1998. It has now been privatised under the management of Eynesbury College, an Adelaide private senior secondary and pre-tertiary education and training provider.

The next subsection outlines the courses provided by CALUSA during my fieldwork there in mid 1997 and early 1998, some time before the privatisation took place.

4.2.1.2. General Courses at CALUSA

To determine which course they will go into, all CALUSA students are tested and interviewed at the beginning of the term. However, they are basically free to choose for themselves the study programs that best suit their needs and proficiency. In general, CALUSA offers four courses, known as ELICOS courses, to its students. These courses include General Intensive English (GIE), English for Academic Purposes (EAP), CALUSA University Entrance Certificate (CUEC), and English for Business Purposes (EBP). These classes are divided into five levels of proficiency: elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate, upper-intermediate, and advanced. The following sub-section outlines the purpose of the courses and the subjects they have to offer.

a. General Intensive English (GIE)

The GIE course is for students who wish to improve in all areas of their English, learn how to communicate more confidently in everyday situations, focus on developing their speaking and listening skills or prepare for higher-level courses. This course also includes options which enable students to focus on preparing for important internationally

recognised examinations such as the Cambridge examinations and TOEFL. It is offered in 5-week modules, except in January 1998, when it is offered as a 4-week Summer Course.

b. English for Academic Purposes (EAP)

The EAP is for students who need to improve their ability to communicate effectively in an English-speaking university or other higher education environment. Offered in 10-week modules, it includes the IELTS and TOEFL tests preparation. I observed the English for Tertiary Studies (ETS) Advanced class, which was a variant of this course, during the Pilot Study period in 1997 (see Chapter 6 for details).

c. CALUSA University Entrance Certificate (CUEC or UEC)

An alternative to IELTS and TOEFL, CUEC, which is offered only in the intermediate, upper-intermediate and advanced levels, is the English language proficiency requirement for entry to the University of South Australia's undergraduate and postgraduate courses. It is offered as either a 10- or a 20-week course, and is dependent on the English language proficiency level of the student. I observed one UEC Advanced class during the Main Study period in early 1998 (see Chapter 6 for details).

d. English for Business Purposes (EBP)

The EBP course is for students who want to develop their business and general communication skills and may also include preparation for the LCCI and TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication) examinations. The course includes industry visits in and around the Adelaide area, guest speakers who focus on particular aspects of business, development of skills for effective participation in negotiations, meetings and interviews and preparation of professional presentations (including presentation software). The EBTC Advanced class I observed during the Main Study period (early 1998) was a variant of this course tailored to meet the special needs of the students at the time (see Chapter 6 for details).

Besides the courses mentioned above, CALUSA also offers a range of holiday courses during term breaks. This includes *English on Wheels*, a course which allows students to explore various destinations in Australia while learning English.

4.2.1.3. Special Classes

CALUSA has also conducted special courses targeted at giving preparatory training to overseas students and immigrants to Australia and also the provision of academic training towards the completion of a TESOL degree. However, by the end of 1998, CALUSA had lost these programs, due largely to funding cuts. The courses included:

a. Language and Study Skills was designed for overseas students whose scholarships were sponsored by foreign-aid institutions such as Australia's AusAID (Australian Agency for International Development). These students were formally required to undertake this training for specified periods from as little as five weeks, prior to their enrolment in (South) Australian universities or colleges.

b. Professional Migrant Education was a special course for new professional migrants to Australia, conducted in conjunction with the Federal and State Governments' immigration program. Students of two professional migrants' classes — the last ones CALUSA had before the privatisation — participated in filling out one of my questionnaires during the Pilot Study period in 1997 (see Chapter 6 for details).

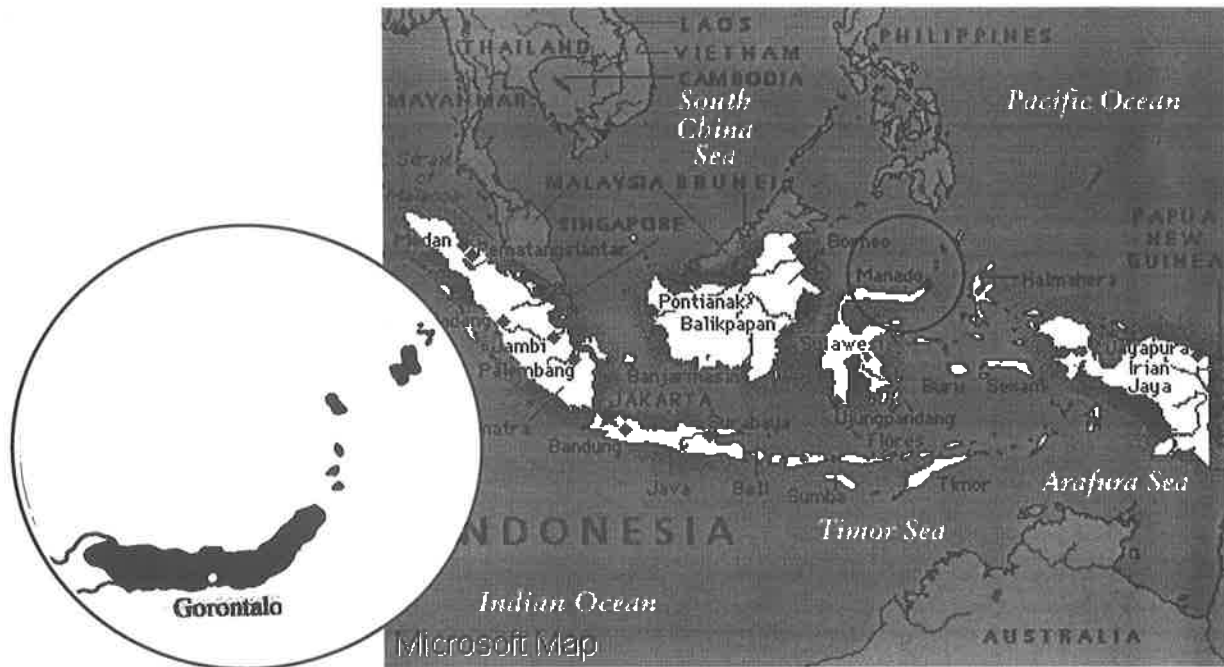
c. Malaysia-Australia Tertiary Education Scheme was specially prepared for Malaysian students prior to undertaking studies in Australian universities or colleges. This was implemented as part of a tertiary education cooperation between the Governments of Malaysia and Australia.

d. TESOL Studies were for both Australian and overseas individuals pursuing an academic diploma or degree in the teaching of English to speakers of other languages.

4.2.2. STKIP Gorontalo, North Sulawesi, Indonesia

The Indonesian part of this investigation was carried out in a teachers' induction centre for a provincial teachers' college. The induction centre is the English Study Program of the Department of Languages and Arts Education, which is part of the Gorontalo State College of Education and Teachers' Training — known locally as STKIP Gorontalo This study centre is based in the Municipality of Gorontalo, North Sulawesi Province, Indonesia. (See Map 4.1. for details.)

Map 4.1. The Republic of Indonesia (*Microsoft Encarta '97 Encyclopedia*). Inset: North Sulawesi Province (Source: Geography Department, University of Adelaide).



4.2.2.1. A Brief History of STKIP Gorontalo

The present STKIP Gorontalo has undergone multiple changes of status since its inception in 1963. It was the Faculty of Teachers' Training and Education Studies of the Manado-based Sam Ratulangi University until 16 January 1993, when it became the Gorontalo State College of Education and Teachers Training (STKIP Gorontalo), as a result of the Indonesian President's No. 9/1993 Decree.

STKIP is responsible for managing four different departments and ten study programs. Students in the four departments (Mathematics and Science; Languages and Arts; Social Studies; Education Studies) are directed towards the completion of S1 (*Strata 1*) degree of *Sarjana Pendidikan* (currently abbreviated *S.Pd* — loosely translated as Bachelor of Arts in Education), which qualifies its holders to be teachers at the senior secondary level of education. The only exceptions to this are the Department of Education Studies students, who are all doing the *D-2* (two-year diploma) in *PGSD* (Elementary School Teachers' Training Scheme).

4.2.2.2. The English Study Program

The English Study Program is where the actual data collection took place. Together with the Indonesian Language and Literature Study Program, it forms the Languages and Arts Education Department . This study program has been part of STKIP since it was first founded in 1963.

4.2.2.3. The Teachers (Lecturers)

During the fieldwork, there were ten teachers on duty at the study program. Seven of them were employed full time, while the other three teachers were employed part time. The former were members of the fifteen full time teaching staff listed. The other eight full time teachers were in other provinces, doing postgraduate studies at larger universities. (See Table 4.1. for details). Their being on study leave — ranging from three to five years — is due to the Government requirement for state colleges and universities to have at least 60% postgraduates on the teaching staff. The STKIP management has an ambition of having at least 50% postgraduates as teachers by the year 2000.

Out of the seven full-time teachers on location, four had obtained their postgraduate degrees. Three of them participated in the interviews, but only one let his classes be observed. In the table below, three types of degrees in the Indonesian higher education system are mentioned. The S1 (*Strata 1*) is for the *sarjana* (Bachelor's) degrees, S2 (*Strata 2*) for the *magister* (Masters) degrees, and S3 (*Strata 3*) for the *doktoral* (Ph.D.) degrees.

Table 4.1. Number of teachers at the English Study Program, STKIP Gorontalo, their status and academic qualifications, October-December 1997

Status	S1 (Bachelor's)		S2 (Master's)		S3 (Ph.D.)		Total
	On Duty	On Leave	On Duty	On Leave	On Duty	On Leave	
Full-time teachers	3	7	4	1	0	0	15
Part-time teachers	3	0	0	0	0	0	3
Total	6	7	4	1	0	0	18

It is worth mentioning that, while there is no S3 degree holder in the English Study Program yet, there are already 4 professors — two of whom are holders of S3 degrees —

within the Indonesian Language and Literature Study Program. These professors are also in charge of coordinating a small number of subjects, major and minor, in the English Study Program. This is still considered procedural, as the two study programs belong to the same department.

4.2.2.4. The Students

When the fieldwork was carried out, STKIP was in the middle of its so-called academic odd semester, which was actually the second calendar semester of 1997. The English Study Program then had a total of 281 students. The following Table (4.2.) sets out the data on the number of students, their sexes and their intake years (i.e. years when they were first enrolled).

Table 4.2. Number of students in the English Study Program, STKIP Gorontalo, October-December 1997 (based on the list of enrolled students of the English Study Program, Odd Semester of the 1997/1998 Academic Year).

Academic Years	Male	Female	Total
1988/1989	1	0	1
1989/1990	0	1	1
1990/1991	0	1	1
1991/1992	3	4	7
1992/1993	5	16	21
1993/1994	12	9	21
1994/1995	10	36	46
1995/1996	14	30	44
1996/1997	19	58	77
1997/1998	15	47	62
Total	79	202	281

4.2.2.5. The Subjects

The English Study Program requires each student to spend at least four academic years to complete their study. It is required by the system that every first year student does all the subjects offered in the first semester. The number of subjects they can take in the next semester(s) is dependent mainly on how successful they have been in the first semester. This is determined by their *IP (Indeks Prestasi)* or overall score gained from each subject after the final term examinations. The IP is set from 0 (lowest) to 4 (highest). Therefore, based on a standardised category, the higher the IP at the end of a semester, the more subjects they can do in the next semester.

The subjects offered are classified into two major groups: major and minor subjects. While most of the major subjects are intended for the English students, a number of minor English subjects is also offered, with some conditions, to students from the other departments and study programs. This information is obtained from STKIP's Guidebook of Academic Activities of 1996/1997, pages 39-42.

a. Major Subjects

The major subjects fall into five sub-groups: General Core Subjects, Educational Core Subjects, Primary Skills Subjects, Secondary Skills Subjects, and Supplementary Subjects for Primary Skills.

- ***General Core Subjects:***

- Pancasila* Education
- Patriotism Education
- History of National Struggle for Freedom
- Religious Education
- Health and Physical Education
- Arts Education
- Basic Social Studies
- Basic Natural Sciences

The first three subjects are mainly concerned with the indoctrination of the basic principles of Indonesian citizenship and nationalism. The other five subjects deal with the teaching of (the students' own) religions, the theories of and practices in health, sports and arts, as well as the introduction to social studies (e.g. anthropology and sociology) and natural sciences (i.e. the basics of biology, chemistry and physics). All STKIP students, regardless of their fields of study, are required to be enrolled in these subjects. It should be noted that, on the list above, *Pancasila* (from Sanskrit *panca* 'five' and *sila* 'principle') is Indonesia's Five Principles Ideology.

- ***Educational Core Subjects:***

- Introduction to Pedagogy
- Student Development
- Learning and Teaching
- The Educational Profession

These subjects are meant to prepare the students, who are future teachers, with the necessary knowledge of pedagogy and the related didactic issues.

- *Primary Skills Subjects:*

Introduction to Linguistics
Phonology
Syntax
Grammar
Semantics
Sociolinguistics
Psycholinguistics
Introduction to Literature
Prose
Drama
Cross Cultural Understanding
Listening Comprehension 1-3
Pronunciation Practice 1-2
Speaking 1-4
Reading 1-4
Writing 1-3
Translation 1-2
Dictation
Structure 1-4
Extensive Reading 1-2
English for Specific Purposes
Thesis
Social Action Internships (KKN)

These subjects provide the skills for the mastery of English necessary for teachers of English as a foreign language. The final assessment for a student is the completion and examination of his/her *skripsi*, which is an approximately 10, 000-word thesis marked and examined by up to four internal examiners. It is important to mention that the *KKN* is a program designed for final-year university students in the Indonesian higher education system. This program runs for at least two months and aims at developing students' managerial and professional skills in actual social actions. It is not known, however, why this social subject is regarded as a primary skill subject.

- *Secondary Skills Subjects:*

Research in English Language Teaching
Seminar on Language Teaching
Language Testing
Teaching of English as a Foreign Language
Curriculum and Materials Development
Field Experience

Students enrolled in these subjects are prepared with the necessary advanced skills related to TEFL. The subjects provide the students with the theories, as well as the opportunity to practise teaching English classes under supervision by their lecturers.

- *Supplementary Subjects to Primary Skills:*

Philosophy
Bahasa Indonesia
Introduction to Computing (Word Processing)
Journalism

As the group's title suggests, these subjects support the students' understanding of the previously mentioned primary skills subjects.

b. Minor Subjects

The minor subjects are of two groups: *Optional Subjects* (for non-English Study Program students) and the so called *Vertical Flexibility Subjects* (for students of the English Study Program).

- *Optional Subjects:*

Listening Comprehension
Speaking 1-2
Reading 1-2
Writing 1-2
Structure 1-2
Pronunciation Practice

These subjects are specially designed to meet the needs and interests of students outside the English Study Program to learn more English skills at tertiary level.

- *Vertical Flexibility Subjects:*

Curriculum and Textbook Analysis for Junior Secondary Schools
Listening Comprehension
Speaking
Reading
Writing
Structure
Pronunciation Practice
Introduction to Linguistics
Translation

These subjects enable the students to teach English at the junior secondary level of education in which English is formally introduced. As the students are trained to be English teachers at senior high schools, they also need to be prepared for teaching English at junior secondary schools as well, should it be necessary.

4.3. Summary

This chapter contains methodological details of the study. These include a discussion of the 'status' of this study as a comparative case. In collecting both qualitative and quantitative data using non-experimental and naturalistic inquiry in the two study centres for ESL and EFL, this study focuses on drawing on as much information as possible and comparing the resulting findings on issues of TSPR within these two different English language teaching-learning contexts. Also presented are brief profiles of CALUSA Adelaide and STKIP Gorontalo, the fieldwork locations. These include the courses and subjects provided by these two study centres of English.

Chapter 5

Design of the Study

5.0. Introduction

This study is concerned with the extent to which the principles of TSPR in teaching and learning processes in both EFL and ESL contexts were represented and realised by the teachers and students. It was essential to collect data concerning the representation of the principles from both the teachers and students as well as of the realisation of these principles in actual teaching-learning processes. A series of data collection procedures employing different instruments was therefore necessary in order to collect a large body of data and to triangulate the findings. I expected to arrive at and provide a comprehensive understanding of the main issue, and draw conclusions based on consideration of the circumstances in each context of teaching and learning.

To this main purpose, I collected both qualitative and quantitative data from the teachers, the students and the classroom interactions in two study centres of English, representing the two contexts of teaching and learning of English: EFL and ESL. The rationale was that the teachers' and students' opinions of the central issue of this study should be regarded as as important as their behaviour during classroom interactions.

This chapter is devoted to clarifying in detail the methodological aspects of the study. It presents the locations, participants and events investigated, as well as the details of the data collection instruments used during the fieldwork activities.

5.1. Participants and Events Investigated

By *participants* I mean all of the teachers and students in the two study centres who took part in this study and by *events* I mean all of the classroom sessions that were observed. Throughout the thesis, the participants who took part in the survey are referred to as either teacher-respondents or student-respondents and those teachers involved in the interviews are

referred to as interviewees. It should be noted that many of these participants were also teachers and students of the classes observed.

The number of participants in each stage of the data collection at the two study centres varied. Availability of students and teachers, allocation of time, and consideration of factors unique to each of the study centres during the fieldwork made it impractical, if not impossible, to have exactly the same number of participants and/or events for study. (This will be clarified in the next chapter.)

However, I managed to attract as representative a *sample* as possible for this study — by *sample* I mean a proportion of the whole number of participants and events investigated during the fieldwork — and was able to have reasonable sample sizes (as indicated in the tables below).

5.1.1. Participants

The number of teachers and students at the two study centres who took part in the investigation are summarised in the following tables, in which *Questionnaire A* is the one investigating TSPR and *Questionnaire B* investigates student learning styles preferences. (See also subsection 5.2.1. for details.)

Table 5.1. Number of CALUSA and STKIP students participating in the survey.

Instruments	Locations	
	CALUSA Adelaide	STKIP Gorontalo
<i>Questionnaire A only</i>	6 1997 classes: 19 students	(none)
<i>Questionnaires A and B</i>	2 1998 classes: 22 students	Semester 1: 10 students Semester 3: 12 students Semester 5: 7 students Semester 7: 9 students
Total:	41 students	38 students

Table 5.2. Number of CALUSA and STKIP teachers participating in the survey and interview.

Instruments	Locations	
	CALUSA Adelaide	STKIP Gorontalo
<i>Questionnaire A</i>	10 teachers	10 teachers
<i>Interview</i>	6 teachers	5 teachers
Total:	16 teachers	15 teachers

5.1.2. Classroom Sessions Observed

In order to have a sample of classroom activities, I observed two classes at CALUSA and another two classes at STKIP. Each class was observed three times using a checklist (field notes) and recorded using a video-camera. However, in one STKIP class, I was not allowed to use the video-camera and could only use the checklist and field notes because the teacher did not agree to be filmed. (See also sub-section 6.4.3.2., next chapter, for details.)

The following table indicates the classes observed and the hours spent in observing them.

Table 5.3. Duration of classroom observation in each study centre.

Classes Observed	CALUSA	Duration	Videoed	STKIP	Duration	Videoed
	EBTC	3 x 2 hours (6 hours)	Yes	Speaking 2 (Semester 3)	3 x 2.5 hours (7.5 hours)	No
	UEC	3 x 2 hours (6 hours)	Yes	Speaking 3 (Semester 5)	3 x 2.5 hours (7.5 hours)	Yes
	Total	12 hours		Total	15 hours	

I videotaped a series of selected events ranging from 30 to 60 minutes duration in each class session. The reasons for this were technical and managerial. The former refers to battery limitations (only lasted up to 40 minutes) and availability of videotapes (in Gorontalo) as well as condition of electric power outlets in the classroom (at STKIP, particularly). The latter refers to my focal point for observation, which was the teacher's and students' interaction in the classroom. I concentrated on such classroom phenomena as teacher-talk, turn-taking, turn-giving, negotiation, etc, which actually reflect power relationships as well as power sharing between the teacher and the students. Therefore, I stopped the recording mainly when (a) the participants paused for too long, (b) the students were reading silently, and (c) the students were writing. In addition to these considerations, I thought that 30 minutes recordings were still manageable, as far as transcribing them was concerned.

The filming in each study centre varied in terms of its length. I dedicated approximately 30-60 minutes to recording at CALUSA and approximately 30-40 minutes at STKIP. I was able to record up to 60 minutes in the CALUSA classes because they were equipped with a number of power points. This made it possible for me to record longer than the battery

permitted me to. When filming at STKIP, however, the only choice I had was using the battery because the only power point in the classroom was not working at all.

5.2. Data Collection Instruments

As indicated earlier, data were collected using three data collection instruments. These were: (a) interviews, (b) questionnaires, and (c) classroom observation (with a checklist, field notes and a video camera).

5.2.1. The Questionnaires (A and B)

The questionnaires addressed two different aspects of language learning/teaching: TSPR (henceforth: Questionnaire A) and students' learning styles and preferences (henceforth: Questionnaire B). Every effort had been made to ensure that all of the questionnaire items would be easy to understand by the respondents. Hence, simple sentences were used instead of complex ones and translation (in this case, into Indonesian) was made available.

Each of the questionnaires included an identification section which gathered the respondents' relevant biographical details. Introductory notes were also provided to attract the respondents' attention to the issue and set out instructions as to how to fill out the questionnaires. For data processing purposes, the identification section was important in that it gave the profile of the respondents. This helped a great deal in evaluating their backgrounds when drawing either overall or specific conclusions from the answers they provided. For this purpose, I considered the introductory section attached to Questionnaire A, rather than Questionnaire B, as the main source of information for building the profiles of the respondents, the results of which were also presented, analysed and discussed as a *background* to the interviews and questionnaire results.

In the ensuing sections, the two questionnaires are presented in terms of their structural organisation and contents.

5.2.1.1. Questionnaire A (on TSPR)

Questionnaire A (see Appendices B, C, D and E) was administered to the teachers and students. Its major contents were adapted from the work of Deller (1990: 6, quoted in

Wajnryb 1992: 120). It consisted of a list of the managerial classroom processes to focus on when observing power relationships in a language classroom. (Refer also to Table 2.3., Chapter 2 and Appendix H for the list.)

I rewrote my own version of the list and adapted it for the purpose of this study, with some additions and omissions here and there. For my Indonesian respondents, I translated the questionnaire into Bahasa Indonesia. Being an Indonesian native speaker, I had the feeling that the English version might cause different or even wrong interpretations when posed to the STKIP respondents. The reason for this concerned mainly with the modality *should* and the phrase *should be able to* in the English version, which are usually understood to mean 'must' and 'must have the ability to' when translated into Bahasa Indonesia. If retained, the English version might have resulted in my Indonesian respondents giving biased responses. Therefore, translation was made available in Indonesian.

There were thirty-eight items in this questionnaire. These items were divided into three parts which constituted the three major phases of classroom processes. In this case, I call these phases 'before-class acts', 'during-class acts', and 'after-class acts'.

In response to each of the items, the respondents were expected to place their preferred answer to two major questions (with the second major question having two versions, one for teacher-respondents and the other for student-respondents) by placing a tick in the space provided. These major questions were:

- Personal opinion: "Should this happen in a language classroom?"
- Experience in class: "Do you allow this in your English class?" (for teacher-respondents) and "Have you ever experienced this in this class?" (for student-respondents).

There were four options of frequency provided for each of the two major questions: always, often, sometimes, never.

With the first major question, I expected to gather the respondents' personal opinion, that is, how often they thought each of the acts in question should happen in an English classroom. With the second major question, I expected to gain their experience, that is, information on how often they had experienced any particular act in question being applied or encouraged in

their class at the time the survey was carried out. In short, the first major question dealt with the respondents' personal opinion of the issue and the second one with their experience. In addition, as far as the teacher-respondents were concerned, space was given for each item to be commented upon. I included this as the teachers might have wished to clarify their answers by writing their comments in this space.

The closed questionnaire items for the three phases were grouped into four. Each question in the group began with one of the following headings:

1. "Students should be able to...."
2. "Teacher and students should...."
3. "Students should...."
4. "Teacher should...."

This organisation, though, varied from one phase to another. The 'before-class acts' group had eight closed questions, grouped under two headings, i.e. "Students should be able to...." and "Teacher and students should....". The 'during-class acts' phase consisted of twenty-one closed questions grouped under all of the headings. The 'after-class activities' phase had nine closed questions under three headings, i.e. "Students should be able to....," "Teacher should....," and "Teacher and students should...."

Each phase of the questionnaire ended with an open-ended question requesting the respondents to write three before-class acts not covered in the questionnaire. For student-respondents, it started with "I want my teacher to allow me to...." and for teacher-respondents "I would allow my students to...."

The questionnaire items in each of the phases and groups of headings mentioned above are presented below. Each question is indicated by 'QIN' which stands for 'question item number'.

a. 'Before-Class Acts' Phase

• Students should be able to:

(QIN1) choose a course that best suits their needs or objectives.

(QIN2) help the teacher choose and prepare the learning materials.

- (QIN3) let the teacher know what their needs are.
- (QIN4) tell the teacher about their strengths and weaknesses in learning.
- (QIN5) choose the topic or topics of a lesson to be covered during the lesson or course term.
- (QIN6) see the appropriateness of the topic to their learning needs.

- Teacher and students should:

- (QIN7) discuss the objectives of the subject or lesson.
- (QIN8) discuss what to study during the class or lesson.

b. 'During-Class Acts' Phase

- Students should be able to:

- (QIN1) express their ideas about anything to anybody in the class at anytime.
- (QIN2) take a seat anywhere or sit next to anybody in the class.
- (QIN3) write on the board or clean it.
- (QIN4) form groups for discussion or group work themselves.
- (QIN5) operate any equipment used during the lesson.
- (QIN6) tell the teacher about their problems with the lesson.
- (QIN7) choose any new words to be learned.
- (QIN8) try to give meaning for new words.
- (QIN9) explain something they know about.
- (QIN10) answer their friends' questions (directed either to the teacher or their classmates) and/or give comments (to their friends' points of view).
- (QIN11) find their own mistakes.
- (QIN12) decide when to start or stop doing an activity.
- (QIN13) suggest another place for the class to study (e.g. in a language laboratory or in any outdoor venue).
- (QIN14) refuse to do something they are not prepared to do.
- (QIN15) check their own work individually or within a group or in pairs.
- (QIN16) work more in groups or pairs rather than individually.

- Students should:

- (QIN17) do whatever the teacher wants them to do.

(Note that this particular question stands against the basic principle of learner autonomy. Indeed, it was meant to be a controversial item to the respondents. I wanted it to be a sort of measurement of their consistency or inconsistency in answering all the other questions.)

- Teacher should:

(QIN18) assist the students to find their own mistakes.

(QIN19) tell the students about all their mistakes.

(QIN20) teach using methods of teaching that the students want or prefer.

- Teacher and students should:

(QIN21) become good friends.

c. 'After-Class Acts' Phase

- Students should be able to:

(QIN1) ask for an extension to hand in homework such as written assignments.

(QIN2) tell the teacher whether they think they have been successful or unsuccessful.

(QIN3) contact the teacher by phone, facsimile, or e-mail (if available) when having problems with a task or the lesson in general.

(QIN4) contact the teacher in person outside the class when having problems with a task or the lesson.

(QIN5) evaluate the teacher's performance during and after the course term.

(QIN6) evaluate if their learning objectives have been achieved.

- Teacher should:

(QIN7) tell the students whether they have succeeded or failed in the course.

- Teacher and students should:

(QIN8) discuss what to do for homework.

(QIN9) negotiate the due date for handing in the homework.

5.2.1.2. Questionnaire B (*on Students' Learning Styles Preferences*)

This questionnaire (see Appendix F) was based on the work of Willing (1985). Bailey (1988) adapted the original format with some modification. I used Bailey's questionnaire in my study as it was useful in classifying the students, based on their learning styles or preferences. In this case, I was particularly interested in knowing whether the students' learning styles preferences could be used to describe their differential classroom power-relational representation.

For the Indonesian respondents, I did not translate this questionnaire into Bahasa Indonesia. This was because the items had been originally designed to be easily understood even by students with a low level of proficiency in English. It had been used in Willing's (1988) research of students' learning styles preferences with the AMES students throughout Australia.

There were thirty-six items in this questionnaire. All the questions explored the students' preferred ways of learning English. The gradation options given were *Best* (for the most preferred way), *Good* (for a less preferred way), *A little* (for an even less preferred way), and *No* (for the least preferred way).

The questions are presented in random order below, based on the four categories of language learners which they correspond to (Willing 1985 in Nunan 1989). Again, 'QIN' means 'questionnaire item number'.

- 'Concrete' Learners:
 - (QIN2) In class, I like to listen and use cassettes.
 - (QIN3) In class, I like to learn by playing language games.
 - (QIN5) In class, I like to learn by pictures, films, video.
 - (QIN13) I like to learn by doing lots of different things in class.
 - (QIN18) I like to learn English by talking in pairs.
 - (QIN19) I like to learn English in a small group.
 - (QIN29) I like to learn English words by doing something.
 - (QIN31) At home, I like to learn by using cassettes.

- 'Analytical' Learners:

(QIN9) I like the teacher to give us problems to work out.

(QIN12) I like the teacher to let me find my mistakes.

(QIN14) I like to do one thing carefully.

(QIN17) I like to study English by myself (alone).

(QIN22) I like to study English grammar.

(QIN25) I like to study spelling.

(QIN30) At home, I like to learn by reading English newspapers, magazines, etc.

(QIN33) At home, I like to learn by studying English textbooks.

- 'Communicative' Learners:

(QIN4) In class, I like to learn by conversations.

(QIN16) I like the teacher to go fast.

(QIN21) I like to go out with the class and practise English with native-speakers.

(QIN23) I like to learn many new words.

(QIN24) I like to practise the sounds and pronunciation of English words.

(QIN28) I like to learn English words by hearing them.

(QIN32) At home, I like to learn by watching TV in English.

(QIN34) I like to learn by talking to friends in English.

(QIN35) I like to learn by watching and listening to native-speakers.

(QIN36) I like to learn by using English in shops, restaurants/coffee bars, etc.

- 'Authority-Oriented' Learners:

(QIN1) In class, I like to learn by reading.

(QIN6) I want to write everything in my notebook.

(QIN7) I like to have my own English textbook.

(QIN8) I like the teacher to explain everything to us.

(QIN10) I like the teacher to help me talk about my interests.

(QIN11) I like the teacher to tell me all my mistakes.

(QIN15) I like the teacher to go slowly.

(QIN20) I like to learn English with the whole class.

(QIN26) I like to learn how to write letters, notes, lists, etc.

(QIN27) I like to learn English words by seeing them.

5.2.2. Interview

The interview was intended to collect data on the teachers' points of view regarding a number of issues. These included those issues related to SCL generally and TSPR specifically. It sought information on the extent to which TSPR issues were understood and established in the teachers' classes. In relation to this, the interviewees were to be the teachers whose classes I had observed.

In regards to the Indonesian interviewees, the questions were provided in English and Indonesian versions. However, they preferred the interviews to be carried out in Indonesian rather than English. As a result, the English version was not used at all.

The issues raised for the interviews are presented below, in which 'IQN' stands for 'interview question number'. (See also Appendix G.) All the interviewees (in the two locations) were asked about their:

- (IQN1) personal details which included nationality, educational background, and occupational appointments.
- (IQN2) length of teaching experience.
- (IQN3) personal opinion on who should be the classroom decision maker or who made most of the decisions in their classes.
- (IQN4) knowledge of or familiarity with SCL approaches.
- (IQN5) own definition of SCL approaches, based on their professional and/or academic experience.
- (IQN6) strategies that had been employed in their class to put the students in the centre of classroom decision-making.
- (IQN7) problems in applying any SCL approach in their class. For the Australian interviewees, the focus of the question was on their problems with students from some Asian countries, and for their Indonesian counterparts, it was on the problem with their local students.
- (IQN8) opinion about giving students more freedom to control the class.
- (IQN9) opinion about whether their institution was in favour of or encouraged the application of SCL approaches.

(IQN10) opinion about whether the application of SCL was more time-consuming and cost more than other approaches.

5.2.3. Classroom Observation

In this study, classroom observation was focused on measuring the extent to which the participants actually performed, or at least encouraged the application of the aspects of TSPR in classroom interactions. This measurement was expected to validate the data taken from the other data collection instruments.

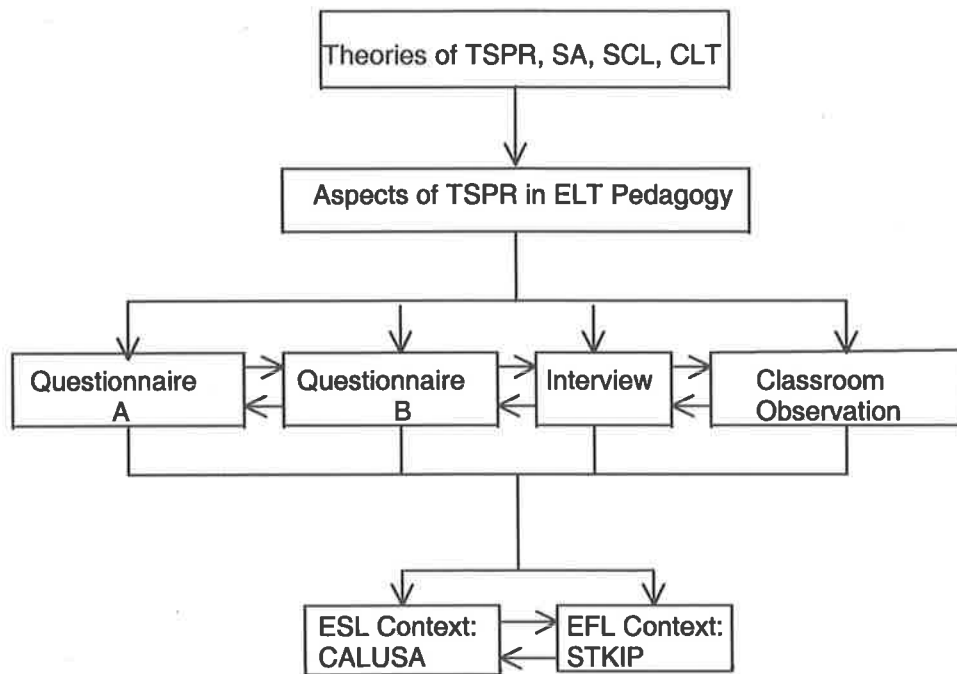
The activities in the classes observed during the fieldwork were recorded using a video-camera and a TSPR checklist (for details, see Appendix H). The checklist, which also had some blank space for field notes, was adapted from Deller (1990: 6; in Wajnryb 1992: 120). I recreated my own version of the checklist by adding necessary identification details and the space for field notes.

All of the video footage was transcribed and then analysed based on (1) general classification of *turns* in classroom talk. These were van Lier's (1988: 110) prospective, retrospective, concurrent, and neutral turns; (2) specific categories of the kinds of talk that the teacher uses to monitor and control the classroom communication system. These were Stubbs' (1976: 160-161) 'eight kinds of metacommunicative talk' which could indicate the extent to which TSPR worked during the classroom interaction. According to Stubbs (1976), these all happen when the teacher is attracting or showing attention, controlling the amount of speech, checking or confirming understanding, summarizing, defining, editing, correcting, and specifying topic. ✓

5.3. Summary

I have outlined in this chapter all the major points as well as the details related to the methodological design of this study. These include information on the participants and events investigated, as well as the details of the data collection instruments employed. To conclude, the design of this study is illustrated below.

Figure 5.1. Design of the study on TSPR in ESL/EFL classrooms.



Chapter 6

Data Collection Procedures

6.0. Introduction

This chapter will elaborate on all the procedural steps undertaken during the fieldwork activities in the two study centres. These procedures will be described based on each instrument used in collecting the data in the two study centres respectively. Also included are aspects regarded as of importance to the whole study. These are the ethical guidelines followed, the standard procedures applied, as well as the most significant problems encountered during the fieldwork activities.

6.1. Background

The fieldwork activities in the two study centres were carried out during the second semester of 1997 and the first semester of 1998. I started by trying out the data collection instruments at CALUSA between August and September 1997. During this *Pilot Study*, I had constructive feedback from the participants and managed to revise the format of Questionnaire A. After this, I also reviewed and improved the techniques, instruments, and procedures in classroom observation and interview as I learned from the difficulties I encountered.

Shortly before my departure for Indonesia in early October 1997, I made two major decisions regarding the instruments and equipment. The first was to use Bailey's students' learning styles preferences inventory (Bailey 1988) as a supplementary instrument to Questionnaire A. (As described in Chapter 5, this is called Questionnaire B.) Due to time limitations, during the Pilot Study, I was unable to obtain data on the student-respondents' learning styles preferences. They were only given Questionnaire A, whose results were combined with those from the *Main Study* classes and are also used for further analysis. (See section 6.4.1.1.a. for what constitutes Pilot Study and Main Study.) The second decision was to use a video-camera instead of a tape-recorder for classroom observation (in addition to using the checklist and field notes).

I was in Indonesia until mid December 1997. Shortly after my return to Adelaide, I began processing the data collected in Indonesia. Then I contacted CALUSA again for the Main Study period of data collection activities, which finally took place between March and April 1998. During this second period at CALUSA, I used the revised version of all data collection instruments and equipment that I used in Indonesia.

Before presenting a detailed description of the data collection steps and/or procedures, I should address the ethical guidelines that were followed and the standard procedures undertaken during the fieldwork activities.

6.2. Research Ethics

The participants were informed of the ethical guidelines followed in the data collection processes. Some of these were described briefly in the introduction sheet of Questionnaire A and were also explained during the administration of the data collection instruments.

The ethical guidelines followed were basically similar from one instrument to another. There were some specific ethical issues, however, which only applied to one data collection activity or instrument. What follows are the ethical guidelines communicated to the participants and employed during the fieldwork, presented here with regard to the use of the instrument(s) associated with them (where applicable):

1. Participants involved in the investigation were completely free to decide whether to take part or not.
2. Participants had the right to remain anonymous.
3. Participants' answers for the questionnaires and interviews would be processed confidentially and disclosed for professional purposes only.
4. The use of recording devices was with the participants' consent and permission.
5. Participants were entirely free not to answer any questionnaire and interview question which they did not feel like answering or which they simply did not want to answer.
6. The research and its findings would not cause any effect on the participants' career and study.
7. There was no right or wrong answer (for the questionnaires and interview).

8. I could always be contacted by phone or directly for all their inquiries about the investigation.
9. Participants could withdraw from the investigation at any point or stage and no questions would be asked.
10. The recordings (especially for the classroom observation data) were for data-analysis purposes only. They were not to be publicised in any form and for any reason.
11. I was fully responsible for any expenses during the data collection activities.
12. Neither the participants nor I would benefit financially from the data/information we provided to each other.
13. The Indonesian participants (for the questionnaires and interview) should feel free to answer the questions in Indonesian.

These ethical issues form a part of a whole set of procedural steps undertaken during the data collection activities. The following section outlines another set of procedures which I call the standard procedures.

6.3. The Standard Procedures

In general, the procedures undertaken at all stages of the data collection activities in the two study centres were similar. Therefore, I call these the standard procedures because they were applied similarly throughout the fieldwork activities. These procedures were as follows:

1. The participants were contacted in person or in writing (where necessary).
2. They were asked for their permission and/or participation.
3. They were informed of the research in general and of the data collection instrument/activity in particular.
4. Appointments were made where necessary.
5. Data collection was conducted at the appointed time and venue.
6. As far as classroom observation was concerned, I was not supposed to participate in any classroom activity. (It was my decision to be and remain an outsider during the observation. Despite my understanding that becoming a class participant could help lower the level of intrusion or anxiety I might cause as an observer, becoming an

outsider was my only choice because during the sessions I had to take notes as well. However, during one of the class sessions at CALUSA, for example, I did respond positively when the teachers and students asked me to contribute my ideas to the class discussion.)

7. Interviews were conducted in a way preferred by the interviewees.

6.4. The Data Collection Steps in Detail

The data collection steps are presented here based on the use of each instrument in each study centre.

6.4.1. Survey: Questionnaires A and B

While Questionnaire A was given to both the teachers and students, Questionnaire B was given to the students only. The students and teachers who participated in this survey are referred to here as ‘respondents’, and so they can be further labelled ‘student-respondents’ and/or ‘teacher-respondents’ for the sake of convenience. This section outlines the procedures undertaken in administering the two questionnaires.

6.4.1.1. At CALUSA

The data collection activities using the two questionnaires at CALUSA are presented below, for the two groups of respondents, i.e. the students and the teachers.

a. CALUSA Student-Respondents

As noted in section 6.1., the fieldwork activities at CALUSA took place during two periods. The first was a pilot-study period, between August and September 1997, which I call *Pilot Study*. The second one, which I call *Main Study*, took place between March and April 1998. CALUSA student-respondents’ participation throughout the fieldwork can then be described with reference to these periods.

- ***Pilot Study (August-September 1997)***

During this period, all the student-respondents were given one questionnaire only, that is Questionnaire A. Approximately 106 students were enrolled in 7 classes at CALUSA during this period. The number of students in each of these classes ranged from 12 to 17.

Included in these were 2 advanced classes for professional immigrants as well as 5 classes for ESL students, i.e. ETS Advanced, ETS Upper-intermediate, ETS Intermediate, ETC Upper-intermediate, and ETC Intermediate. (See 'Abbreviations' [pp. xv-xvi] for definitions of the terms ETS and ETC above as well as UEC and EBTC below.)

The first step taken was trialing out the first version of Questionnaire A. I decided to administer this in the ETS Advanced class where my questions, I presumed, would be better understood. The teacher and 11 out of the 16 students of the class took part in the survey. (I also interviewed the teacher and observed three sessions of teaching-learning processes in this class.) After working on the responses, comments, and input given by the respondents, I revised the format of the questionnaire.

The second step was administering the revised version of Questionnaire A to the classes other than ETS Advanced class. As I wanted to have 5 respondents from each of the 6 classes, I distributed a total number of 30 copies of the questionnaire to all the above classes, (except class ETS Advanced). At the end of this first period, 19 students returned their questionnaires.

It should be mentioned that while the responses from class ETS Advanced were processed for pilot-study purposes only, those from the other classes were processed for further analysis, together with those collected from the Main Study classes.

- Main Study (March-April 1998)

During this period, there were about 88 students in all CALUSA's classes. I decided to take at least 15% of this population as the sample for Questionnaires A and B. However, following the Director's suggestion, I administered the two questionnaires to the students in the two advanced classes: UEC and EBTC. The reason was that UEC and EBTC students had been at CALUSA for a while. They were assumed to be able to understand the questionnaires better than those in other classes, who were predominantly beginners. I was told that there were approximately 15 students in each of the two classes, so I would be able to have 30 respondents altogether. It was suggested to me that I next contact the teachers for appointments, see the class members, and inform them of my research project.

I went into the two classes on an agreed date and time. In the two classes I went into, I was given 15 minutes to talk about what I was doing and what I was asking them to do. I used this opportunity to let them go through the questionnaires and ask questions. After this, the students agreed to take the questionnaires home and complete them in a week. I then made an appointment with the class to come back and collect the questionnaires.

I had difficulty in getting the questionnaires back on the agreed date. Although some respondents returned the questionnaires on time, many admitted to having forgotten to complete them and then asked for more time. Later, it was easier to collect the remaining questionnaires from these students because I spent two weeks observing their classes, which was an opportunity for me to ‘keep reminding’ the respondents of the questionnaires. In total, 22 respondents returned the completed questionnaires.

Combining the number of student-respondents from the Pilot Study and Main Study, I eventually had 41 respondents for Questionnaire A and 22 for Questionnaire B.

b. CALUSA Teacher-Respondents

The teachers were given only Questionnaire A. The questionnaire was administered during the Main Study period.

There were officially 34 teachers at CALUSA during this period. Of these, a few were on unpaid leave interstate or overseas. I decided to choose a sample of 10 teachers as respondents. 5 out of these 10 teachers were those whom I interviewed and whose classes I observed during the two periods of fieldwork at CALUSA. The other 5 teachers were selected when they were available and their classes were not observed. (I was a CALUSA student myself in my first year of candidature and had been a regular visitor to the study centre since then. These 5 teachers were among those I know personally. So, when I met them at CALUSA, I told them about my research and then asked for their participation.)

I did not have any difficulty in introducing the research and the survey to the respondents. For those teachers interviewed and observed previously, the questionnaire was given after the interview or the observation. For the other 5 teachers, the questionnaire was given when I met them. The respondents were informed briefly of the research and the ethics guidelines that were followed. They were also told to take their time and that I did not

mind spending a week — even more — waiting for them to return the completed questionnaires.

The respondents were quite responsive and cooperative. Most of them completed the questionnaire in less than a week. I did not have to see them one by one to get the questionnaire back. They had left the questionnaire at CALUSA's front desk or in their pigeon holes. All 10 teachers returned the questionnaire.

As regards how the teachers filled the questionnaires, the response shown by one female CALUSA teachers might be worth mentioning. She chose not to answer all of the items under the second major question (*Do you allow this in your class?*). She argued that answering any of the choices provided (*Always, Often, Sometimes and Never*) will explicitly suggest that the TSPR issues in question *do or do not occur* in her class. Had the word 'encourage' been used instead of 'allow' (as in the question above), as she indicated later, it should have been alright for her to give answers. Being one of the teachers I observed and interviewed, this teacher was very cooperative indeed during the data collection activities, and yet, at the same time, was quite critical of my research. She even corrected the wording of a number of questions in my interview and survey.

6.4.1.2. At STKIP

The data collection activities using the two questionnaires at STKIP are presented below, organised according to the two groups of respondents, i.e. the students and the teachers.

a. STKIP Student-Respondents

There were 281 students registered in the English Study Program for the second semester of 1997 (during the fieldwork). 40 students (15% of the population) were given the two questionnaires. These 40 respondents were from four successive academic years, i.e. the 1994/1995, 1995/1996, 1996/1997, and 1997/1998 classes. This means that 10 respondents were expected from each class. Respondents from these classes were chosen because they were available in greater numbers. Those from earlier years were not chosen because they were so few in number and were either busy with writing final assignments or were doing fieldwork for their undergraduate qualification so that it was difficult to contact them.

In order to have a wide range of responses from a wide range of respondents, I decided not to select the respondents according to too specific criteria. However, I did ask for a reasonable ratio of female and male respondents, which proved to be impractical as the majority of the students were female.

I went into each class during lunch break — usually after a lecture or two — and told the class what I was doing. I then asked for 10 volunteers. However, because I did not want to insist on using their lunch break for this, I encouraged them to make a time for me to see them again later. Those who volunteered, however, agreed to be briefed during the break. I informed them that they could actually take the questionnaires home and return them to me later.

It needs mentioning that the respondents were preparing for mid semester examinations at that time. Therefore, I told them to take their time and concentrate more on their preparation for exams. They agreed to work on the questionnaires in their free time at home. However, I asked them to return the completed questionnaires in two weeks' time, which they agreed to.

During the briefing, or, more precisely, before taking them home, the respondents were given the opportunity to go through two questionnaires. They were allowed to ask questions regarding any part of the questionnaires that they did not understand.

In all, after a fortnight, 38 respondents returned the completed questionnaires. This number was equal for the two questionnaires. I did not hear from the two respondents who did not return the questionnaires before I left for Australia. Nevertheless, I was quite satisfied with the level of cooperation and positive responses shown by the students during the fieldwork.

It is important to note that the 38 STKIP student-respondents came from the following classes:

1. Semester 1 (1997/1998) = 10 respondents. All the respondents from this class who initially agreed to take part in the survey returned the questionnaires.
2. Semester 3 (1996/1997) = 12 respondents. There was an excess of two respondents from this class. These two respondents offered their cooperation after the first 10



respondents from the class had returned the questionnaires. I could not refuse this kind of cooperation. (It should be noted, then, that these two students did not indicate their names and which semester they were in on the identification sheet, but I suspect they were from a higher semester — probably semester 7 or 9. These students must have had to repeat one or two Semester-3 subjects.)

3. Semester 5 (1995/1996) = 7 respondents. There were only 8 students from this semester who were willing to take part in the survey in the first place. In accordance with research protocol, I did not want to insist on the participation of reluctant students. One respondent from this class, though, did not return the questionnaires.
4. Semester 7 (1994/1995) = 9 respondents. There were initially 10 respondents from this class, though one did not return the questionnaire.

b. STKIP Teacher-Respondents

There were 10, out of a total of 18, teachers, on duty — 3 of whom were employed part-time — during my fieldwork at STKIP. The absence of the other 8 teachers was due to their doing postgraduate degrees (mostly Masters) at larger universities within the country. (See also subsection 4.2.2.3., Chapter 4, for details.) The 10 teachers were given Questionnaire A.

Of these 10 teachers, 3 had extra non-teaching, administrative duties. This made them harder to contact, let alone take part in the study. It is worth pointing out that at STKIP, teachers having administrative duties usually spend much of their time performing non-teaching routines inside and outside the institution. Their teaching responsibilities are usually reduced to being a “subject coordinator” or are delegated to other full-time or part-time teachers. Meanwhile, the 3 part-time teachers came to STKIP on roster only. I had to make every effort to make sure they could be contacted when available, and, most of all, that they were willing to cooperate. I wished to include all the teachers available, but in the end, I could only manage to contact 7 teachers for participating in the survey.

The purpose of the study and the use of the instruments was explained to the teachers (respondents). They were also informed of all the standard procedures and ethics guidelines followed.

Five respondents returned the questionnaires. I later learnt that the two respondents who did not return the questionnaires were the part-time teachers. They had to go to the provincial capital for employment purposes and did not return to Gorontalo until I left for Australia in mid December 1997.

However, some time in late July 1998, I managed to contact STKIP again in the hope of obtaining more teacher-respondents. I wanted to have 5 more teachers for Questionnaire A. I was later informed that those teachers who were doing postgraduate studies were back in Gorontalo on a two-month academic leave and that they were willing to take part. I then mailed copies of Questionnaire A to Gorontalo, and in the end I was able to get responses from 5 teachers, in addition to the previous 5 obtained in 1997. (Among those 5 teachers, one was one of the two part-time teachers who failed to return the questionnaire in 1997.) As a result, I could have a reasonable number of 10 teacher respondents from STKIP.

6.4.2. Interview

As noted in the previous chapter, the interview is intended to collect data on the points of view of the teachers, especially those whose classes I observed, regarding a number of aspects related to SCL generally and TSPR specifically. The information sought is the extent to which TSPR issues are understood and established in the teachers' classes.

6.4.2.1. At CALUSA

During the Pilot Study, in September 1997, I interviewed the three teachers of three ETS classes that I had previously observed, i.e. ETS Intermediate, ETS Upper-intermediate, and ETS Advanced. During the Main Study, March-April 1998, I interviewed three teachers, two of whom taught the two advanced classes I observed, i.e. UEC and EBTC. The other teacher, that is, the sixth teacher I interviewed, used to teach the EBTC class for a couple of weeks before I began observing it with another teacher. In other words, I did not actually observe her teaching. She expressed her interest in my study and later warmly accepted my request for an interview.

The teachers were informed of the interview when I saw them before the classroom observation. All the teachers agreed to be interviewed after I observed their last class session.

The interviews, all in English, were carried out during coffee-break on the last days of my observation activities in each class. The teachers were informed of the relevant points of the ethics guidelines and the standard procedures and also of the questions to be asked. The format of the interview was informal and non-structured, meaning that I could ask questions not stated on the list that was shown to the teachers, depending on the extent of elaboration I required from them.

6.4.2.2. At STKIP

It was already clear to me that I could only have 2 STKIP classes to observe (refer to section 6.4.3.2. for explanation). Taking the previously mentioned criterion into consideration, that is, that the teacher interviewed should be the one whose class I observed, I realised I could, as a result, have only two teachers for interviews. This was not a representative sample for my investigation, so I decided to interview all the teachers on duty as long as they were available and willing to participate.

All the teachers on duty were contacted in person for this purpose. Each teacher agreed to be interviewed. Then, the date, time, and venue for the interviews were decided.

During the interviews, the relevant ethics and the standard procedures were explained to the teachers. All the teachers wanted the interview to be done in Indonesian, rather than English. They even preferred to have a look at the questions, which were in English, beforehand. Two of the teachers — both had not done a postgraduate course — even asked me to explain what is meant by SCL, although they were more familiar with 'CBSA' or *Cara Belajar Siswa Aktif*, which, in principle, is akin to SCL.

With the two full-time teachers whose classes I observed, the interviews were carried out in the staff room right after the last classroom session. The other three full-time teachers (including one who was Head of the Study Program), whose classes were not observed, were interviewed separately at the agreed times. The other two full-time teachers who had extra administrative duties cancelled the appointment. They had to go out for some

'emergency' assignments right at the appointed time. (Note that it is not uncommon for STKIP teachers with non-teaching structural duties to cancel an appointment for reasons, including teaching, to attend meetings, ceremonies, etc. held inside or outside STKIP) The two part-time teachers, however, did not show up at the agreed times and I did not hear from them until I concluded the fieldwork. The third part-time teacher, a STKIP retired lecturer re-employed part-time, was very difficult to contact because she was too busy with her private English classes outside STKIP. Finally, I concluded the fieldwork with records of 5 teachers interviewed.

6.4.3. Classroom Observation

My focal points for observation are classroom processes involving observable and relevant TSPR aspects, such as negotiation, teacher talk, turn taking and turn giving, as well as other teacher- or student-initiated acts commonly found in language-production classes. Therefore, the classes I observed at CALUSA and STKIP were those in which language-production skills were the focus of the subject.

As noted in the previous chapter, each of the classes (except one at STKIP) were observed three times using a video-camera and field notes. The duration of the recording varied and I only recorded selected, important parts of the whole classroom processes.

The procedures undertaken in collecting the classroom activities data in the two study centres through classroom observation were as follows:

6.4.3.1. At CALUSA

Classroom observations at CALUSA classes were conducted during the two periods of fieldwork activities in the study centre.

- *Pilot Study (August-September 1997)*

I observed three classes, each for three times, during this period of pilot-study. The first class observed was ETS Advanced, in which I also piloted the first version of Questionnaire A. The second was ETS Intermediate class and the third ETS Upper-intermediate. During this period, all classroom sessions were recorded using a tape-

recorder. I also used the classroom observation checklist. However, this was meant for familiarisation only, so I did not use the recordings and notes for further analyses.

- Main Study (March-April 1998)

In deciding which CALUSA classes to observe, I employed the same criterion I used at STKIP (see next section on STKIP). The two classes (UEC and EBTC) were for Advanced students and provided different lessons during the week. So, when contacting the teachers, I made sure that the three class sessions I would observe in each class met the criterion. The two teachers were quite cooperative and let me know of the sessions where students could be expected to perform language proficiency in classroom interactions as actively as possible. The sessions chosen therefore were ones which required the students to be involved in group discussions and oral presentations.

The two teachers were quite responsive and cooperative when contacted. One of them even shifted the session to another day because I could not come that day for personal reasons. All the class sessions observed in the EBTC class were conducted between 9 and 11am and in the UEC class between 11.30am and 1pm. I informed the teacher that I would only record 30 to 60-minutes of selected events in each class session and that I would also take notes using the checklist.

In the EBTC class, in which the students sat in groups of 3 to 4, I recorded the class session from the front desk, close to the white board. I asked for the students' permission when I had to record a certain group discussing an issue within their group.

In the UEC class, the students sat in two larger groups (of at least 7 students) all the time. I did my observation by placing the video-camera at the back of the classroom. The wide lens I used was quite helpful in that I could have all the students and the teacher within camera range. Sometimes I concentrated my observation on a group of students or on the teacher. However, I had to make sure not to record one of the students who had previously asked me not to record him for personal reasons.

6.4.3.2. At STKIP

I decided to observe three classes: Speaking I (in Semester 3), Speaking II (in Semester 5) and Speaking III (in Semester 7). Aimed at developing the students' oral communication skills, the classroom processes in these classes, I assumed, would be highly observable and also relevant to my research topic.

Of those three classes I chose, only the teacher of the third class (Speaking III, in Semester 7) showed reluctance to be observed. The reason she gave me was that she could not guarantee she could come to teach the class on time because, in her capacity as the Head of Study Program, she could be asked by the Head of STKIP to attend various meetings any time. I then understood this as a kind of refusal and decided not to observe her class. I could have actually observed a listening class instead, but at STKIP listening classes are all held in the language laboratory (using headphones, cassettes, etc.). This makes it impossible to hear, let alone observe, what the teacher and students say. Thus, in the end I only observed the first two classes above (Speaking I and II). However, another problem then arose: the teacher of Speaking I agreed to be observed but did not permit me to record the session. On the other hand, the teacher of Speaking II class was highly cooperative.

Their level of qualification might, to a certain degree, influence STKIP teachers' response to my request for classroom observation. This might be due partly to the use of recording devices, especially a video-camera, which I could not fully understand. Those having done postgraduate degrees seemed to be more cooperative. As far as academic qualifications are concerned, the 3 teachers had the following degrees: Bachelor of Arts in Literature (Speaking I teacher); Master of Education (Speaking II and Speaking III teachers) — awarded by a domestic postgraduate institution in Jakarta.

In the Speaking I class, the only instrument I was allowed to use was the classroom observation checklist and field notes. I took a seat among the students and carried out the observation. There was very little interaction to observe in this class because the teacher did not teach at all. She merely performed the role of an examiner, that is, asking each student or pairs of students to come forward and demonstrate their mastery of a number of pre-assigned dialogues. These dialogues were centred around the use of English idioms in isolated sentences and two-line dialogues which the students had to memorise and demonstrate before the class. The most significant TSPR aspect I could observe in this

class was that the teacher let each of the students or pairs of students decide for themselves when to come forward. The teacher did not have to call their names one by one. The class session finished when all the students had done their turn. As a result, the class session only ran for barely 60 minutes (even less) out of the scheduled 90 minutes.

In the second class (Speaking II), I was able to use both my video-camera and checklist. In the three class sessions observed, I took a seat right in the middle of the front row, facing two group of students assigned with a topic of discussion for the day. The two groups sat facing each other and the teacher was seated between them. The two groups debated the topic, the teacher mediated any conflict, and the rest of the class listened and awaited opportunity to give comments and suggestions or ask questions. I recorded a selected range of activities for 30-minutes within each 90-minute class session. I also took notes of relevant classroom processes in my field notes.

My observation was quite facilitated by the video-camera I used as it was equipped with a rotatable viewing screen which enabled me to record without having to look through the viewfinder, thus preventing me from being too distracting and intrusive. To my surprise, the teacher and the students looked quite comfortable and confident.

6.5. Problems Encountered

It should be noted that the problems mentioned in this section are only those major constraints I encountered or had to cope with during the fieldwork in the two study centres. These problems need mentioning as they overshadowed the data collection process in general. Specifically, they could also affect the validity and reliability of the data I have collected, presented, analysed and discussed.

6.5.1. At CALUSA

I did not have significant problems when doing the fieldwork at CALUSA. The Director, the teachers, and the students showed a high level of cooperation and response. The only thing I considered to be a 'problem' was that some of the student-respondents forgot that they had been given the questionnaires and then refused to do them once more especially

towards end of term. I could not argue further, as they clearly had the *power* to refuse to do something they did not feel like doing.

6.5.2. At STKIP

In general, I was quite satisfied with the data I collected from STKIP students. However, a number of problems came from the institution and teachers. Here are two of the most significant problems I encountered:

1. I had to wait a week before commencing my fieldwork activities at STKIP due to a bureaucratic misunderstanding. At the Department level, I was required to obtain the Head of STKIP's written recommendation before seeing the teachers and going into classes. To obtain this I needed to apply in writing and the process took a few days. This was something that was not strictly necessary since I had officially written a letter to the Head of STKIP a few months before the commencement of the fieldwork (which, unfortunately, was never answered in writing). I heard of the 'green light' for the fieldwork via an international telephone call I made to one of STKIP teachers before my departure.
2. Unlike the students, who looked very enthusiastic and responsive, some of the teachers seemed to be very reluctant to cooperate, especially when it came to classroom observation and interview. I do not think it was anything personal, but rather that they were possibly worried about their level of English or their knowledge of the issues I was asking them to talk about. I learned about their reluctance from the excuses they gave me when I contacted them for my data collection activities and also from their failure — without notice at all — to come to the interview appointments and to return the questionnaire.

6.6. Summary

In this chapter, I have set out the procedures undertaken in carrying out the data collection in the two study centres. The ethics guidelines followed, 'the standard procedures' undertaken, as well as the details of data collection steps when administering the instruments have been put forward. Also presented are the problems encountered (and

solved) during the fieldwork activities in the two study centres. I shall now deal with the results of the data collected by presenting and analysing them in the next chapters.

Part Four
**Presentation
and Analysis of Data**

Chapter 7

Interview Data Results

7.0. Introduction

This chapter deals with the results of interviews. It constitutes the first of five chapters devoted to presenting, analysing and discussing data collected from the two study centres. The next three chapters (8, 9 and 10) present and analyse data from Questionnaire A, Questionnaire B, and classroom observations respectively. In Chapter 11, the whole findings will be discussed.

The interview data appear first, as they are meant to provide a platform of general information that underpins the more detailed information in the other data. They also serve as a useful reference for the discussion later on.

For convenience and in order to outline a chronological order, the data are presented and analysed here based on each location where they were obtained. Therefore, because I started the fieldwork activities at CALUSA, data collected from this language study centre appear first.

Before arriving at the presentation, though, I should provide an explanation regarding the methodological procedures undertaken in processing, presenting, and analysing the interview data. (Note that those involved in collecting the data have been previously outlined in detail in Chapters 5 and 6.)

7.1. Methodology

I began the whole process by studying the transcripts of the interviews. This involved interpreting each answer given to every question I asked. The next process involved grouping the teachers' answers to each question. During this process, I concentrated on clusters of answers or opinions. Those having some aspects in common were then grouped together. By doing so, I have also managed to include as many responses as

possible. Throughout the presentation that follows, these clusters are finally described by addressing each of the interview questions. They are also substantiated with either the translated version (in the case of STKIP interview data) or paraphrased and verbatim forms of answers taken from the transcripts. In conclusion, the data analysis has utilised techniques derived from interpretive research (Nunan 1992: 231).

It should be noted that throughout the ensuing sections, 'IQN' stands for 'interview question number'. In addition, the interviewees are mainly referred to as teacher or teachers.

7.2. Data from CALUSA

7.2.1. Background

It has been mentioned in the last two chapters (i.e. Design and Procedures) that there were 6 teachers interviewed at CALUSA. Some parts of the methodological procedures involved in interviewing them are repeated here as these provide a useful background to the data presentation and analyses.

All interviews were conducted individually in the study centre, first between August and September 1997 (Pilot Study) with 3 teachers, and then in March 1998 (Main Study) with another 3 teachers. All of these interviews were audio-taped with the consent of the teachers. These were then transcribed and analysed. The results are presented in relation to each of the major questions (i.e. groupings of one or two questions having similar orientation) that I asked. Usually a number of impromptu questions were raised in response to answers given to the prepared ones.

Interviews were conducted in whatever format was convenient to the teachers. In order to obtain spontaneous rather than premeditated answers, I initially intended not to reveal the questions to the teachers beforehand. However, I had to relax the method a little bit as it eventually appeared to be too formal (especially after learning from the problems I had later during interviews at STKIP, where the teachers looked somewhat uncomfortable). Then I decided it was a good idea to make the interviews more informal and 'friendly'. Therefore, during the Pilot Study at CALUSA, I decided to let the 3 teachers read the

questions beforehand. During the Main Study, I went even more 'liberal' by letting the other 3 teachers answer the questions directly by reading the question sheet. By doing so I wished my interviewees to feel more relaxed.

7.2.2. Presentation and Analysis of Responses to Individual Questions

- **IQN 1: Personal, cultural, educational and professional backgrounds**

To begin, I should note that I have extracted information on this matter from the interviews and other sources of data, i.e. biographical and introductory information gathered from Questionnaire A. As a consequence, the data presented here also serve the purpose of describing some of the biographical information of Questionnaire A respondents, which is presented in Chapter 8.

I asked the teachers to tell me a little about themselves and their teaching appointments. The six teachers appeared to represent various personal, cultural, educational and professional backgrounds. In addition, five of these teachers were female. There were two Australians—of Irish and Polish backgrounds, an American, a Briton, a Dane, and a Tanzanian.

The teachers' highest educational qualifications ranged from Graduate Diploma to Doctor of Philosophy. They also have had extensive experience in teaching English or other subjects at various kinds and levels of educational institutions in (a) the countries where they originally came from, (b) in Australia (South Australia and interstate), and (c) overseas—other than their home countries. (This information, in relation to the teachers' length of teaching career, is summarised in Table 7.1.)

The number of classes they taught each week also varied; from only 1 or 2 on average to 12 classes in a week. The latter was for one teacher only, the Ph.D holder, who was also employed part-time at a South Australian university.

- **IQN 2: Length of teaching experience**

The teachers were asked about the length of their teaching career, not only in teaching English but also in teaching other subjects. It was, then, revealed that their overall

teaching experience ranged from 10 to 27 years and the length of their teaching experience at CALUSA was from 5 to more than 10 years.

Table 7.1. CALUSA teachers' teaching experience, based on countries of origin and highest educational qualifications.

Interviewee No. (Sex)	Country of origin	Highest educational qualification	Teaching experience (In years)		
			Home country	Australia	Other
1 (F)	UK	PhD	0	9	0
2 (F)	Australia	MA	18	-	9
3 (F)	Australia	MEd	15	-	0.5
4 (M)	Tanzania	MEd	18	7	0
5 (F)	Denmark	DipTEFL	3	10	0
6 (F)	USA	GradDipTESOL	0	6	7

- **IQN 3: Decision-maker in the (language) classroom**

Students' involvement in classroom decision-making is one aspect of learner autonomy, SCL and TSPR. When asked about who they thought the classroom decision-maker is or should be, all of the teachers put it, either explicitly or implicitly, that *ultimately* the teacher is the classroom decision-maker. They implied, however, that attention to this aspect, i.e. the extent to which students are involved in the decision making process, or whether or not students are involved at all, is dependent upon such factors as:

- (a) where they teach (what country, what school, etc.),
- (b) what area of decision-making is concerned (classroom activities or syllabus),
- (c) what kind of students they have in class (Asian, European, immigrants, highly motivated, less motivated, etc.)

The teachers' opinions can then be subdivided into the following major points:

1. "The institution outlines the curriculum, but the students also make decisions."

The teachers emphasised the claim that their students do have a say about classroom-related matters. They said, for example, that at CALUSA all the teachers carried out a needs-analysis and presented the course program to the students at the commencement of the term. (The teachers were not specific about what kind of needs-analysis was used, how it was used to share decisions, or whether it was used at all, and, frankly, I also failed to pose more probing questions on this.) In this way, according to one of the teachers,

they “*sell* the course to the students and show it [to them]” so that the students can “pick out [what] is of common interest to them.” The students can in turn exercise their rights to make decisions about what appeals to their objectives in learning English.

However, this teacher, who was of a non-Western background and was initially used to using a teacher-centred approach in his home country, also said that on his first days at CALUSA, he was a bit concerned when he “entered the field.” He said the reason was that the need to apply SCL approach took that *power* from him and, in his opinion, that was a bit uneven. He later added that after a while he had come to accept it as an enriching experience. In his home country, the decision-maker is the Minister of Education, under whom teachers are required to teach according to the nationally-planned syllabus. Practically, it took some time for him to adjust to an entirely new culture of teaching, where he was required to involve the students in negotiation of classroom activities.

2. “The teacher is ultimately the decision maker.”

One of the teachers, who was a Ph.D holder and had been employed part time in a South Australian university, believed strongly that the teacher is the ultimate decision maker. Nonetheless, she said, she liked to share the decisions because she always tried to involve the students in decision making, especially if the students had ‘strong opinions’. By ‘opinions’ she might mean the students’ (verbal, behavioural, facial) responses toward issues related to materials or classroom processes. The students’ opinions, according to her, certainly shape the decision-making process, although in most cases she would make more decisions than the students.

In the words of another teacher, who also considered herself as the main classroom decision-maker, when it came to her own lessons, she made the most decisions. Noting that the way teachers view teaching differs from one another, she later added that most of the time she saw herself as a “main classroom teacher” — a teacher who makes most of the instructional and managerial decisions in the classroom. Although she did negotiate with her students when setting up the program prior to the commencement of the course, it can be suggested that there was no or very little negotiation once this was done.

3. “The people in authority.”

Whether or not the students can be allowed to make the decisions is viewed as an opportunity provided by “the people in authority” who also control the teachers. This was pointed out by a senior teacher who had been teaching various types of students, including those who studied English for specific purposes (foreign-aid sponsored students being trained before enrolment to Australian universities, for instance). Some scholarship providers sent their students to CALUSA with strictly outlined purposes and expectations, including what the students should have and do during the training, which CALUSA had to follow. She said that this issue is a highly complex one because CALUSA and the teachers have to take into account what such institutions expect and demand. As she put it:

I’m told to teach a particular area and this is what’s been negotiated to be taught in it...when the students get to make decisions, it’s within very, very widely controlled parameters...put by the people in authority.... Well, of course I am (the decision-maker). Because I am also controlled from above.... And so you can negotiate within that, but you can’t negotiate out of it.”

This teacher is not alone in this regard. As pointed out by another teacher, who had experienced teaching in the AMES, which is a highly needs-based language training establishment, the institution and the teachers are the ones who set out the parameters and the students can only be involved in classroom decision-making on a day to day, not an overall, basis by providing input. Thus, as she said, “They can say they don’t like this and they like that or they like that and this” because to allow students to express preferences within certain parameters was essentially what CALUSA was trying to do. But, in the end, the decision maker is the classroom teacher. She finally remarked that she could not imagine having a class where “the teacher is just there and the students decide.”

4. “Students’ needs”

Only one teacher put it quite explicitly that classroom decision-making depends, usually, on the needs of the students, which should be made possible by clearly outlined guidelines from the outset. She put it that the students choose a course because they intend to learn for a specific purpose and teachers should treat this as the basis for setting up the curriculum. Without specifying how and whether she herself had carried it out, she implied that the curriculum should be subject to change when it fails to suit the students and their needs. Therefore, the decision making is, to some extent, a process subject to

negotiation. However, she clarified this statement by mentioning the need to have a structure set out from the beginning which could serve as “a guideline to see what should or should not be done.” This guideline must apparently be set out by the institution.

All the teachers, generally, agreed that teachers are the ultimate decision-makers, but that students should be given the opportunity to have their say on what is in store for them. However, whether students’ preferences are catered for or not, the program should be set out with guidelines and parameters that should be or have already been set up by the learning institution and/or the teacher(s) and, in some cases, the funding bodies, prior to the commencement of classroom activities.

- **IQN 4-5: On SCL**

I wanted to know how familiar the teachers were with this approach. I also requested them to define SCL based on their professional and academic experiences. All of them suggested that they were familiar, academically and socially, with SCL and were able to put forward their own definitions of the approach.

The teachers seemed to have a more or less similar understanding of SCL. Only one of them, however, preferred to understand it as a ‘needs-based learning approach’. As the definitions they put forward have many aspects in common, I have summarised them as follows:

In SCL, the students’ (and even each student’s) specific interests and needs are paramount as the guiding principles. They need to be identified and addressed in course planning as well as classroom decision-making. At the commencement of a course, the teacher and students should talk to each other and negotiate the content and methodology, including the choice of items for the lessons. This should be maintained continuously as the classroom activities progress. During this process, the students should be given the opportunity to make decisions about what they need and want in consultation with the teacher. The SCL approach values each of the students as an individual. The teacher should try to assist the students to reach their goals rather than the teacher’s goals.

Collectively or individually, this definition sees as its central focus the students and their right to a more autonomous way of learning. This is in line with Nunan’s definition of SCL — or ‘learner-centredness’, to use his term (see Pemberton *et al.* 1996: 14). By referring to a comparison of the curricular content of SCL and the traditional method,

Nunan suggests that the contents of both approaches will be similar. The key difference, he says, is that, in the former, curriculum decisions about the materials, methods and time of delivery, and the assessment and evaluation are made by referring to the students (Nunan in Pemberton, 1996: 14).

- **IQN 6: SCL strategies used in class**

I asked the teachers about the student-centred strategies that they had used in their efforts to establish the SCL approach in their classes. These were the strategies they mentioned, presented in clusters of opinions that I have paraphrased:

1. “Learning needs and interests”

Strategy A: In the first few sessions, students are given *ice-breaker* exercises that enhance the feeling of solidarity. This is followed by doing a needs-analysis using a questionnaire. The results of this analysis are then used to plan a tentative course which is ‘sold’ to the students through a small seminar in which the teacher presents the program. This outline is revised as the course progresses.

Strategy B: Always ask the students about the lessons. Check regularly whether the students find a particular exercise valuable and want to do more of it. Thus, even when a course plan has been designed prior to the commencement of the program and a timetable set up after a discussion with the students, new topics can be suggested by the students later as the course goes along.

Strategy C: Try to put the responsibility on the students to begin to reflect and make positive decisions on their language needs. Also try to take up the position as a resource person, a backup person, a support person who can provide them with materials, and who can discuss issues with them.

These three strategies, which were proposed by three teachers (one male and two females), are treated as a cluster as they have some aspects in common. They have a common emphasis on getting the students involved in and responsible for making the decisions about their learning needs and interests right from the beginning to the end of the course. While this ‘philosophy’ is particularly evident in Strategy C (given by the second female teacher), the more technical explanation of the phenomenon can be found in Strategies A and B (given by the male and the first female teachers).

Strategy A addresses specifically how the teacher avoids getting straight to doing a lesson with his own planned materials in the first week of the course. He sees the need to create in the beginning week a bonding atmosphere in the classroom. Having to teach a class with students from different sociocultural backgrounds, the teacher needs to introduce activities that help create the feeling of togetherness, which can be achieved by the 'ice-breaker' exercises. Once that bonding has established in this 'melting pot' it should be easier to get the students involved in another process that, sometimes, requires a certain degree of common perception, that is, the needs analysis. He uses the questionnaire to gather and quantify as much input as possible, the results of which can then be formulated in a proposal for the course that he subsequently presents to the class by means of a small class seminar. The discussion that follows the presentation forms a basis for negotiation of the methodology and details of the lesson contents.

As Strategies A and B suggest, what happens in the next four (out of five) weeks available for each course term at CALUSA would be an implementation of the agreement reached during the negotiation process. This, however, is subject to alterations and additions, or perhaps omissions, as the course progresses. As a consequence, a great deal of interpersonal communication between the teacher and students becomes an essential element in this process. This in turn can be considered conducive to a student-centred classroom atmosphere.

2. "Home assignment"

Strategy D: Try not to be particularly strict on certain homework that is too difficult or not interesting.

Strategy E: Assign the students to select some interesting articles from a magazine or newspaper during the weekend and ask them to come back and present them to the class.

These two strategies were proposed by two female teachers. They clearly are concerned with homework assignments. Strategy D can be understood in two ways. Firstly, when asking the students to do homework, the teacher lets them choose which homework, or part of it, they think is feasible, given the time span available and their linguistic capability. She also allows them to decide whether to do the homework or not. Secondly, when marking an assignment with some difficult or uninteresting elements in it, she is not

very strict in terms of correcting the students' errors. She tries to emphasise and appreciate the students' efforts rather than their grammatical correctness. This seems to be a very 'student-friendly' approach to such an important part of classroom learning as the homework assignment.

A very strong element of teacher-centredness is apparent in Strategy E in that the 'concept' for the homework comes right from the teacher herself. Nevertheless, it also has a degree of student-centredness as it gives the students 'a choice of items' for class presentation (as noted by one of the teachers in his definition of SCL; see also IQN 4-5), which offers them a lot of freedom to decide what is 'interesting' and what is, perhaps, 'uninteresting'.

- **IQN 7: Problems with Asian students**

The fact that most CALUSA students are from a number of Asian countries (where English is a foreign language) may pose a degree of challenge for ESL teachers wanting to implement learner autonomy, SCL, and TSPR in their classes. Asian students are usually seen to have certain characteristic behaviours in learning which may hamper their performance and achievement (see e.g. Pierson in Pemberton *et al.* 1996: 49). I wanted to know what kind of problems the teachers had had with these Asian students when applying SCL strategies such as those that they mentioned above.

I realised from the start that this issue has the potential to raise a problematic 'generalised categorisation' of Asian students' learning traits and behaviours. This is problematic in that it might simply be too stereotypical and even personally and culturally biased. The problems they claimed to be characteristics of Asian students could be so typical of anyone learning another language in a completely different learning setting that they might not always be reflective of Asian students. However, the problems the teachers had had might be a useful source of information on whether their SCL strategies had worked for their Asian students — who are basically EFL students studying in an ESL context — and, if so, to what extent.

The following are the stereotypes the teachers apparently still had about Asian students, which are mostly paraphrased from the teachers' information.

1. It is difficult to get Asian students to get used to the change of learning and teaching styles. They are reluctant to get more involved. They still consider that the teacher should know better and that it is the teacher's job to do the teaching.
2. Asian students are very hesitant to tell teachers what to do or to put their own opinions forward as being as important. They are often not prepared to go against the teacher, to challenge the teacher or make suggestions because it is not part of their culture.
3. Asian students lack the motivation to work individually. A teacher can give them a number of exercises for homework. Some time later, if the teacher forgets, they do not hand them in. They are happy that the teacher forgets. This certainly is not independent learning.
4. Asian students are harder to negotiate with and lack the responsibility for doing what is required of them. They do not respond very quickly. They are not very critical, not very open, not very demanding and not willing to articulate their needs or disagreements with the teacher. This problem is very much cultural rather than linguistic, meaning that it is their learning culture rather than their linguistic constraints that should be blamed for. (This was pointed out by one senior teacher, who had been teaching at CALUSA for nearly 10 years).

While the above problems might have some truth in them, they are, to some extent, stereotypical, at least if they are compared with the remarks from two other teachers who thought differently in this matter. The first said that Asian students are changing today. They are quite different learners than people thought they were a few years ago, when people used to think that they "don't actually go out and learn anything" for themselves because they memorise everything and learn from memory. She said she had been to a number of conferences and also learned from her own Asian students that this kind of student does not exist anymore because their teachers have now started to expose them more to Western approaches. She noted that a significant number of students, especially those who were attending higher level classes at CALUSA and intending to go to Australian universities, had had some experience of independent learning and many of them had already finished a degree in their own countries. She argued that these kinds of Asian students were quite familiar with the kind of learning style required in a Western country and in Australian institutions.

This point of view is supported by the second teacher who had previously had extensive experience in teaching students from different cultural backgrounds in Australia and also in a South-East Asian country. She remarked that to try to find the stereotypes now in Asian and European students is not easy. She also emphasised her view that not all Asian students fit the stereotype held by most teachers. By pointing out that not all Asian students are rote-learners, for instance, she later said that those from Asian countries such as Hong Kong are very critical indeed and willing to approach the teacher and give feedback.

In conclusion, it can be suggested that the teachers' opinions about the characteristics of Asian students lay at two extremes of a continuum — one saying that Asian students still fit the stereotype people believed they have and another saying that these stereotypes no longer hold true.

- **IQN 8: Students having more control in class: a threat to the teacher's role and authority?**

All but one of the teachers thought that allowing more opportunity for students to have more control will not cost the teachers their role or authority in the classroom. There are two groups of arguments in this regard.

1. "Frightened at first"

One teacher indicated his unfamiliarity when faced with this kind of classroom phenomenon at the outset, that is when he had to let students take a little control of what went on in the class. He said there was a tendency for new teachers — as he used to be — to feel 'frightened'. He was relieved he did not feel that any longer. He also managed to be more positive and considered any 'challenge' he had from his students and work environment as a learning experience. He thought that teachers who take that attitude should not find it a problem.

2. "For better teaching"

Another teacher argued that she did not think teachers will ever lose their instructional role. With the application of SCL, teachers might not be as authoritative as they used to

be in the past. However, she did not feel that this puts the teacher down in any way. She thought that “it makes for better teaching.”

Another two teachers thought the same way because they had never thought themselves to be *authoritarian* from the beginning. Emphasising the fact that some students might be knowledgeable or an authority in a particular field, one of them said that she had always thought that a teacher’s role is really to facilitate learning and that they are not really the authority in the class. She illustrated her remark by mentioning one of her students who was a researcher in automotive sensors, whom she regarded as clearly much more knowledgeable and having had a lot more experience in this field than she would ever have.

The second preferred to see herself in a role rather than an authority position. She argued that she really saw herself as ‘a resource person’. In her opinion, as a teacher she was simply somebody having a few more skills than the students. She merely had access to resources that other members of the class did not. Her role as a teacher, according to her, is to help the students access those resources and develop their skills. She stressed that she and the students do this in a collaborative sense. So, in her opinion, as far as *authority* goes, “that just doesn’t feel comfortable with me.”

My conclusion is that, since most CALUSA teachers never saw themselves as authorities, they do not feel that a teacher will lose his/her authoritarian role if students have more control in the class.

- **IQN 9: SCL at CALUSA**

Two groups of arguments were obtained from the interviewees in this regard:

1. “Students = ‘Employers’ and Asset”

Asked whether CALUSA encouraged the application of the SCL approach, the teachers generally agreed that this was the case. It had established its image as a student-centred language school in advertisements appearing worldwide. There was an indication that the overall curriculum for the whole school as well as for each class was planned with the students’ individual needs and goals in mind. The students were highly important in this matter. One of the teachers pointed out that it is the students who are their ‘employers’.

As their intention was to deliver what the students actually wanted, by implication they tried to involve the students as much as possible.

Another teacher implied that CALUSA saw its student-centred approach as the main asset of the institution. As a result, CALUSA constantly revised and refined its curriculum to make it suitable for the particular student groups enrolled. She once again emphasised that even though the students were not involved in institutional curriculum planning, they were consulted and had input into curriculum design on an individual, day to day basis.

2. “Needs-based not Wants-based”

One teacher put it quite interestingly that the SCL approach should be confined within the context of needs-based, not *wants-based*. Another teacher described this same view by stating that working with a SCL approach was “a bit like a parent — you have to sort of see what’s good for the students.” She said:

“Of course, if they like to go for excursions all the time then their writing skills might suffer and I might think as a good parent that, really, if they want to go to university, they have to get their grammar right before we go out and have fun and games.”

One teacher appeared to be more realistic by pointing out the complexity that surrounds SCL and its application. She said that philosophically she would say that she and her colleagues were in favour of SCL, but pragmatically, at the practical level, “It is very hard to carry it.” She also expressed her scepticism by saying that applying the SCL is a bit *idealistic*, especially when taking into account economic rationalism in the real world.

Taking all these points of view into account, I suggest that SCL might be favourable to the institution, most of its teachers and, possibly, students. However, given the real situation and conditions, it might be too idealistic to expect an optimal application of an SCL approach.

• IQN 10: Time and cost efficiency issues

None of the teachers denied the fact that the application of the SCL approach takes more time and costs more money than any other approach. This was said to be the consequence of the need to constantly check the suitability of the course for the students’ needs and

make changes as the course progresses. One of the teachers illustrated this by saying that to save time and money, one could just get some books from the library and plan the whole program for the weeks ahead and then sit back and relax for the term. But that is not the case with SCL, where teachers should be ready to be more flexible, and as a consequence, be prepared to spend extra time and cost for the sake of the students. As she said:

“.... We have to go home at night and you’re relaxing and watching TV, and a good program comes on. So maybe you’ll run and record things because it’s great for the class—without any intention of preparing a lesson, but you do that, and so it takes your own personal time as well. And the other thing, financial consequences, of course, constant photocopying.... So, yeah, I agree. It does. Expensive.”

At the end of the interview, this teacher highlighted the experience she had when teaching overseas (in a South East Asian country), where even ‘good books’ were not available. She said they were very lucky here at CALUSA that they had excellent facilities and funds to support all academic activities.

Another teacher put it in terms of another aspect of classroom life that she believed takes a while to develop, that is, *trust* amongst the students. In response to the question of time spent, she argued that it does take more time — usually one or two weeks — to build up trust, transform the class into a *unit*, and decide what the students are all aiming to do in the remaining three weeks. In fact, most CALUSA students are enrolled for just five weeks (which constitutes a term) and the teachers have to make the curriculum work for an even shorter time span. Taken to extremes, to the students this means that nearly half the learning period that most of them paid for would be spent for *trust-building*, which they might see as something irrelevant to their learning objectives, although they are of course improving their English and developing useful skills whilst doing this. Without sufficient explanation from the part of the teachers, the students could have the impression that they have wasted time and money.

Another teacher was able to point out quite interestingly that the application of the SCL approach not only takes more time and costs more, it takes more energy as well. By ‘energy’ this teacher might be referring to the extra work she had to do in order to

establish some degree of SCL in her teaching program, because she needed to work with students as individuals and address individual needs.

7.3. Data from STKIP

7.3.1. Background

As described earlier in Chapters 5 and 6, there were 5 teachers interviewed at STKIP Gorontalo. All the teachers were interviewed individually in the study centre, from October to December 1997. All of these interviews were tape-recorded with the consent of the teachers.

All interviews were conducted in Bahasa Indonesia, as the teachers preferred. I usually asked the questions one by one by reading the question sheet. I did not let the teachers read the questions and answer them themselves (as I did later at CALUSA during the Main Study), simply because it did not occur to me that I could actually do it. However, all of the teachers chose to have a look at the questions beforehand. One teacher even asked me to explain what I meant by ‘SCL’ as she, just like the other teachers, was more familiar with ‘CBSA’ (*Cara Belajar Siswa Aktif*), an Indonesian popular term for SCL. Sometimes I also had to pause the recording at the teacher’s request as he or she ‘contemplated’ the answers.

For analysis, interviews were transcribed in their original version, Indonesian, and then translated into English, for which I am fully responsible.

7.3.2. Presentation and analysis of responses to individual questions

- **IQN 1: Personal, cultural, educational and professional backgrounds**

At STKIP Gorontalo, I interviewed three female and two male teachers. Of these teachers, only two were local, Gorontaloese. The other three teachers were from the other two major ethnic groups in Sulawesi, i.e. Minahasan and Buginese. As far as religion is concerned, two of them were Christian and the other three Muslim. Three of these five teachers had obtained their Master in Education degrees from the same teachers’ college in Jakarta. The other two had different bachelor degrees and, when the fieldwork was carried out, they were still awaiting the official ‘green light’ to do their Masters degrees in larger

universities outside the province. It should be pointed out, that two of these five teachers held bachelor degrees from STKIP Gorontalo. (Note that the above mentioned information and the teachers' length of teaching experience is summarised in Table 7.2. below.)

Two of the five teachers also had non-teaching administrative duties. One was the Head of the English Study Program and the other one had two extra jobs: Secretary of the Research Office and Head of the Language Laboratory. The number of lessons these two teachers taught in a week averaged 4 to 5. I should note here that, for these teachers, having one lesson to teach in a semester usually means having to teach two parallel classes. This has always been the case with those who taught second, and, sometimes, third year classes, where there are usually more than 50 students in each class. To minimise class size, the institution divides each class into two parallel classes. Some teachers were also teaching English (as a compulsory subject) in other departments within STKIP.

- **IQN 2: Length of teaching experience**

Four of the teachers had already had between 10 and 13 years teaching experience. One of these four teachers had extensive teaching experience at secondary level before being transferred administratively to STKIP a few years ago. The fifth teacher was apparently the youngest, having been officially at STKIP for 4 years.

Table 7.2. STKIP teachers' teaching experience, based on highest educational qualifications.

Interviewee No. (Sex)	Highest educational qualification	Teaching experience (in years)	
		STKIP	Other
1 (M)	MPd	10	0
2 (M)	MPd	4	9
3 (F)	MPd	10	0
4 (F)	Dra	11	0.5
5 (F)	Dra	4	0

In the above table, *MPd* stands for *Magister Pendidikan* (Master of Education) and *Dra* is the short for *Doctoranda*, a term adopted from the Dutch higher education system, used for *female* holders of a *sarjana* or bachelor degree (in arts, social sciences or the humanities). This term and all other Dutch academic terms were eradicated from the

Indonesian higher education system on 9 February 1993, when the Government re-regulated the academic titling system, partly to Indonesianise the titles in use since the Dutch colonial occupation. (Note that *Drs* or *Doctorandus* was used for male *sarjanas*.)

- **IQN 3: Decision-maker in the classroom**

It was suggested by all the teachers that in practice the teacher is the one who makes more decisions in the classroom. In general they said that, even though they mainly do what is stated in the national curriculum, to a certain degree students are involved in classroom decision-making, especially when it comes to daily classroom routines. One teacher clarified this by saying that the decision-making is “partly the teacher’s and the students’ responsibility.” However, the teachers’ information suggests that the extent of the teacher’s domination in this regard is dependent upon at least three circumstances, as described below.

1. Whether the subject is to develop the students’ skills or knowledge.

The interviewees used the term ‘skills subjects’ to refer to those subjects that develop the major language skills in the students, i.e. listening, speaking, reading, and writing, as well as ‘knowledge subjects’ to refer to such subjects as Linguistics, Literature, Methods of Teaching and so forth. One of the teachers said that when teaching a skills subject, she expected the students to be more active. When she taught a knowledge subject, on the other hand, she played more roles than the students.

In my view, the different approaches utilised in teaching these two kinds of subjects, as the teachers suggested, are largely due to their perception of the *content* of the subjects. There seems to be a common perception shared by the teachers — and, probably, the students alike — that it is the content that dictates the strategies undertaken. When the subject is aimed at developing language proficiency (or ‘skills’ as the teachers perceived it) — where more classroom interaction is necessary in order to compensate for the lack of opportunity to practise the language outside the classroom — the strategies then focus on *interaction*, in which the teacher and all members of the class take part actively. The pattern of interaction that evolves allows for more negotiation and is therefore more student-centred.

On the other hand, when the subject is concerned mainly with theoretical or scientific information and the imparting of it, the teacher should be the main finder and source of information. The students, on the other hand, are the recipients of that information. The strategies involved then focus on the teacher providing the students with as much information — or ‘knowledge’ — as possible through a one-way oral presentation. The perceived best way to carry this out is by using lecture methods, where the teacher usually assumes a very dominant role throughout the session. Any interaction that occurs during the classroom session is governed by the teacher most of the time. This teacher-centred approach to the method of delivery has been considered as more applicable to most subjects in STKIP’s context, given the large class sizes, limited resources and references, and many other factors.

While the distinction and the variable administration may be debatable, skills and knowledge subjects in STKIP’s situation have always been seen and treated differently. In addition, regardless of whether they taught a skills or knowledge subjects, the teachers implied that they indeed made most of the decisions in the classroom.

2. What kind or what level of students there are in the class.

The example of this aspect was given by one of the teachers, who had previously taught in *SPG* and *SGO*. (These were two kinds of secondary level schools training teachers for primary schools, abolished by the government in late 1980’s). He reported that those schools were student centred, mainly for two reasons: (a) each class had to consist of no more than 30 students to maintain a reasonable class size officially required by CBSA, and (b) the decision-making regarding classroom activities, according to him, was shared between the teachers and students. Working in a different, or more precisely, higher level of education like STKIP, he said he had to give up those ‘old’ practices because, as he said, “Here in this college the decision-making appears to be dominated by the teachers. That’s what happens generally.” In fact, the *SPG* and *SGO* student he used to teach were also training to be teachers, just like STKIP students.

3. When the teacher has to handle the students’ various demands.

As one of the teachers suggested, when given the opportunity to make decisions, sometimes the students have so many different requests. Because it is impossible to do what every student wants to do, eventually, as she said, “It is the teachers who decide what

is the best.” Here the teacher implies how ‘powerful’ a teacher can be when assuming this particular role. Instead of organising the class to reach a consensus, she simply assumed the role of an ultimate decision maker.

My conclusion is that the teachers acknowledged the importance of involving students in classroom decision-making. However, they thought that, with regard to a number of factors, such as the nature of the subjects and students as well as their various demands, the teachers are the ones who eventually made more decisions than the students.

(Before going further it should be noted that responses to IQN 4-5 to 7 for STKIP teachers have been treated in the same way as those for CALUSA teachers.)

- **IQN 4-5: The “SCL Approach”**

All but two of the teachers claimed to be familiar with SCL. One teacher even claimed he was “very familiar with this approach” and noted that the approach had actually been around for a long time. He said, “It just hasn’t been applied to the maximum.” The teachers, however, made it clear to me that they understood it better as *CBSA*, as it is widely known in the Indonesian education system. What follows ‘condenses’ the teachers’ definitions of the approach, which I have summarised from their responses to my question.

SCL is a method of teaching that is derived from the communicative approaches. In contrast to other approaches, which are teacher-dominated, this approach encourages the teacher and students to cooperate in making the decisions and setting the learning objectives. As it is concerned with the students, it should encourage the students to play more active roles. They should be given the opportunity to learn by themselves rather than being dependent on the teacher. The teacher may just give the guidelines and the students must learn for themselves, which is also the spirit of the *CBSA* method. SCL enables the teachers to see how good the students are in the class. The less dominant the teacher the better because when the teacher assumes a more dominant role, it is difficult to determine whether the students are absorbing what is being taught

This composite of definitions clearly indicates the teachers’ understanding of the very basic ‘ingredients’ of what constitutes SCL. It addresses the issues of what it is derived from, how it works when compared to other approaches, what teacher and students should do when applying it in the class, and what is expected from its application. References made to the students in the definition fit the definition of student-centredness given by

Nunan (in Pemberton, 1996: 14). It seems to me, however, that the three teachers who had done postgraduate degrees had a better working knowledge of SCL than the others.

- **IQN 6: Strategies used in class**

Two teachers, both postgraduate degree holders, were able to illustrate how they applied SCL with relevant strategies in their classes. In the two group-discussion-related strategies mentioned, they claimed that their students had been given the opportunity:

1. To discuss the 'themes' of the discussion topics and to decide for themselves the topics they want to talk about.
2. To work more in groups rather than individually, utilising SCL techniques.

The other three teachers, one having completed a postgraduate degree, suggested very general strategies — ones that are generally used in any class in an Indonesian tertiary institution. These include using group discussion, question and answer, picture reading, retelling stories, etc. The teachers did not address one particular issue sought after, that is, whether or not they involve the students in making decisions about the use of the strategies they mentioned. Therefore these responses have been discarded.

- **IQN 7: Problems with STKIP students**

I asked about the problems the teachers had had in applying the SCL approach in their classes. Out of the five teachers, only two were able to put forward problems relevant to the question being asked. I have summarised these to include:

1. The lack of books and references needed by the teachers and students in the library and bookshops. This makes them rely mostly on the same references and books for years, recommended or owned by the teachers themselves.
2. Varying degrees of language proficiency among the students in one class. This poses difficulties in encouraging all the students to become more active in group discussions, arguably the most popular teaching technique at STKIP. The same few students having better proficiency usually dominate the discussions and therefore score better marks.
3. Large class sizes of at least 40 students. This poses a problem, especially when the teachers want to pay more attention to each student's needs and problems.

4. Lack of technical facilities, like overhead projectors. One of the teachers considered this an obstacle in making his classes easier to handle, more lively, informative, and interesting.
5. Average students' poor knowledge of basic English. The system does not take into account different levels of language proficiency when placing students. For some concerned teachers this creates problems in determining the starting point of the subjects, let alone in applying techniques that require the students to play more active roles.

The other three teachers mentioned irrelevant problems, namely the interference of students' mother tongue, as found in speaking and pronunciation classes, as well as the fact that students *rush* to study seriously only when the examinations are approaching. I considered these as irrelevant to the topic of my question — they do not address the issues that revolve around the application of SCL. Therefore these responses have also been discarded.

- **IQN 8: Students having more control in class: a threat to teacher's role and/or authority?**

In general, four of the teachers did not feel 'threatened' by students having more control in class. The teachers underlined, however, that teachers and students each have their own responsibility, their own role. When it comes to playing each other's role in class, a 'red line' should be drawn between how far each can go. One teacher suggested that it should be kept in balance. As she said:

“Sometimes we can give them the freedom they want. Sometimes we should be able to control them. There is a time when they can control the class, but there is also a time when they have to listen to me.”

The teachers also mentioned how important it is for teachers to always set the guidelines for classroom activities by which teacher and students should operate. One of them said that his objective was to allow for the students' creativity to develop. He would not mind the students 'managing' the class as long as it was based on the guidelines that he gave them. The reason was that he thought it was useful for them as future teachers who would have to make their own decisions.

Another teacher defined her role in class as the one who monitors. She argued that she was supposed to be the one who looked after and guided them and that there was no point in her losing her role as a teacher of being in control in the class. In a group discussion, for example, she said she monitored the scope of the discussion from the beginning to the end.

So to what extent could these teachers tolerate students' control of activities in class? One of the teachers' responses sums up what his colleagues suggested. He said that as long as the students do not abuse it to create disruptions, giving more control to students is a good thing to do, as it is conducive to both learning and teaching.

- **IQN 9: SCL at STKIP**

The teachers had varied responses as to whether STKIP is a student-centred institution. One teacher suggested that the institution had not encouraged the application of SCL at all. Therefore the initiative is left with each teacher to manage to implement it. Another teacher said that STKIP had institutionally encouraged the application and that the approach just had not been maximally put to work by the teachers. He said so far only about 40% of what is stipulated by SCL had been applied in STKIP.

The other three teachers said that, despite STKIP's position, which taught a curriculum planned by national authority (i.e. the Directorate General of Higher Education, Ministry of Education and Culture of the Republic of Indonesia), it had institutionally encouraged the teachers to apply SCL in their classes. This, they said, had been done through a number of seminars and official up-grading of teachers throughout STKIP. Thus, SCL had been encouraged in the study programs for teachers in addition to the English Study Program. One of these three teachers, though, said that the institution had also recommended that SCL be applied maximally in teaching the skills subjects. She said that to teach knowledge subjects, teachers could still rely on the conventional lecture method.

- **IQN 10: Time and cost efficiency issues**

While three teachers thought that, for some technical reasons, SCL takes more time and costs more to apply, the other two did not think so. SCL is time consuming and costs more to apply, according to the first three teachers, basically, because each student's

individual needs have to be catered for in the class, and that takes time — longer than applying the lecture method, for example. It costs more because, in order to anticipate changes in the course of classroom activities, both teachers and students need more references and instructional aids which are not always available in Gorontalo. Even if they are, the prices are not always affordable to the institution and the teachers, let alone the students, who are mostly from low middle income homes (by Indonesian economic standards—before the monetary crisis of 1997 and the economic, social and political crises which followed in 1998).

The two teachers who thought differently in this matter — they did not think SCL is time consuming and expensive — did not elaborate their responses sufficiently. I also failed to ask more probing questions about this.

7.4. Summary

Throughout this chapter I have presented and analysed the data collected from interviews with teachers in the two study centres. In general, the teachers shared many opinions about the issues of SCL (including SA, CLT and TSPR) in L2 learning, despite quite significant differences in a number of personal, professional and other aspects related to local circumstances. In particular, the data show that:

- There was quite a good understanding among the teachers about what a SCL approach is, along with its advantages and disadvantages. Some CALUSA teachers, however, were able to put forward a more critical stance towards the approach, e.g. by saying that it is a bit idealistic. In the case of STKIP, although the five teachers claimed to be relatively familiar with SCL, those who had done postgraduate studies seemed to have a better understanding of what it really is about.
- All the teachers recognised the importance of involving students in classroom decision-making. They acknowledged how important this is in catering for students' individual differences and language needs. However, while CALUSA teachers' points of view reflected their informed professional knowledge of the issue, STKIP teachers' opinions were shaped mainly by a common ideal notion that there should be an 'equal proportion' of teachers' and students' classroom responsibilities.

- All the teachers, however, emphasised the importance of confining the students' involvement in classroom decision-making on a day-to-day basis within the parameters already set by the teachers or the institution.
- Most teachers argued that allowing students to have more control of classroom routines does not pose any 'threat' to their instructional roles as teachers.
- Most CALUSA teachers considered that students from some Asian countries conformed to a number of negative stereotypical characteristics that make them different from students from Western societies.
- Some of the teachers (especially those from STKIP) acknowledged how expensive and time (even 'energy') consuming the SCL approach would be if it was to be applied maximally.

The next chapter focuses on presenting and analysing the data collected from Questionnaire A which investigates the teachers' and students' representation of TSPR issues in classroom-related acts or activities.

Chapter 8

Questionnaire A Data Results

8.0. Introduction

In the ensuing sections of the chapter, four types of data collected using Questionnaire A, which investigates TSPR, are presented and analysed in comparative and interpretive ways. Detailed discussions of the results (i.e. with specific references to data having noticeable statistical evidence) are set forth in Chapter 11.

Presented in the first section are:

- The respondents' profiles, or their biographical information, which provide a background to their responses to the subsequent sections of the questionnaire.
- The teachers' beliefs about what makes a conducive classroom atmosphere, presented to set some background to the responses in the subsequent sections of the questionnaire.

In the second section, which is the main part of this chapter, responses to the main questionnaire items are presented in three categories: *before-*, *during-* and *after-*class acts. Also presented is some *additional information*, i.e. the respondents' input to the last questionnaire item in each of the above categories. The respondents were asked to contribute three practices they could think of for each category. (Refer to subsection 5.3.1.1. Chapter 5, for details.)

8.1. Methodological Details: An Overview

8.1.1. The Respondents' Profile

The respondents' profile (see section 8.2.1.) was gathered using the biographical questions on page 2 of Questionnaire A. It is meant to provide a background not only to Questionnaire A data but also to those of the other instruments. Conditions unique to each study centre and its participants had made it impractical, if not impossible, to ask the respondents the same questions all the time. However, the questions asked of the teachers

were broadly similar, apart from ‘country of origin’ and ‘teaching experience overseas’ (which were asked only of CALUSA teachers). Meanwhile, those asked of the students differed slightly, apart from ‘age’ and ‘sex’.

8.1.2. The Teachers’ Beliefs

The teachers’ beliefs about what makes a conducive classroom atmosphere for language learning were gathered using the last question on page 2 of Questionnaire A (see Appendices B, C, D, E). That is, QIN 10 for CALUSA teachers and QIN 9 for STKIP teachers. Given the large amount and scope of responses that emerged (as can be seen in section I.1., Appendix I, pages A-21 to A-23), when interpreting the data I conducted a key word analysis of each of the statements (Nunan 1992: 146) in order to reveal the patterns of responses and generate categories from which the conclusions are drawn. This analysis has been adopted to avoid distorting or misinterpreting the data.

The categorised data are then placed in comparative tables, in which ‘S’ means the ‘number of statements’ and ‘R’ denotes ‘number of respondents’ (see e.g. Table 8.1.). These are meant to show how many respondents made how many statements. For example, under “interpersonal relationships”, ‘S 7’ and ‘R 6’ (7 statements given by 6 respondents) means that one of the 6 respondents had given two statements belonging to the same category, whereas the other 5 gave only one statement each. (See also Appendix I.) Thus, the tables set out each of the categories with reference to the total number of both the statements and the respondents gathered from the two locations. The categories themselves are arranged from the highest total number of *statements* (not *respondents*) to the lowest. These are the basis for the subsequent analysis and discussion.

I have used these same procedures to deal with the respondents’ input to the ‘Other’ questions, i.e. QIN 9 (on page 3 of Questionnaire A), QIN 22 (page 5), and QIN 10 (page 6). (See subsection 8.1.4. for details.)

8.1.3. The Main Questionnaire Items

The responses to the main questionnaire items, as they prevail, form a pattern of *subjective* judgment and evaluation of the student-centred TSPR issues, acts or practices in question.

The pattern is shaped by the overall distribution of the *highest* percentage of responses they have given to the choices provided.

The term “overall response pattern for individual questionnaire items” (Bailey, 1988) has been adopted to refer to the presentation of this questionnaire’s main content. My own personal interpretation of the results, which is informed by (a) my personal knowledge of the two study centres and the respondents and (b) additional written comments (from the teachers), has been incorporated in this comparison to provide a more elaborate description of the data.

The analysis that follows the presentation concentrates mainly on the highest percentage of average responses for each of the questionnaire items. I have used the terms ‘approval’ and ‘exposure’ to describe respectively the extent to which a certain practice is approved or disapproved and has or has not been experienced by the respondents. (See section 8.2.1.) In addition, whenever available, the teachers’ comments are also presented (verbatim or translated) in order to provide the analysis with some added information from the respondents themselves.

8.1.4. The Respondents’ Input

As already indicated in subsection 8.1.1., both the teachers’ and students’ responses to QIN 9 on page 3 of Questionnaire A, QIN 22 on page 5, and QIN 10 on page 6 are dealt with using the same methodological procedures. The categories derived from the statements are set out in tables given at the end of each subsection of the main questionnaire items results’ presentation and analysis. (Refer also to section I.2., Appendix I, pp A-23 – A-27), for the verbatim or translated statements.) Many of the statements, which I considered later as ‘the respondents’ input’, were quite insightful. However, a number of respondents failed to write them under the relevant classroom phase(s). Some had merely copied a few of the existing main questionnaire items and so their statements were eventually discarded.

8.2. The Data: Presentation and Analysis

For the sake of simplicity, the words ‘respondents’, ‘teachers’ and ‘students’ are used throughout the ensuing sections to refer specifically to ‘teacher- and student-respondents’, ‘teacher-respondents,’ and ‘student-respondents’ respectively.

8.2.1. The Teachers’ Profile and Beliefs

I will not put the teachers’ biographical information in detail here as their profile has been elaborated quite sufficiently in the interview data results. (Refer to Chapter 7, [IQN 1: Personal, cultural, educational, and professional backgrounds](#)) Presented below, instead, is a comparative analysis of their profiles and beliefs.

- **Age**

A small minority of the teachers (30% from each location) had chosen not to state their age. However, the information provided by those teachers who did state their age indicates that a small majority of CALUSA teachers (50%), belonged to the age group of 45 to 50 years old and over, and an equal majority of STKIP teachers were relatively younger, with exactly 60% aged between 30 and 35 years old.

- **Sex**

It should be noted that, prior to administering the questionnaire, I did not deliberately select the teachers based on their sexes in particular. Most CALUSA teachers (80%) were female. By accident, there was an equal number of females and males among the 10 STKIP teachers (50% each group).

- **Highest academic qualifications**

CALUSA teachers generally had higher academic qualifications than STKIP teachers did. The majority of the 10 CALUSA teachers (60%) had various Masters degrees as their highest academic qualifications and the same percentage of STKIP teachers had Bachelor degrees. Nevertheless, a significant minority (40%) of STKIP teachers also had Masters qualifications awarded by either of two different national universities in Indonesia.

- **Teaching experience**

In terms of length of teaching experience, most CALUSA teachers were apparently more experienced than their STKIP counterparts. In total, an overwhelming majority (90%) of CALUSA teachers had experience of teaching ranging from 11 to 20 years. On the other hand, an equal majority of STKIP teachers (90% in total) had from 5 to 10 years of teaching experience. A considerable percentage of CALUSA teachers (30%) had also experienced teaching in other countries, ranging from 6 to 10 years.

- **Number of classes taught in a week**

Most CALUSA teachers apparently had less classes to teach in a week than their STKIP counterparts. A majority (50%) of the 10 CALUSA teachers had less than 5 classes to teach in a week, that is, exactly 30% had only one class and 20%, or 2 teachers, each had 2 and 4 classes. Interestingly though, there was one teacher who indicated that she had 12 classes, which might seem quite overwhelming and yet is understandable as she was also employed part time as a lecturer in a South Australian university.

A solid majority (70%) of STKIP teachers, on the other hand, taught between 3 and 6 classes in a week. One of the teachers even stated that she had to teach an unbelievable 22 classes! However, this seems to be an accumulation of the number of two or more parallel classes for each subject she was responsible for. Indeed, due to a large number of STKIP's full time teachers doing postgraduate studies outside the province, the teachers on location had to cope with teaching too many large size classes in their absence.

- **The teachers' beliefs**

The 20 teachers from both schools gave 52 statements in response to the open question on page 2 of Questionnaire A: "Please list three most important things that you think you should do as an English teacher to create an effective learning atmosphere" I interpreted the responses using the procedures mentioned in subsection 8.1.2., i.e. mainly by assigning them into categories of responses. The data are summarised in Table 8.1. below, in which 'S' means 'number of statements' and 'R' means 'number of respondents'.

Table 8.1. CALUSA and STKIP teachers' beliefs about conducive language learning atmosphere.

No.	Category of Responses	CALUSA		STKIP		TOTAL	
		S	R	S	R	S	R
1	Interpersonal relationship	7	6	3	3	10	9
2	Comfortable classroom atmosphere	4	4	3	3	7	7
3	Good preparation of lesson	3	3	2	2	5	5
4	Opportunity to use English effectively	2	2	2	2	4	4
5	Quality teaching methods, materials, aids			4	4	4	4
6	Commitment to teaching and learning process	3	2			3	2
7	Pre-lesson' access to materials			3	3	3	3
8	Student needs and interests	2	2	1	1	3	3
9	Classroom interaction			2	2	2	2
10	Confidence	2	2			2	2
11	Interesting materials	2	2			2	2
12	Student involvement	2	2			2	2
13	Attention to errors	1	1			1	1
14	Authenticity	1	1			1	1
15	Classroom management			1	1	1	1
16	Review of lesson	1	1			1	1
17	Systematic delivery of materials			1	1	1	1
	TOTAL	30	28	22	22	52	50

Relevant aspects of student-centred TSPR are found in 9 out of the 17 categories above.

(Refer to the aspects of TSPR mentioned and discussed in Chapters 2 and 3.) These are:

◆ *Reference to interaction*

- (a) interpersonal relationship;
- (b) students' opportunity to use English effectively;
- (c) classroom interaction;

◆ *Reference to students*

- (d) students' access to the materials prior to the lesson;
- (e) students' needs and interests;
- (f) student involvement;

◆ *Reference to teacher*

- (g) teachers' commitment to the teaching and learning process;

◆ *Reference to classroom environment*

- (h) comfortable classroom atmosphere;

◆ *Reference to materials*

- (i) authenticity of materials.

In total, these aspects are made up of 35 statements given by a total of 33 teachers, which is a majority of 67.30% of all the statements. Indeed, CALUSA teachers contributed 21,

or a majority of 60%, out of the 35 statements. However, given the nature of the open question asked — to which the answers may vary greatly — this means that across the board most of the teachers had a similar orientation. That is, they had an idealistically common belief in the importance of establishing a student-centred classroom atmosphere, hence a student-centred TSPR pattern. (Again, refer to section I.1. Appendix I to see the statements verbatim or translated.)

8.2.2. The Students

In the ensuing sections, single asterisks (*) at the end of some dotted subheadings denote “asked to CALUSA students only”, whereas double asterisks (**) denote “asked to STKIP students only.” The students’ biographical details are set out in a comparative style as follows:

- **Age**

Most CALUSA students were relatively older than STKIP students were. Most of them (a total of 70.73%) belonged to the 21 to 30 year-old age group. A further 12.20% were aged over 30 years old. A majority (63.16%) of their STKIP counterparts, on the other hand, was younger: aged between 16 and 20 years old. The oldest students at STKIP were aged between 21 and 25 years old, that is a minority of 36.84%.

- **Sex**

In total, a majority of CALUSA students were female (56.10%) and so were their STKIP counterparts, a solid majority of 76.32% being female students.

- **Being on scholarship or not***

It was revealed that a large majority of CALUSA students (82.93%) were *not* on scholarships. This means they were mostly private students who were generally free, for example, to choose what class they wanted to be in. Those in receipt of a scholarship are usually required to do language or study-skills training prior to enrolment in their universities and so were not as ‘free’ as these private students.

- **Chose the class/course themselves***

A strong majority (78.05%) of CALUSA students claimed to have chosen the classes themselves. This is not the case at STKIP as all students, most particularly the first year students, are given no choice of subjects whatsoever.

- **Countries of origin***

The 41 CALUSA students, both ESL and migrants, came from many parts of the world. However, a small majority (a total of 68.30%) of the students came from some Asian countries. Of this number, nearly half (48.78%) were from the East-Asian countries, namely Japan (17.07%), South Korea (17.07%), Taiwan (12.20%), and China (2.44%) as well as an additional small minority of 19.52% from two South-East Asian and one South Asian country, namely Indonesia (12.20%), Thailand (4.88%) and Sri Lanka (2.44%). A very small minority of other students came from Eastern Europe (12.20%), Western Europe (6.32%), the Middle East (4.88%), Southern Europe (4.88%), and the former Soviet Union state of Uzbekistan (2.44%).

- **Experience of studying in English-speaking countries other than Australia***

A strong majority of CALUSA students (85.37%) had *never* studied English in the world's major English-speaking countries other than Australia, i.e. Britain, Canada, New Zealand, and the United States of America.

- **Length of time studying English in home countries***

Despite the fact that a very small minority (17.07%) of them decided not to answer the above question, a minority of CALUSA students (46.34%) claimed they had studied English for up to 6 years in their home countries before coming to Australia. Most of them had 3 years studying English in junior high school and another 3 years in senior high school. One of the students even claimed to have studied it for exactly 20 years. There was, however, a small number (7.32%) of students from South Korea, Poland, and Spain who claimed to have *never* studied the language at all before coming to Australia.

- **Length of time studying English in Australia***

Two CALUSA students did not answer this question. The data suggest, however, that a small majority (a total of 51.23%) of CALUSA students had been studying English in

Australia (including Adelaide and particularly CALUSA) for between 21 and 25 weeks (5 to 6 months) or more than 30 weeks (over 7.5 months).

- **Taught by native-speaking teachers of English****

At STKIP, there were two native-speaking teachers of English sometime before I conducted my fieldwork. These were a Briton in his late teens who had spent 3 months (in 1994) and an Australian middle-aged lady who spent 2 years (1995-1996) respectively in Gorontalo. A near solid majority (a total of 68.41%) of STKIP students were fortunate enough to have been taught by these native-speaking teachers for from 3 months to 2 years. A small minority (31.58%) of the students — especially those from the 1997 intake year — *never* had the opportunity because when they came to STKIP the foreigners had already gone back to their home countries.

- **Have studied English overseas?*****

None of the STKIP students had been overseas, let alone studied English overseas, either because they never had the opportunity (such as participating in sports competitions, student exchanges, or foreign-aid scholarships, etc.) or it was just too far beyond their economic capability.

8.3. Main Results: Overall Response Pattern for Individual Questionnaire Items

8.3.1. Approval and Exposure

‘Approval’ refers to the respondents’ *subjective opinion* of the suggested practice presented in each of the questionnaire items. This is the respondents’ answer to the first major question in the questionnaire (i.e. “Should this happen in a language classroom?”) In this presentation, it has been further sub-categorised into *very strong approval* (abbreviated as VSA in the tables) for the ‘Always’ option in the questionnaire, *strong approval* (SA) for ‘Often’, *weak approval* (WA) for ‘Sometimes’ and *no approval* (NA) for ‘Never’. The respondents are considered to have approved of a certain practice if the total percentage of their responses for ‘Always’, ‘Often’ and ‘Sometimes’ exceeds 50%. Similarly, they are considered to have disapproved of the practice if their responses for ‘No’ amount to more than 50%.

'Exposure' is used to refer to the extent of the respondents' *subjective experience* of the issues contained in the questionnaire items being encouraged or established in the class. This constitutes their responses to Questionnaire A's second major questions (i.e. "Do you allow this in your English class?" [for teachers] and "Have you ever experienced this in this class?" [for students]). In the presentation which follows, exposure has been rank-ordered in terms of *very high exposure* (VHE) for the 'Always' option in the questionnaire, *high exposure* (HE) for 'Often', *low exposure* (LE) for 'Sometimes', and *no exposure* (NE) for 'Never'. The respondents are considered to have been exposed to (or have experienced) the suggested practice if the total percentage of their responses to 'Always', 'Often' and 'Sometimes' exceeds 50%. They had never been exposed to the practice if their responses for 'Never' reach more than 50%.

I have used the four groups of aspects of language classroom TSPR mentioned in the summary of Chapter 3 (literature review) to sub-group the questionnaire items. Groups that have the most items appear first, and the item numbers in each group are ordered numerically from the lowest to the highest. (See Table 8.2. below for example.)

8.3.1.1. Before-Class Acts

a. Teacher-student negotiation

Table 8.2. Responses to QINs 6, 7 and 8 (BCA).

	Respondents	Approval (% Responses)				Exposure (% Responses)			
		VSA	SA	WA	NA	VHE	HE	LE	NE
QIN 6	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	77.78	0	22.22	0	62.5	25	12.5	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	0	40	20	40	0	20	30	50
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	26.32	28.95	36.84	7.89	10.81	32.43	29.73	27.03
	STKIP Students (n=38)	30.56	36.11	19.44	13.89	8.33	13.89	41.67	36.11
QIN 7	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	80	10	10	0	75	25	0	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	10	30	30	30	0	50	10	40
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	51.22	21.95	21.95	4.88	35	22.5	27.5	15
	STKIP Students (n=38)	60.53	31.58	7.89	0	19.44	38.89	33.33	8.33
QIN 8	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	55.56	22.22	22.22	0	28.57	14.29	57.14	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	30	60	10	0	11.11	66.67	22.22	0
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	39.02	26.83	31.71	2.44	21.95	24.39	46.34	7.32
	STKIP Students (n=38)	57.89	31.58	7.89	2.63	16.22	40.54	32.43	10.81

QIN 6: Students should be able to see the appropriateness of the topic to their learning needs.

This practice was a fairly popular one, even though overall slight rejection was shown by some STKIP teachers (whose approval rates were actually divided between strong and no approval). Additionally, unlike CALUSA, STKIP teaches a national curriculum, in which actual student needs are not formally catered for. Therefore, the practice contained in QIN 6 might look like a very good idea to the majority of students and some progressive teachers, but in reality it is just impractical. Nonetheless, the results show that this practice had been established in both places to some extent, especially at CALUSA, where one teacher pointed out the impossibility of “satisfying everyone [each student] all the time”.

QIN 7: Teacher and students should discuss the objectives of the subject or lesson.

This was a very popular practice, particularly in the opinions of CALUSA teachers as well as STKIP and CALUSA students. STKIP teachers are again divided (both in terms of approval and exposure). In terms of exposure, the responses suggest that this practice had to a large extent been established in both places. Despite the general warm welcome to this practice, however, a closer look at the result reveals that the responses, particularly those given by STKIP teachers, reflect the trend already shown for QIN 6 above. The ‘main ideas’ of QIN 6 and QIN 7 seemed to have been viewed in a similar way.

QIN 8: Teacher and students should discuss what to study during the class or lesson.

This practice implies teacher-student negotiation in the beginning of the course (Boomer 1986). It appeared to be a very popular practice, at least according to the teachers. One STKIP teacher related this to making the students “feel satisfied with what is being taught”. The students also showed they were very much in favour of it. In terms of exposure, to a certain extent, at least according to all the teachers, this had been practised in both locations. Despite some resistance from some STKIP teachers, the results proved how desirable and practicable aspects of teacher-student negotiation have been in the two locations. In other words, even though to varying degrees, teacher-student negotiation of lesson contents and processes seems to have been a common practice at CALUSA and STKIP.

b. Personal choices or preferences**Table 8.3.** Responses to QINs 1 and 5 (BCA).

	Respondents	Approval (% Responses)				Exposure (% Responses)			
		VSA	SA	WA	NA	VHE	HE	LE	NE
QIN 1	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	60	20	20	0	25	62.5	0	12.5
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	30	20	50	0	0	40	40	20
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	37.5	30	30	2.5	33.33	28.21	28.21	10.26
	STKIP Students (n=38)	60.53	21.05	13.16	5.26	16.22	37.84	27.03	18.92
QIN 5	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	10	60	20	10	0	25	75	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	10	20	30	40	0	30	20	50
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	17.5	15	60	7.5	5.13	25.64	46.15	23.08
	STKIP Students (n=38)	11.11	19.44	25	44.44	0	10.53	10.53	78.95

QIN 1: Students should be able to choose a course that suits their needs or objectives.

This was quite a popular practice, especially in the eyes of all the teachers — none of them showed disapproval. Two CALUSA teachers, nonetheless, stressed the need for counselling and guidance to be made available for the students in choosing their preferred course. To a certain extent, this practice had been established in the two institutions.

However, as regards STKIP, this claim seems questionable to me because, as far as I know, once enrolled, all STKIP students normally have no choice whatsoever when it comes to deciding what course they can undertake. They are all required to enrol in all the subjects offered, especially in the first year. Two STKIP teachers who claimed low experience of this practice in fact addressed this consideration. It was thought to be impossible by another teacher who claimed no experience of it at all. This latter comment, is, I think, a more realistic view of STKIP's situation.

QIN 5: Students should be able to choose the topics to be covered during the lesson or course term.

This practice was somewhat acceptable. While some STKIP teachers and students showed some degree of rejection, one CALUSA teacher preferred to see the 'topic' as 'theme' of the lesson, rather than the 'target skills', which are usually defined by the institution itself. In addition, the practice had not been quite established, especially at STKIP. At CALUSA one teacher said that this was hard, as it is "not part of their [the students'] culture".

c. Student involvement (in preparation of materials)

Table 8.4. Responses to QIN 2 (BCA).

	Respondents	% Personal Opinion				% Experience in Class			
		A	O	S	N	A	O	S	N
QIN 2	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	11.11	11.11	77.78	0	0	12.5	75	12.5
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	10	30	20	40	0	20	30	50
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	9.76	17.07	53.66	19.51	7.5	15	40	37.5
	STKIP Students (n=38)	18.92	13.51	40.54	27.03	2.63	7.89	26.32	63.16

QIN 2: Students should be able to help the teacher choose and prepare the learning materials.

This was not a popular practice; most of the respondents' approval was relatively weak. One CALUSA teacher who gave a very strong approval wrote that she had never seen this happen. Another teacher agreed to her students choosing but not preparing the materials, because they "make suggestions but don't normally 'prepare' materials". In addition, this practice was not established in the two study centres. One CALUSA teacher wanted to do this more, but her students, she said, were not so forthcoming because it was not part of their culture to be involved in such a practice. Meanwhile, STKIP teachers were again divided. In total half of them claimed no exposure at all, which was supported by a small majority of their students. This is understandable because, based on my experience, it is uncommon within the Indonesian education establishment to involve the students in such a practice. Some individual teachers may do it, but the institution does not formally encourage it.

d. Student self-assessment or evaluation

Table 8.5. Responses to QIN 4 (BCA).

	Respondents	% Personal Opinion				% Experience in Class			
		A	O	S	N	A	O	S	N
QIN 4	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	90	0	10	0	75	12.5	0	12.5
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	20	30	50	0	11.11	22.22	33.33	33.33
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	32.5	20	37.5	10	12.5	25	37.5	25
	STKIP Students (n=38)	36.84	28.95	26.32	7.89	5.26	26.32	31.58	36.84

QIN 4: Students should be able to tell the teacher about their strengths and weaknesses in learning.

This was quite a popular practice, particularly according to the teachers. One CALUSA teacher stated that this indeed had always happened at CALUSA. The respondents approved of it in varying degrees. As far as exposure goes, it had only been mildly encouraged in the two schools, mostly on an infrequent basis. Another CALUSA teacher

still wanted to see her students make use of this opportunity to the fullest. Again, she pointed to their ‘culture’ as a barrier.

e. Student needs and interests

Table 8.6. Responses to QIN 3 (BCA).

	Respondents	% Personal Opinion				% Experience in Class			
		A	O	S	N	A	O	S	N
QIN 3	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	88.89	11.11	0	0	100	0	0	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	33.33	11.11	55.56	0	10	40	30	20
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	19.51	46.34	29.27	4.88	14.63	36.59	39.02	9.76
	STKIP Students (n=38)	51.43	22.86	22.86	2.86	0	29.73	48.65	21.62

QIN 3: Students should be able to let the teacher know what their needs are.

This was another quite popular practice. All the teachers welcomed it. One CALUSA teacher commented that the students were given this opportunity only “if they are able to formulate these [their needs]”. In addition, it had to a certain extent been established in both schools, especially at CALUSA. However, despite all CALUSA teachers’ claims, one of them wrote that this had not worked maximally because it was not part of the students’ culture.

f. The respondents’ input

The following table contains the respondents’ own ideas about before-class acts that they thought had not been included in Questionnaire A items. (Refer also to section 8.1.4.) The questions were: “Before class, I would allow my students to...” (for the teachers) and “Before class, I want my teacher to allow me to...” (for the students). A total of 18 out of the 20 teachers and 23 out of the 79 students contributed their ideas to the two questions, each group submitting 24 statements. As a result of a key-word analysis, the statements fell neatly into 13 categories, as shown in the table below.

Table 8.7. Respondents' input to BCA phase.

No.	Category of Input	Teachers				Students				TOTAL	
		CALUSA		STKIP		CALUSA		STKIP		S	R
		S	R	S	R	S	R	S	R	S	R
1	Classroom interaction	6	4	5	5			6	5	17	14
2	Personal preferences	6	4					2	2	8	6
3	Interpersonal relationships					2	2	2	2	4	4
4	Pre-lesson access to materials							4	4	4	4
5	Acceptance and rejection of materials	2	1							2	1
6	Choice of teachers					2	2			2	2
7	Experience and expectations	2	1							2	1
8	Opportunity to provide materials			2	2					2	2
9	Opportunity to use English effectively							2	2	2	2
10	Review of lesson							2	2	2	2
11	Assessment							1	1	1	1
12	Classroom 'freedom'					1	1			1	1
13	Classroom management			1	1					1	1
TOTAL		16	10	8	8	5	5	19	18	48	41

One thing these categories have in common is that all of them imply the aspects of the major principles of student-centred TSPR discussed in the literature review chapters. The 'big four' are the statements advocating, or with reference to, classroom interaction, personal preferences, interpersonal relationships, students' access to materials prior to the lesson and students' acceptance or rejection of materials. All these support the views reflected by the respondents' answers to the eight questionnaire items discussed in this subsection.

In addition, CALUSA teachers appear to contribute more ideas than their STKIP counterparts. Nevertheless, the latter suggested that the students' have the opportunity to provide materials—a very strong yet positive issue in classroom power sharing. The extent to which this has been manifested at STKIP, however, is not known.

On the other hand, STKIP students had more ideas to offer than CALUSA students did. This might be due to the fact that they were trained to be teachers, and the training might have made them more aware of what they actually needed in the learning process. CALUSA students, nonetheless, raised the issue of choice of teachers, which might be possible in CALUSA's situation and which was impossible at STKIP.

8.3.1.2. During-class acts phase

a. Classroom interaction

Table 8.8. Responses to QINs 6, 9, 10 and 16 (DCA)

	Respondents	% Personal Opinion				% Experience in Class			
		A	O	S	N	A	O	S	N
QIN 6	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	90	10	0	0	75	12.5	12.5	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	12.5	62.5	25	0	11.11	44.44	33.33	11.11
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	41.46	24.39	26.83	7.32	19.51	19.51	46.34	14.63
	STKIP Students (n=38)	52.63	34.21	13.16	0	7.89	26.32	52.63	13.16
QIN 9	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	70	30	0	0	75	25	0	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	60	30	0	10	50	30	20	0
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	29.27	43.9	24.39	2.44	24.39	41.46	31.71	2.44
	STKIP Students (n=38)	68.42	21.05	10.53	0	18.42	42.11	39.47	0
QIN 10	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	70	20	10	0	75	12.5	12.5	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	70	30	0	0	55.56	44.44	0	0
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	26.83	41.46	31.71	0	19.51	29.27	48.78	2.44
	STKIP Students (n=38)	83.78	16.22	0	0	38.89	52.78	8.33	0
QIN 16	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	40	50	10	0	50	37.5	12.5	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	10	80	10	0	0	88.89	11.11	0
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	4.88	60.98	34.15	0	4.88	53.66	39.02	2.44
	STKIP Students (n=38)	28.95	42.11	28.95	0	15.79	55.26	23.68	5.26

QIN 6: Students should be able to tell the teacher about their problems with the lesson.

This was a very a popular classroom practice. All CALUSA and STKIP teachers, as well as STKIP students, showed a high degree of approval. One CALUSA teacher, however, highlighted some of the students' reluctance to come forward with their problems, as she noted, "I want them to — ALWAYS — but they don't always". In terms of exposure, all the respondents claimed fairly frequent exposure.

QIN 9: Students should be able to explain something they know about.

This was an extremely a popular classroom interaction practice, especially according to all the teachers and STKIP students. All of the respondents approved of it on a strong basis. In the teachers' and, particularly STKIP students', opinions, this practice had also been very well established in the two study centres.

QIN 10: Students should be able to answer their friends' questions or give comments.

This was another extremely popular classroom interaction practice. Almost all the respondents approved of it very strongly. In all the teachers' and STKIP students' opinion, this practice had been quite well established in their schools. One CALUSA teacher, nonetheless, stressed the importance of the students' adherence to "basic courtesy rules" when assuming this opportunity.

QIN 16: Students should be able to work more in groups or pairs rather than individually.

Just like the above classroom interaction practices, this was an overwhelmingly popular practice. The responses shown implied how popular small-group work is in helping to shape a positive pattern of classroom interaction. The majority of the respondents' approval rate, including that of a significant minority of STKIP students', indicated strong approval. To a large extent, this practice had also been encouraged in both locations.

b. Personal choices or preferences**Table 8.9.** Responses to QINs 2, 7, 13 and 20 (DCA).

	Respondents	% Personal Opinion				% Experience in Class			
		A	O	S	N	A	O	S	N
QIN 2	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	70	10	20	0	75	12.5	12.5	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	60	20	10	10	50	10	20	20
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	48.78	26.83	19.51	4.88	63.41	12.20	17.07	7.32
	STKIP Students (n=38)	72.97	18.92	5.41	2.7	64.86	21.62	8.11	5.41
QIN 7	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	40	40	20	0	50	12.5	37.5	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	20	50	20	10	20	60	10	10
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	31.71	19.51	41.46	7.32	20	20	45	15
	STKIP Students (n=38)	61.11	13.89	22.22	2.78	18.92	32.43	24.32	24.32
QIN 13	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	30	0	60	10	37.5	0	50	12.5
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	10	50	30	10	0	55.56	33.33	11.11
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	14.63	17.07	53.66	14.63	7.32	7.32	51.22	34.15
	STKIP Students (n=38)	42.11	44.74	13.16	0	10.53	26.32	42.11	21.05
QIN 20	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	33.33	22.22	44.44	0	14.29	28.57	57.14	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	20	50	20	10	22.22	44.44	33.33	0
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	21.05	36.84	39.47	2.63	7.69	41.03	38.46	12.82
	STKIP Students (n=38)	54.05	37.84	2.7	5.41	10.53	28.95	47.37	13.16

QIN 2: Students should be able to take a seat anywhere or sit next to anybody in the class.

This was an extremely popular practice. Approved of very strongly by all the respondents, it had also been quite well established in the two study centres (all the respondents claimed very high exposure). The students' freedom in choosing their preferred seats in the classroom is apparently not an issue in both locations. Nevertheless, having indicated 'no approval', one STKIP teacher wrote that in his classes students sat on "the available seats", meaning that they could take any seat available in class. As far as I know, STKIP students usually sat in the same place or next to whoever they felt comfortable with. It was easy to notice a certain student or group of students sitting on the same chairs every day. Teachers did not usually 'interfere' in this unless there was something about the seating arrangement that concerned them.

QIN 7: Students should be able to choose any new words to be learned.

This was a fairly popular practice, especially with all CALUSA teachers. It was approved of by all of the respondents on some common grounds. This practice had, to a certain extent, been encouraged in their classes. In beginners' classes, however, as in one CALUSA teacher's opinion, this practice was sometimes impractical. The reason might be that beginners usually have limited vocabulary and so they tend to prefer the teacher to tell them all the individual words and idioms used without first trying to find them out themselves.

QIN 13: Students should be able to suggest another place for the class to study.

This was another fairly popular practice, especially with STKIP students. It was approved of by all the respondents in a similar way, and, to some extent or on a fairly frequent basis, it had been done in their classes. While classroom and timetables are not negotiable at CALUSA, at STKIP, they are subject to changes even though they have been painstakingly developed by the department at the beginning of each semester. This may mean a switch of classroom and, normally, the students can suggest when and where to hold the class session. During the interviews, one STKIP teacher told me that for listening-speaking exercises she usually let the students decide where (and, based on my experience, I would suggest what time) they would like the sessions to be held.

QIN 20: Teacher should teach using methods of teaching that the students want or prefer.

This was a popular practice. It was approved of by all the respondents, especially CALUSA teachers, even though to varying degrees. In one CALUSA teacher's opinion, whether to teach using the students preferred method would first need to be discussed with the students. Students' involvement, she said, would be a bit complicated for her, because, for example, she did not know how to teach rote-learners. If the students' preference was to be accommodated without clearly stated guidelines, teachers could find themselves 'trapped', i.e. teaching using methods which they oppose or have no idea about. This practice, however, had been done in the respondents' classes to some extent.

c. Student involvement

Table 8.10. Responses to QINs 3, 4 and 5 (DCA).

	Respondents	% Personal Opinion				% Experience in Class			
		A	O	S	N	A	O	S	N
QIN 3	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	60	20	20	0	62.5	25	12.5	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	40	30	30	0	20	50	20	10
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	24.39	17.07	39.02	19.51	12.82	17.95	33.33	35.9
	STKIP Students (n=38)	39.47	26.32	31.58	2.63	21.05	28.95	47.37	2.63
QIN 4	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	20	80	0	0	25	75	0	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	40	50	0	10	30	50	10	10
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	24.39	48.78	26.83	0	32.5	35	32.5	0
	STKIP Students (n=38)	57.89	42.11	0	0	28.95	52.63	13.16	5.26
QIN 5	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	40	50	10	0	37.5	50	12.5	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	30	40	30	0	25	25	50	0
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	25	30	42.5	2.5	17.5	22.5	45	15
	STKIP Students (n=38)	40.54	37.84	21.62	0	7.89	13.16	44.74	34.21

QIN 3: Students should be able to write on the board or clean it.

This was a generally popular practice, especially with all the teachers. To some extent, it had been done in the two locations, with CALUSA students claiming the least exposure. One CALUSA teacher noted that in her class, students could always *write* on the board, but were never asked to *clean* it. This seems to be prevalent at CALUSA. At STKIP, however, it is very common for teachers to ask students to do both. Yet, while writing on the board can be an instructional part of the lesson, e.g. when a student is asked to write his/her answer on the board, cleaning it is merely managerial and it is usually assigned to one or two students, e.g. the informal chairperson of the class.

QIN 4: Students should be able to form groups for discussion or group work themselves.

This was a very popular practice as, in general, it was approved strongly by most of the respondents. It had to a large extent been established quite well in both schools. According to one STKIP teacher, forming groups of a handful of students with similar level of competence should be avoided. For a number of reasons, some STKIP students tend to stick together. As this teacher noted, this is where she has to 'intervene'. She recommended that the groups be created by the teacher to have a mix of abilities. One CALUSA teacher had a similar argument. Another STKIP teacher used a similar technique but for a different reason. She often asked the students living in the same area to be in one group. This certainly required a reasonable degree of personal acquaintance and classroom negotiation between the teacher and the students.

QIN 5: Students should be able to operate any equipment used during the lesson.

This was another popular practice of student involvement, with a significant minority of STKIP students showing very strong approval. However, it had been established only on an infrequent basis in both schools. In one of the CALUSA teachers' opinion, when using electronic equipment during the lesson it is generally much easier if teacher directs the activities (e.g. by playing, pausing, and/or stopping the equipment). Assigning this responsibility to students just for the sake of it would probably lead to some inefficiency and ineffectiveness. Another CALUSA teacher reported that in the adult classes she had had thus far this was no longer an issue, meaning that the students preferred the teacher to do it all for them.

*d. Opportunity to use English effectively***Table 8.11.** Responses to QINs 1 and 8 (DCA).

	Respondents	% Personal Opinion				% Experience in Class			
		A	O	S	N	A	O	S	N
QIN 1	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	40	20	40	0	50	25	12.5	12.5
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	20	60	20	0	10	60	30	0
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	37.5	32.5	27.5	2.5	20	37.50	37.5	5
	STKIP Students (n=38)	68.42	26.32	2.63	2.63	16.22	56.76	24.32	2.7
QIN 8	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	70	30	0	0	87.5	12.5	0	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	30	30	40	0	22.22	44.44	33.33	0
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	36.59	48.78	12.2	2.44	32.5	35	30	2.5
	STKIP Students (n=38)	51.35	40.54	8.11	0	16.22	35.14	45.95	2.7

QIN 1: Students should be able to express their ideas about anything to anybody in the class at anytime.

This was quite a popular practice, especially with all the teachers. In addition, it had to a certain extent been practised in the classes of both schools. One CALUSA teacher clarified her weak approval by suggesting that the students' ideas might not be of interest to all the students or might cause offence to others. In terms of exposure, according to another CALUSA teacher, when this is allowed in the classroom, it must not create disruption to "the safe learning environment".

QIN 8: Students should be able to try to give the meaning for new words.

This was a very popular practice, especially with all the teachers and STKIP students. To a large extent, it had also been established in both schools. At STKIP it is indeed very common for teachers to ask or allow the students to give the meaning for new words they encounter during the lesson.

e. Self-assessment

Table 8.12. Responses to QINs 11 and 15 (DCA).

	Respondents	% Personal Opinion				% Experience in Class			
		A	O	S	N	A	O	S	N
QIN 11	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	40	60	0	0	37.5	50	12.5	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	10	60	20	10	10	80	0	10
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	26.83	48.78	21.95	2.44	17.07	26.83	51.22	4.88
	STKIP Students (n=38)	31.58	50	13.16	5.26	23.68	42.11	31.58	2.63
QIN 15	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	10	40	50	0	25	25	50	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	0	60	20	20	11.11	55.56	22.22	11.11
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	27.5	22.5	35	15	15.38	28.21	43.59	12.82
	STKIP Students (n=38)	7.89	26.32	28.95	36.84	2.63	15.79	44.74	36.84

QIN 11: Students should be able to find their own mistakes.

This was a very popular practice, with the majority of responses indicating a strong approval. It had also been practised in both schools on quite a frequent basis. It was hoped that the teachers' comments could shed some light on the extent to which this interesting practice was or had been used in both schools, but this did not eventuate.

QIN 15: Students should be able to check their own work individually or within a group or in pairs.

This was a fairly popular practice for most respondents, except a minority of STKIP students, who showed some rejection. Even though on a less frequent basis, it had also been established in both schools. In addition, there seems to be a consistency of the response pattern to this question with that to QIN 11 above. This means that most respondents were quite comfortable with the idea of having the students assess their own work and, particularly, identify the errors they had made.

f. Teacher dominance issues

Table 8.13. Responses to QINs 17 and 19 (DCA).

	Respondents	% Personal Opinion				% Experience in Class			
		A	O	S	N	A	O	S	N
QIN 17	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	0	70	20	10	25	37.5	37.5	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	40	60	0	0	33.33	44.44	22.22	0
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	17.95	33.33	41.03	7.69	23.68	28.95	39.47	7.89
	STKIP Students (n=38)	47.22	22.22	25	5.56	55.56	30.56	11.11	2.78
QIN 19	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	10	20	40	30	25	12.5	25	37.5
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	30	30	40	0	11.11	33.33	55.56	0
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	53.66	24.39	14.63	7.32	24.39	34.15	31.71	9.76
	STKIP Students (n=38)	21.05	39.47	28.95	10.53	8.33	27.78	55.56	8.33

QIN 17: Students should do whatever the teacher wants them to do.

Quite surprisingly, this was a very popular practice, with almost a majority of STKIP students showing a very strong approval. To a large extent it had happened in both locations, most frequently at STKIP. Obviously, the respondents had shown their support for the student-centred practices reflected in the questionnaire items. However, most of them, particularly the teachers, still held this teacher-centred view, even though one STKIP teacher indicated she would provide assistance to students having difficulty in doing what she told them to. While STKIP respondents' and CALUSA students' views are not surprising, CALUSA teachers' are indeed surprising. I suppose, if this response is not in fact reflective of the reality, this could be because the teachers might have misunderstood the issue raised in the item. This might be the case because one of them wrote in his comments that he found the question confusing.

QIN 19: Teacher should tell the students about all their mistakes.

This was a fairly popular practice, especially with all STKIP teachers. It had been practised in both locations, but only on an infrequent basis. According to one CALUSA teacher, not all the mistakes could be told to the students, because "it might confuse them if too many". In another CALUSA teacher's opinion, the students' proficiency levels must be considered in this regard, as it could be bad for low level students to be told about all their mistakes.

g. Acceptance and/or rejection**Table 8.14.** Responses to QIN 14 (DCA).

	Respondents	% Personal Opinion				% Experience in Class			
		A	O	S	N	A	O	S	N
QIN 14	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	30	20	30	20	42.86	28.57	28.57	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	0	10	70	20	0	11.11	66.67	22.22
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	5.13	5.13	53.85	35.9	2.56	5.13	48.72	43.59
	STKIP Students (n=38)	16.22	24.32	37.84	21.62	2.63	18.42	36.84	42.11

QIN 14: Students should be able to refuse to do something they are not prepared to.

This was not as popular as other practices, especially in the opinions of most STKIP teachers and CALUSA students. Mostly on an infrequent basis, it had been realised in both schools. In this regard, even though the total percentage of their responses amounts to an approval of this practice, CALUSA teachers were actually divided, implying the diversity of their attitudes. One of them indicated a strong approval, but underlined that this was "for religious or cultural reasons". Meanwhile, the responses of the majority of

STKIP respondents and CALUSA students indicated a weak approval and a low exposure. I suspect this had its root in the students' shared view that the teacher's instructions are for the students' good, and that, being students, they should not refuse to do what they are asked to.

h. Interpersonal relationship

Table 8.15. Responses to QIN 21 (DCA).

	Respondents	% Personal Opinion				% Experience in Class			
		A	O	S	N	A	O	S	N
QIN 21	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	44.44	22.22	33.33	0	28.57	42.86	28.57	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	11.11	55.56	33.33	0	22.22	66.67	11.11	0
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	53.66	29.27	17.07	0	36.59	26.83	29.27	7.32
	STKIP Students (n=38)	28.95	23.68	36.84	10.53	2.7	16.22	62.16	18.92

QIN 21: Teacher and students should become good friends.

This was a very popular practice, especially with CALUSA teachers and students as well as STKIP teachers. To a certain extent, it had been established in both study centres. A small minority of STKIP students still showed some resistance to this idea, probably due to their respect of the teachers' authority and a common notion to always maintain some distance between them and the teachers. This is in contrast with some of the students' comments (see Appendix I) where they expressed how they wanted to be closer to their teachers (as friends or colleagues) and be treated equally. STKIP teachers were apparently more progressive in this matter, and this might be to do with the average 10-year age difference between them and the students, as opposed to the greater age difference at CALUSA.

i. Self-correction assistance

Table 8.16. Responses to QIN 18 (DCA).

	Respondents	% Personal Opinion				% Experience in Class			
		A	O	S	N	A	O	S	N
QIN 18	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	50	40	10	0	50	50	0	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	40	40	20	0	22.22	55.56	22.22	0
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	50	32.5	17.5	0	30	37.5	27.5	5
	STKIP Students (n=38)	52.63	36.84	10.53	0	7.89	42.11	42.11	7.89

QIN 18: Teacher should assist the students to find their own mistakes.

This was an overwhelmingly popular practice; it was approved of very strongly by most of the respondents. To a large extent, it had frequently happened in both schools. This supports the results from QIN 11 where all the respondents were mildly in favour of

teachers assisting students in error-identification matters, which certainly requires close supervision and understanding.

j. Student control over the pace of learning

Table 8.17. Responses to QIN 12 (DCA).

	Respondents	% Personal Opinion				% Experience in Class			
		A	O	S	N	A	O	S	N
QIN 12	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	10	30	60	0	0	50	50	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	30	20	30	20	30	30	10	30
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	14.63	9.76	56.10	19.51	5	10	60	25
	STKIP Students (n=38)	27.03	29.73	24.32	18.92	8.11	24.32	27.03	40.54

QIN 12: Students should be able to decide when to start or stop doing an activity.

This was a relatively popular although not firmly established practice, at STKIP in particular. The main concerns seemed to be time limitation and the consequences it carries (such as failure to complete planned tasks or extension of classroom sessions) if the students assume this power. As a result, in spite of the teachers overall claims of exposure, the students obviously had not had much of this opportunity.

k. The respondents' input

The questions asked to obtain the respondents' input to the DCA were: "During class, I would allow my students to..." (for the teachers) and "During class, I want my teacher to allow me to...." (for the students). (See subsection I.2.2., Appendix I, for the original and translated statements.). A total of 9 out of the 20 teachers answered their question by contributing 12 statements, and 17 out of the 79 students contributed 16 statements. A key-word analysis conducted on the data shows that the respondents' statements fell into the 6 categories as follows.

Table 8.18. Respondents' input to DCA phase.

No	Category of Input	Teachers				Students				TOTAL	
		CALUSA		STKIP		CALUSA		STKIP		S	R
		S	R	S	R	S	R	S	R		
1	Classroom interaction	1	1	5	4	4	2	2	5	12	12
2	Interpersonal relationships							7	6	7	6
3	Personal preferences/choices	4	2			1	1			5	3
4	Peer support	1	1	1	1					2	2
5	Classroom management							1	2	1	2
6	Oppt. to use English effectively							1	1	1	1
TOTAL		6	4	6	5	5	3	11	14	28	26

The 'big three' categories in the table above are three of the aspects of TSPR, SA, SCL and CLT set out in the two literature review chapters (e.g. see the summary of Chapter 3). In addition, it is interesting to see that these are also the first three categories having the most statements in the respondents' input to the before-class acts (see Table 8.25). Apart from this, CALUSA teachers seemed to emphasise the students' personal preferences and choices, whereas their STKIP counterparts emphasised classroom interaction. STKIP students, most of whom had paid particular interest to interpersonal relationships and classroom interaction, remain the ones giving the most responses to the question. Again, this is probably due to their academic background as teacher-trainees as well as English learners.

8.3.1.1. After-class acts phase

a. Post-lesson assistance

Table 8.19. Responses to QINs 3 and 4 (ACA):

	Respondents	Approval (% Responses)				Exposure (% Responses)			
		VSA	SA	WA	NA	VHE	HE	LE	NE
QIN 3	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	40	30	30	0	57.14	14.29	28.57	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	0	30	60	10	0	33.33	55.56	11.11
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	21.95	12.2	36.59	29.27	10	0	12.5	77.5
	STKIP Students (n=38)	21.05	34.21	23.68	21.05	0	0	34.21	65.79
QIN 4	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	60	10	30	0	62.5	0	37.5	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	20	50	30	0	12.5	87.5	0	0
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	21.95	14.63	53.66	9.76	12.2	7.32	43.9	36.59
	STKIP Students (n=38)	54.05	32.43	13.51	0	8.11	37.84	48.65	5.41

QIN 3: Students should be able to contact the teacher by phone, facsimile or e-mail when having problems with a task or the lesson.

This was a popular practice. It was approved of by all the respondents, especially the teachers. However, in terms of exposure, despite their teachers' claims, the majority of the students indicated that it had *not* been quite well established in their schools.

QIN 4: Students should be able to contact the teacher in person outside the class when having problems with a task or the lesson.

This was a very popular practice. In total, it was approved of by all the teachers and almost all the students. While all the teachers indicated that this practice had been quite well established in their schools, a significant number of their students indicated they were yet to be significantly exposed to it.

b. Self-assessment**Table 8.20.** Responses to QINs 2 and 6 (ACA).

	Respondents	Approval (% Responses)				Exposure (% Responses)			
		VSA	SA	WA	NA	VHE	HE	LE	NE
QIN 2	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	70	10	20	0	62.5	25	12.5	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	20	20	50	10	11.11	33.33	44.44	11.11
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	12.2	41.46	41.46	4.88	9.76	19.51	43.9	26.83
	STKIP Students (n=38)	31.58	34.21	26.32	7.89	10.53	15.79	42.11	31.58
QIN 6	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	80	20	0	0	62.5	25	12.5	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	10	50	40	0	11.11	55.56	22.22	11.11
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	27.03	35.14	35.14	2.7	8.11	24.32	40.54	27.03
	STKIP Students (n=38)	40.54	35.14	24.32	0	5.56	41.67	36.11	16.67

QIN 2: Students should be able to tell the teacher whether they think they have been successful or unsuccessful.

This was a very popular practice. Approval was shown by all CALUSA teachers and an overwhelming majority of the rest of the respondents. Exposure to this practice was also indicated by all CALUSA teachers and the other respondents, ranging from a near strong to a strong majority. This means that it had, to a significant extent, been established in both schools.

QIN 6: Students should be able to evaluate if their learning objectives have been achieved.

This practice was a very popular one as all the teachers and especially all STKIP students, approved of it relatively strongly. In terms of exposure, this self-assessment practice, according to at least a significant minority of student-respondents, had to a certain extent been established in both locations. However, in her comments, one CALUSA teacher mentioned examination results as a source of information for evaluating the learning achievements for both the students and the teachers.

c. Teacher-student negotiation**Table 8.21.** Responses to QINs 1 and 9 (ACA).

	Respondents	Approval (% Responses)				Exposure (% Responses)			
		VSA	SA	WA	NA	VHE	HE	LE	NE
QIN 1	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	60	20	20	0	50	37.5	12.5	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	10	20	30	40	0	44.44	22.22	33.33
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	12.5	25	57.5	5	5.26	28.95	52.63	13.16
	STKIP Students (n=38)	21.62	13.51	40.54	24.32	5.26	15.79	42.11	36.84
QIN 9	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	10	60	30	0	25	50	25	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	30	50	10	10	33.33	33.33	22.22	11.11
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	10	25	57.5	7.5	15	20	50	15
	STKIP Students (n=38)	47.37	39.47	13.16	0	21.05	26.32	39.47	13.16

QIN 1: Students should be able to ask for an extension to hand in homework, such as written assignments.

This was another fairly popular practice, especially for CALUSA teachers and students, but a less popular one for STKIP teachers and students. The fact that this was not very popular at STKIP points to the normal situation where, as far as homework and submission of assignments is concerned, little if any, opportunity is given for negotiation.

QIN 9: Teacher and students should negotiate the due date for handing in the homework.

This practice was a very popular one, especially with CALUSA teachers and STKIP students. To a certain extent, it had also been established in both schools.

d. Student assessment of teacher's performance

Table 8.22. Responses to QIN 5 (ACA).

	Respondents	Approval (% Responses)				Exposure (% Responses)			
		VSA	SA	WA	NA	VHE	HE	LE	NE
QIN 5	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	40	20	40	0	75	25	0	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	0	30	50	20	11.11	33.33	33.33	22.22
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	17.95	7.69	64.1	10.26	7.89	7.89	28.95	55.26
	STKIP Students (n=38)	31.58	34.21	28.95	5.26	18.42	21.05	28.95	31.58

QIN 5: Students should be able to evaluate the teacher's performance during and after the course term.

This was a popular practice. All CALUSA teachers and almost all STKIP students showed approval of it. In terms of exposure, despite their teachers' claim, the majority of the students suggested otherwise, i.e that it had not been firmly established in both locations.

e. Student involvement

Table 8.23. Responses to QIN 8 (ACA).

	Respondents	Approval (% Responses)				Exposure (% Responses)			
		VSA	SA	WA	NA	VHE	HE	LE	NE
QIN 8	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	10	70	20	0	25	62.5	12.5	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	30	50	10	10	33.33	33.33	11.11	22.22
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	17.07	36.59	36.59	9.76	12.5	22.5	42.5	22.5
	STKIP Students (n=38)	50	26.32	15.79	7.89	13.16	31.58	36.84	18.42

QIN 8: Teacher and students should discuss what to do for homework.

This is another very popular practice, especially with CALUSA teachers. It had also been fairly well established in both locations.

f. Teacher dominance issue**Table 8.24.** Responses to QIN 7 (ACA).

	Respondents	Approval (% Responses)				Exposure (% Responses)			
		VSA	SA	WA	NA	VHE	HE	LE	NE
QIN 7	CALUSA Teachers (n=10)	60	20	20	0	37.5	37.5	25	0
	STKIP Teachers (n=10)	30	60	10	0	33.33	44.44	11.11	11.11
	CALUSA Students (n=41)	39.02	26.83	24.39	9.76	14.63	29.27	26.83	29.27
	STKIP Students (n=38)	43.24	40.54	16.22	0	11.11	25	58.33	5.56

QIN 7: Teachers should tell the students whether they have succeeded or failed in the course.

This was a very popular practice, especially with CALUSA and STKIP teachers and STKIP students. To some extent, it had been established in the two study centres.

g. The respondents' input

This section sets out the results of the data collected using the two open questions: "After class, I would allow my students to..." (for teachers) and "After class, I want my teacher to allow me to..." (for students). A total of 13 out of the 20 teacher-respondents responded to the questions, giving 19 statements. In addition, a total of 14 out of 79 student-respondents gave a total of 13 statements. These 32 statements from teachers and students, after being subjected to a key-word analysis, fell neatly into 11 categories, as in the table below.

Table 8.25. Respondents' input to ACA phase.

No.	Category of Input	Teachers				Students				TOTAL	
		CALUSA		STKIP		CALUSA		STKIP		S	R
		S	R	S	R	S	R	S	R		
1	Classroom interaction			3	3	3	2	5	6	11	11
2	Assessment			2	2			1	1	3	3
3	Interpersonal relationship	3	1							3	1
4	Small-group-related routines			3	2					3	2
5	Negotiation	2	1							2	1
6	Personal preferences	2	1							2	1
7	Post-lesson assistance							2	2	2	2
8	Pre-lesson access to materials			2	1					2	1
9	Review							2	3	2	3
10	Opportunity to use English			1	1					1	1
11	Peer support			1	1					1	1
TOTAL		7	3	12	10	3	2	10	12	32	27

It seems ironic that for this after-class phase, where less classroom interaction can be expected, the highest number of statements from STKIP teachers as well as CALUSA and

STKIP students fell in the classroom interaction category. This category also appeared to be the most favourable one to the respondents. It proved to be the one question which attracted the most statements in terms of the respondents' input for the three phases of teacher-student interaction. Meanwhile, it was STKIP teachers who contributed the most ideas this time, while their students remain the ones who had more ideas than their CALUSA counterparts.

8.4. Summary

The Questionnaire A data that have been presented and analysed in this chapter include: (1) the respondents' biographical profile, (2) the teachers' beliefs about what makes a conducive classroom atmosphere for language learning, (3) the main results of the questionnaire and (4) the respondents' input to the questionnaire items in each classroom phase. In the next chapter, the results obtained from Questionnaire B, which investigates the students' learning style preferences, are presented and analysed.

Chapter 9

Questionnaire B Data Results

9.0. Introduction

The results of data collected using Questionnaire B, which investigates the student-respondents' learning style preferences, are set out in this chapter. As already indicated in subsection 5.2.1.2., Chapter 5, the 36-item questionnaire was adapted from Bailey (1988), based on Willing's (1985) Australia-wide investigation of the AMES students' learning style preferences.

The only purpose for employing this questionnaire was to help me explain the students' general orientation in their responses to Questionnaire A (previous chapter). My assumption is that students who collectively approved of the statements in the three phases in Questionnaire A, even though to varying degrees, might show a similar tendency when confronted with statements pertaining to their own learning style preferences. Whether the students are consistent or the results corroborative is another matter. Therefore, the degree of approval shown by either CALUSA or STKIP students in Questionnaire A results may correlate with their preference for any or all of Willing's first three categories. At the same time, their disapproval may also be explained or corroborated by their general preference for the fourth category. The 'nature' of the analysis is, of course, reciprocal, in the sense that Questionnaire A results may supplement the explanation for Questionnaire B results, and vice versa.

9.1. Data Processing Methods

The responses obtained from each student from each class in each location were tallied. Then the percentage of responses to the four options (*Best*, *Good*, *A little* and *No*) for each questionnaire item given by the student-respondents from each of the seven CALUSA and STKIP classes was calculated and tabulated. The statistical procedures undertaken involved presenting the percentage obtained for each of the classes on a number of lists, with the options *Best*, *Good*, *A little* and *No* now constituting the main 'notions' or

'topics'. Thus, data from each class were presented on four lists of results, each using one of the above notions as its title. In order to show clearly which of the items had got the most responses, the data were then ranked in a descending order (highest to lowest). The computer has enabled me to make the items having the highest percentage appear on top and those having the least appear on the bottom of the lists. As a result, the initial questionnaire item numbers became scrambled. Bailey (1988) used this same method to process her students' learning style preferences data.

To determine which learning style the students from each class preferred most or more, I decided that, firstly, the parameters are only the *Best* and *Good* options. They are indicative of the respondents' most preferred and less preferred ways of learning. Secondly, the 'red line' should be drawn from any item in the list (under the *Best* and *Good* options only) whose percentage of responses exceeds 50% since this indicates a small majority. Consequently, those having less than this 'minimum requirement' are not considered further in the analysis. The next step involved assigning codes of Willing's categories to each of these 'majority' items and counting how many items belonged to a certain category. The results were then tabulated and presented as the basis for further analysis and discussion, as shown below.

9.2. Data Presentation and Analysis

In the ensuing section, Questionnaire B items having the most responses under the options of *Best* and *Good* are presented according to which class in both locations the data were obtained from. Note that, as already stated in Chapter 5, the number of respondents from each class varies, and as far as CALUSA respondents are concerned, only those taking part in data collection activities during the *Main Study* period (March-April 1998), i.e. 22 student-respondents, filled out Questionnaire B.

9.2.1. CALUSA Students

Results obtained from the CALUSA classes are presented in the following tables (9.1., 9.2., 9.3., 9.4.) and the conclusion in Table 9.5.

9.2.1.1. EBTC Class (n=11)

a. 'Best'

Table 9.1. Questionnaire B items marked as 'best' by >50% of EBTC class respondents.

%	QIN	Question	Learning style
72.73	35	I like to learn by watching and listening to native-speakers.	Communicative
63.64	34	I like to learn by talking to friends in English.	Communicative
63.64	36	I like to learn by using English in shops, restaurants/coffee bars, etc.	Communicative
54.55	12	I like the teacher to let me find my mistakes.	Analytical
54.55	23	I like to learn many new words.	Communicative
54.55	24	I like to practise the sounds and pronunciation of English words.	Communicative
54.55	30	At home, I like to learn by reading English newspapers, magazines, etc.	Analytical

The above table shows that, compared to the 'analytical' learning style that has only two items chosen by a small majority (54.55%), five items belonging to the 'communicative' learning style have been chosen by a small majority (54.55%) to a solid majority (72.73%) of respondents as their best learning style preference. This means that the majority of EBTC class respondents were, to some extent, 'communicative' learners — preferring to engage more in communicative learning activities in and outside the classroom. Their main purpose of learning English for communicative purposes is implied in this result. In addition, the fact that none of the 'authority-oriented' items was marked as 'best' here is indicative of their unpopularity in this class. However, to reach a solid conclusion as to whether the EBTC students are truly 'non-authority-oriented', this data must be first corroborated with that gathered from the 'good' option below.

b. 'Good'

Table 9.2. Questionnaire B items marked as 'good' by >50% of EBTC class respondents.

%	QIN	Question	Learning style
81.82	10	I like the teacher to help me talk about my interests.	Authority-oriented
63.64	2	In class, I like to listen and use cassettes.	Concrete
63.64	5	In class, I like to learn by pictures, films, video.	Concrete
63.64	26	I like to learn how to write letters, notes, lists, etc.	Authority-oriented
60	9	I like the teacher to give us problems to work out.	Analytical
54.55	1	In class, I like to learn by reading.	Authority-oriented
54.55	4	In class, I like to learn by conversations.	Communicative
54.55	11	I like the teacher to tell me all my mistakes.	Authority-oriented
54.55	13	I like to learn by doing lots of different things in class.	Concrete
54.55	17	I like to study English by myself (alone).	Analytical
54.55	27	I like to learn English words by seeing them.	Authority-oriented
54.55	32	At home, I like to learn by watching TV in English.	Communicative

Out of the twelve items marked by the majority of EBTC class respondents as their ‘good’ options, seven belong to the first three ‘non-authority-oriented’ learning styles of the students (‘concrete’, ‘analytical’ and ‘communicative’). However, the five ‘authority-oriented’ items received quite a significant number of supporters, including a strong majority of 81.82%), which is the highest percentage, for QIN 10 (*I like the teacher to help me talk about my interests*). In conclusion, the majority of respondents from EBTC class were basically non ‘authority-oriented’ learners who also expected to have some form of direction on the part of the teacher.

9.2.1.2. UEC Class (n=11)

a. ‘Best’

Table 9.3. Questionnaire B items marked as ‘best’ by >50% of UEC class respondents.

%	QIN	Question	Learning style
81.82	34	I like to learn by talking to friends in English.	Communicative
72.73	21	I like to go out with the class and practise English with native-speakers.	Communicative
72.73	35	I like to learn by watching and listening to native-speakers.	Communicative
70	4	In class, I like to learn by conversations.	Communicative
63.64	32	At home, I like to learn by watching TV in English.	Communicative
54.55	13	I like to learn by doing lots of different things in class.	Concrete
54.55	29	I like to learn English words by doing something.	Concrete

It is quite obvious in the above table that none of the authority-oriented items was marked as ‘best’ by the majority of UEC class respondents. With the preference pattern ranging from a small majority of 54.55% to a strong 81.82%, this result reflects their immediate learning needs and objectives (also shown by their fellow students in the EBTC class).

b. ‘Good’

Table 9.4. Questionnaire B items marked as ‘good’ by >50% of UEC class respondents.

%	QIN	Question	Learning style
72.73	20	I like to learn English with the whole class.	Authority-oriented
70	2	In class, I like to listen and use cassettes.	Concrete
63.64	5	In class, I like to learn by pictures, films, video.	Concrete
63.64	18	I like to learn English by talking in pairs.	Concrete
63.64	19	I like to learn English in a small group.	Concrete

63.64	26	I like to learn how to write letters, notes, lists, etc.	Authority-oriented
60	3	In class, I like to learn by playing language games.	Concrete
54.55	7	I like to have my own English textbook.	Authority-oriented
54.55	9	I like the teacher to give us problems to work out.	Analytical
54.55	22	I like to study English grammar.	Analytical
54.55	24	I like to practise the sounds and pronunciation of English words.	Communicative

Out of eleven, the non ‘authority-oriented’ learning style indicators amount to eight items. This means that only three items from the ‘authority-oriented’ learning preferences were marked as ‘good’ by the majority of UEC class respondents. However, item number 20 (*I like to learn English with the whole class*), which is an ‘authority-oriented’ learning style, proved to be the most preferred one as it was chosen by quite a solid majority (72.73%) of the respondents. Just like those in EBTC class, the majority of UEC students preferred the non ‘authority-oriented’ learning style items. However, they also expected to have some authoritative direction to maximise learning achievement.

In conclusion, by adding up all the questionnaire items marked as ‘best’ and ‘good’ by the two groups of CALUSA respondents, it is clear that of the thirty-seven items — regardless of whether they were chosen once, twice or more — twenty-nine (or 78.37%) belong to the three *non* ‘authority-oriented’ learning style preferences. Even though some ‘authority-oriented’ items were quite popular, the majority of EBTC and UEC respondents preferred ways of learning English that are not ‘authority-oriented’. The fact that thirteen of these twenty-nine items are ‘communicative’ is indicative of the students’ desire to learn English in communicative ways, which implies their general *instrumental* learning objectives, i.e. to use English for communication purposes. Besides this, ten out of the twenty-nine items are ‘concrete’ learning styles, which are indicated by learning activities involving *listening* and *speaking* chores through audiovisual aids either individually or collectively. These are what I call ‘audiolingually based and oriented’ activities that support the foundation of communicative competence development. The following table sums this up.

Table 9.5. CALUSA student-respondents' overall preference of learning styles: the number of Questionnaire B items marked as 'best' and 'good'.

Learning Styles	Best		Good		Subtotal	TOTAL
	EBTC	UEC	EBTC	UEC		
'Concrete'	0	2	3	5	10	29
'Analytical'	2	0	2	2	6	
'Communicative'	5	5	2	1	13	
'Authority-oriented'	0	0	5	3	8	8
TOTAL	7	7	12	11	37	37

9.2.2. STKIP Students

The results obtained from STKIP respondents' data are presented in the ensuing tables (9.6., 9.7., 9.8., 9.10., 9.11., 9.12., 9.13. and 9.14.). The conclusion is set out in Table 9.15.

9.2.2.1. Semester I (n=10)

a. 'Best'

Table 9.6. Questionnaire B items marked as 'best' by >50% of Semester I respondents.

%	QIN	Question	Learning style
77.78	22	I like to study English grammar.	Analytical
70	4	In class, I like to learn by conversations.	Communicative
70	7	I like to have my own English textbook.	Authority-oriented
70	26	I like to learn how to write letters, notes, lists, etc.	Authority-oriented
70	35	I like to learn by watching and listening to native-speakers.	Communicative
60	19	I like to learn English in a small group.	Concrete
60	23	I like to learn many new words.	Communicative
60	24	I like to practise the sounds and pronunciation of English words.	Communicative
55.56	2	In class, I like to listen and use cassettes.	Concrete
55.56	10	I like the teacher to help me talk about my interests.	Authority-oriented

Ten items were marked as 'best' by the majority of Semester I students. Despite the fact that two 'authority-oriented' items (numbers 7 and 26) received the strongest preference by a strong majority (70%) of the 10 respondents, the majority of the students showed quite a similar degree of preference to seven items belonging to the first three groups of non-authority-oriented learning styles (as opposed to the last one, which is 'authority-oriented'). Their preference pattern ranges from a small majority of 55.56% to a solid one (77.78%).

It is worth noting the fact that the respondents were freshmen (first semester students in their first academic year). This might explain why their responses diversified, covering various aspects, stages, and ways of learning English. So, while a strong majority (77.78%) of them preferred to learn analytically, i.e. by studying English grammar, at the same time, from 55.56% to 70% of them were also in favour of other activities, implying preference for different kinds or a combination of the four learning modes.

b. 'Good'

Table 9.7. Questionnaire B items marked as 'good' by >50% of Semester I respondents.

%	QIN	Question	Learning style
100	27	I like to learn English words by seeing them.	Authority-oriented
90	18	I like to learn English by talking in pairs.	Concrete
80	6	I want to write everything in my notebook.	Authority-oriented
80	11	I like the teacher to tell me all my mistakes.	Authority-oriented
80	29	I like to learn English words by doing something.	Concrete
70	1	In class, I like to learn by reading.	Authority-oriented
70	33	At home, I like to learn by studying English textbooks.	Analytical
60	8	I like the teacher to explain everything to us.	Authority-oriented
60	9	I like the teacher to give us problems to work out.	Analytical
60	12	I like the teacher to let me find my mistakes.	Analytical
60	14	I like to do one thing carefully.	Analytical
60	32	At home, I like to learn by watching TV in English.	Communicative
55.56	3	In class, I like to learn by playing language games.	Concrete
55.56	13	I like to learn by doing lots of different things in class.	Concrete

In this secondary preference level, out of the fourteen items, one 'authority-oriented' item received the highest rate of preference (100%), meaning that all of the 10 Semester I students marked it as 'good'. Besides, four other items of the same category were preferred by the majority of respondents, ranging from 60% (a small majority) to 80% (a strong one). However, overall, the first three groups of learning styles together make up nine of the fourteen items preferred by the majority of respondents, from a small majority of 55.56% to an overwhelming 90%. These results indicate that 64.28% of all the items marked as 'good' by the majority of respondents are *non* 'authority-oriented'.

9.2.2.2. Semester III (n=12)

a. 'Best'

Table 9.8. Questionnaire B items marked as 'best' by >50% of Semester III respondents.

%	QIN	Question	Learning style
75	24	I like to practise the sounds and pronunciation of English words.	Communicative
58.33	8	I like the teacher to explain <u>everything</u> to us.	Authority-oriented
58.33	21	I like to go out with the class and practise English with native-speakers.	Communicative
58.33	22	I like to study English grammar.	Analytical
54.55	10	I like the teacher to help me talk about my interests.	Authority-oriented

Out of the five items marked as 'best' by more than 50% of respondents in Semester III, two are 'authority-oriented' and three are not. It is interesting to see that a small majority (58.33%) of the twelve students also liked the practice in QIN 8 (*I like the teacher to explain everything to us*) and a little less than that (54.55%) preferred the other, but somewhat related one, i.e. QIN 10 (*I like the teacher to help me talk about my interests*). This shows that, to a significant extent, the majority of Semester III students preferred to be directed by the teacher or are in fact 'authority-oriented', even though a large and solid majority of them (75%) liked learning English in a way that is 'aural-oral-based' and 'communication-skills-oriented'.

b. 'Good'

Table 9.9. Questionnaire B items marked as 'good' by >50% of Semester III respondents.

%	QIN	Question	Learning style
66.67	19	I like to learn English in a small group.	Concrete
66.67	20	I like to learn English with the whole class.	Authority-oriented
66.67	27	I like to learn English words by seeing them.	Authority-oriented
63.64	6	I want to write everything in my notebook.	Authority-oriented
63.64	9	I like the teacher to give us problems to work out.	Analytical
63.64	18	I like to learn English by talking in pairs.	Concrete
58.33	1	In class, I like to learn by reading.	Authority-oriented
58.33	4	In class, I like to learn by conversations.	Communicative
58.33	25	I like to study spelling.	Analytical
58.33	29	I like to learn English words by doing something.	Concrete
58.33	33	At home, I like to learn by studying English textbooks.	Analytical

In the above table, seven out of the eleven items marked as the 'second preferred way' of learning by the 12 students in this class are non 'authority-oriented'. However, three of the four 'authority-oriented' items were indicated by a majority of between 63.64% and 66.67% of respondents. At the same time, an equal percentage of the respondents

(58.33%, which is a small majority) also showed some preference for a combination of different learning modes. In this way, the students seem to suggest that, even though they had spent one and a half year at STKIP, they were still in need of an 'eclectic' way of achieving their learning objectives. Nonetheless, their overall preference clearly lies significantly with the non 'authority-oriented' items / learning styles.

9.2.2.3. Semester V (n=7)

a. 'Best'

Table 9.10. Questionnaire B items marked as 'best' by >50% of Semester V respondents.

%	QIN	Question	Learning style
71.43	5	In class, I like to learn by pictures, films, video.	Concrete
57.14	35	I like to learn by watching and listening to native-speakers.	communicative

The majority of Semester V students obviously viewed audiolingual learning aids and practices (as stated in QIN 5 and QIN 35) as their most preferred way of learning English, thus suggesting that most of them were not in favour of the 'authority-oriented' learning practices.

b. 'Good'

Table 9.11. Questionnaire B items marked as 'good' by >50% of Semester V respondents.

%	QIN	Question	Learning style
85.71	10	I like the teacher to help me talk about my interests.	Authority-oriented
85.71	11	I like the teacher to tell me all my mistakes.	Authority-oriented
85.71	14	I like to do one thing carefully.	Analytical
85.71	27	I like to learn English words by seeing them.	Authority-oriented
85.71	28	I like to learn English words by hearing them.	Communicative
85.71	34	I like to learn by talking to friends in English.	Communicative
75	3	In class, I like to learn by playing language games.	Concrete
71.43	2	In class, I like to listen and use cassettes.	Concrete
71.43	7	I like to have my own English textbook.	Authority-oriented
71.43	13	I like to learn by doing lots of different things in class.	Concrete
71.43	18	I like to learn English by talking in pairs.	Concrete
71.43	19	I like to learn English in a small group.	Concrete
71.43	20	I like to learn English with the whole class.	Authority-oriented
71.43	24	I like to practise the sounds and pronunciation of English words.	Communicative
71.43	26	I like to learn how to write letters, notes, lists, etc.	Authority-oriented
66.67	4	In class, I like to learn by conversations.	Communicative
57.14	6	I want to write everything in my notebook.	Authority-oriented
57.14	9	I like the teacher to give us problems to work out.	Analytical
57.14	12	I like the teacher to let me find my mistakes.	Analytical
57.14	23	I like to learn many new words.	Communicative

57.14	25	I like to study spelling.	Analytical
57.14	29	I like to learn English words by doing something.	Concrete
57.14	30	At home, I like to learn by reading English newspapers, magazines, etc.	Analytical
57.14	32	At home, I like to learn by watching TV in English.	Communicative
57.14	36	I like to learn by using English in shops, restaurants/coffee bars, etc.	Communicative

In the above ‘heavy’ table of words and figures, twenty-five items had been marked as the ‘second preferred’ learning acts. Of these, eighteen (precisely 72%) *do not* belong to the ‘authority-oriented’ learning style categories. The seven ‘authority-oriented’ items, however, range from having the small majority of 57.14% (QIN 6), through a solid majority of 71.43% (e.g. QIN 7) to the highest, i.e. a very strong majority of 85.71% of respondents (see QIN 10 and QIN 11). Nonetheless, across the board, the majority of Semester V students apparently preferred the non ‘authority-oriented’ items, even though they shared the trend of being in favour of ‘eclecticism’ in how they enhanced their English learning (as shown by their younger fellows in Semester I and III). Thus, an extensive range of learning acts covering all the learning styles, although primarily ‘communicative’, were chosen as their ‘secondary’ favourites.

9.2.2.4. Semester VII (n=9)

a. ‘Best’

Table 9.12. Questionnaire B items marked as ‘best’ by >50% of Semester VII respondents.

%	QIN	Question	Learning style
88.89	8	I like the teacher to explain everything to us.	Authority-oriented
77.78	23	I like to learn many new words.	Communicative
77.78	35	I like to learn by watching and listening to native-speakers.	Communicative
75	21	I like to go out with the class and practise English with native-speakers.	Communicative
66.67	6	I want to write everything in my notebook.	Authority-oriented
66.67	29	I like to learn English words by doing something.	Concrete
66.67	32	At home, I like to learn by watching TV in English.	Communicative
55.56	2	In class, I like to listen and use cassettes.	Concrete
55.56	12	I like the teacher to let me find my mistakes.	Analytical
55.56	22	I like to study English grammar.	Analytical
55.56	24	I like to practise the sounds and pronunciation of English words.	Communicative
55.56	28	I like to learn English words by hearing them.	Communicative
55.56	34	I like to learn by talking to friends in English.	Communicative

Semester VII students had spent the longest time at STKIP compared with those from other classes. The above table shows they marked thirteen items as their most preferred way of learning English. Eleven of these (or a strong 84.61%) are components of the first three learning styles ('concrete', 'analytical', 'communicative'). Despite this, however, a large number of students (a very strong majority of 88.89%) were still showing heavy reliance on the teacher for information (see QIN 8), which is the strongest form of 'authority-oriented' tendency. Again they showed what their younger fellow students had previously shown, i.e. they liked to 'have a taste' of various learning styles, most of which are 'aural-oral, communicative' practices, that might help them achieve their learning goals.

c. 'Good'

Table 9.13. Questionnaire B items marked as 'good' by >50% of Semester VII respondents

%	QIN	Question	Learning style
88.89	33	At home, I like to learn by studying English textbooks.	Analytical
87.5	7	I like to have my own English textbook.	Authority-oriented
75	18	I like to learn English by talking in pairs.	Concrete
66.67	1	In class, I like to learn by reading.	Authority-oriented
66.67	4	In class, I like to learn by conversations.	Communicative
66.67	36	I like to learn by using English in shops, restaurants/coffee bars, etc.	Communicative
62.5	20	I like to learn English with the whole class.	Authority-oriented
60	30	At home, I like to learn by reading English newspapers, magazines, etc.	Analytical
55.56	3	In class, I like to learn by playing language games.	Concrete
55.56	5	In class, I like to learn by pictures, films, video.	Concrete
55.56	9	I like the teacher to give us problems to work out.	Analytical
55.56	14	I like to do one thing carefully.	Analytical
55.56	19	I like to learn English in a small group.	Concrete
55.56	25	I like to study spelling.	Analytical

Fourteen items were marked as 'good' by the majority of Semester VII respondents. Only three of these are 'authority-oriented' items, chosen by from 62.5%, which is a small majority (QIN 20) to a very strong majority of 87.5% (QIN 33). Nevertheless, the non 'authority-oriented' items constitute a solid 78.57% of all the chosen ones. It is interesting to note that five of these are 'analytical' items, which may be explained by the fact that the students were approaching the end of their undergraduate career and that they had to spend more time in analysing written materials for both comprehension and writing purposes. It has been described in part a (*Major Subjects*), section 4.2.2.5., Chapter 4, that at the end of

their studies, all STKIP students are required to write an a 10, 000-word thesis (called *skripsi*) as a report of their research project. Semester VII students were no exception.

In conclusion, the number of Questionnaire B items chosen (once, twice or more), either as ‘best’ or ‘good’, by the four classes at STKIP amounts to ninety-four. Most of these (68 or 72.34%) are components of ‘concrete’, ‘analytical’ and ‘communicative’ learning styles, and of these the ‘communicative’ items constitute 36.76% of all of the choices. Even though this is not a significant percentage, it shows the students’ overall tendency to prefer more reproductive learning activities as implied by the communication-skills-related learning practices in the ‘communicative’ category.

These combined results lead to the conclusion that, despite some degree of authority orientation, the majority of STKIP student-respondents were in fact very much in favour of non ‘authority-oriented’ learning styles. The data also reveal some interesting insights regarding the relevance of their learning style preferences to their immediate learning needs. Thus, while the younger students preferred more teacher direction and the learning of the basic elements of the target language, the older ones preferred learning activities that actually develop the analytical skills required of them when engaging in more demanding academic tasks, such as reading textbooks or reference materials and writing research reports. For a numerical summary of the STKIP data, see the following table.

Table 9.14. STKIP student-respondents’ overall preference of learning styles: the number of Questionnaire B items marked as ‘best’ and ‘good’.

Learning Styles	Best				Good				Sub-total	TOTAL
	I	III	V	VII	I	III	V	VII		
‘Concrete’	2	0	1	2	4	3	6	4	22	68
‘Analytical’	1	1	0	2	4	3	5	5	21	
‘Communicative’	4	2	1	7	1	1	7	2	25	
‘Authority-oriented’	3	2	0	2	5	4	7	3	26	26
TOTAL	10	5	2	13	14	11	25	14	94	94

9.3. Summary

I have presented and analysed in this chapter the results obtained from Questionnaire B which investigates the student-respondents’ learning style preferences. Using Willing’s

(1988) notions of 'concrete', 'analytical', 'communicative' and 'authority-oriented' to categorise the students' according to their preferences in learning English, the intention was to find some relation to the same student-respondents' power relational representation in Questionnaire A, which investigates TSPR (presented in Chapter 8). The next chapter focuses on the data collected from classroom observation in both locations.

Chapter 10**Classroom Observation Data Results****10.0. Introduction**

As stated in subsection 5.2.3. in Chapter 5, classroom observation was carried out in this study to measure the extent to which the participants actually demonstrated or encouraged or were encouraged to be involved in the aspects of TSPR in classroom interactions. This measurement is expected to validate the data taken from the other data collection instruments.

The data that are presented narratively and analysed in this chapter include (1) the recorded and transcribed classroom interactions gathered from the two classes observed at CALUSA and one class at STKIP (see Appendix L for the full transcripts) and (2) the results of the field notes analysis and tabulation conducted on the classroom observation checklist (see Appendix H) from another STKIP class where audio- or video-recording was refused by the teacher. The results are discussed in detail in Chapter 11, together with those gathered using the other data collection instruments.

The transcription conventions used in the transcripts and the extracts are as follows:

F1	:	identified female student
M5	:	identified male student
MS3	:	identified male student in the audience (at STKIP only)
F5?	:	probable speaker, female student (F5)
F	:	unidentified female student
M	:	unidentified male student
FF	:	unidentified female students
MM	:	unidentified male students
T	:	teacher
O	:	observer
[F6]	:	name of student, called upon
SS	:	a few or all the students
(xxxx)	:	inaudible (unintelligible) sentences
(xxx)	:	inaudible (unintelligible) sentence
(xx)	:	inaudible (unintelligible) phrase or clause
(x)	:	inaudible (unintelligible) word
[word]	:	unclear or probable item
worde*	:	mispronounced or misspelt word

<u>word</u>	:	mispronounced word corrected
This is...	:	concurrent utterances of two speakers
But you...	:	
<i>Kalau begitu...</i>	:	Indonesian words — translation given in footnote (STKIP data only)
<i>(T smiles at F1)</i>	:	My comment on the non-verbals during interactions
➡	:	a speaker steals the opportunity to speak
(...)	:	three second pause
(....)	:	four second pause
(.....)	:	five second pause
(long pause)	:	pause longer than 5 seconds
=	:	if inserted at the end of one speaker's turn and the beginning of the next speaker's adjacent turn, it indicates that there is no gap between the two turns.
No- yes.	:	a hyphen indicates an abrupt cut off, with level pitch.

10.1. The Data Analysis

In order to process the classroom observation data, I have utilised two sets of classroom discourse analysis below as main guidelines. Nonetheless, the analysis will certainly not be limited to these 'taxonomies' as new methods of classification of findings may also be generated from the results. The main guidelines are:

1. General classification of turns in classroom talk, i.e. prospective, retrospective, concurrent and neutral (van Lier 1988: 110), together with their subcategories, specifically those that are of relevance to the main topic of the study.
2. Specific categories of the kinds of talk that the teacher uses to monitor and control the classroom communication systems. These are Stubbs' (1976: 160-161) "eight kinds of metacommunicative talk" that include how the participant, especially the teacher, attracts or shows attention, controls the amount of speech, checks or confirms understanding, summarises, defines, edits, corrects and specifies the topic of interaction.

In addition, using the notions of TSPR derived from Wajnryb's (1992: 120) classroom observation checklist, at the conclusion of each of the lessons' data presentation the findings will also be analysed in terms of what the teachers, the students, and both the teachers and students did during the lessons. (See Appendix H for the checklist.)

While the analysis is in the past tense, my own comments on the non-verbals during the class sessions or lesson segments in the extracts are in the present tense, italicised and in brackets. α

10.2. At CALUSA

As mentioned in the methodology chapters (4, 5 and 6), the classroom observation data from CALUSA were obtained from two classes: EBTC and UEC. The data are presented here according to the order of the segments or classroom activities carried out during the three lessons observed in both classes.

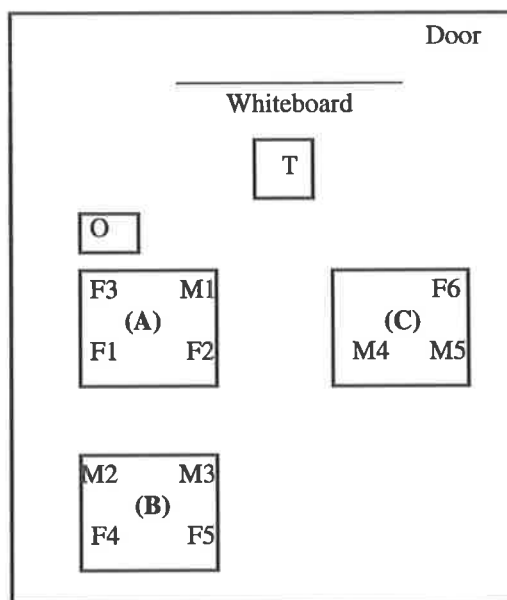
10.2.1. EBTC Class (14 students)

10.2.1.1. Background

When the observation was carried out, the EBTC class was in its fourth week (out of the five-week term). The teacher was a female, probably in her thirties. The class was handed over to her by another teacher who had taught the class for the first three weeks. The registered 14 students came from various cultures and nationalities: Indonesian, Japanese, Korean, Russian, Swiss, Taiwanese, Thai, and Turkish. The number of students attending each of the class sessions fluctuated, usually on the basis of their individual needs. There were 12 students on the first and second days of observation and 11 students on the third day.

10.2.1.2. Day 1 (Wednesday, 25 March 1998, 9-10.50 am, 1st session)

The class was divided into 3 groups of 4 students. They were engaged in three consecutive activities, which, for analysis purposes, I call *The 10 Greatest Human Fears*, *Question Cards* and *Mark and Naomi*, respectively. What happened during each of these activities will be addressed one after another. The seating arrangement is illustrated below.

Figure 10.1. Seating arrangement of EBTC class at CALUSA – Day 1

a. *The 10 Greatest Human Fears*

For this ‘starter’ activity, the teacher asked all the students to think about ‘10 Greatest Human Fears’, discuss their opinions within the groups and bring them to a class discussion led by the teacher. (I missed the opportunity to record the teacher’s very first instruction to the groups). For management purposes, I concentrated on one of the groups, which I call **Group A**. This group consisted of 4 students from 4 different countries: Japan, South Korea, Russia, and Taiwan. They are identified as **F1**, **F2**, **F3**, and **M1** respectively. Identifications other than these should be inferred as students from the other groups.

The students carried out the task according to the teacher’s instructions. They looked quite enthusiastic about the topic and thus encouraged to communicate effectively in order to negotiate meaning. Meanwhile, the teacher went around the class and checked how the groups worked. After approximately 5 minutes, she approached Group A, and said:

Extract 1

11 T What have you got? (*F1 smiles.*) All right. Five more minutes and I want you to give me
12 your list.

The teacher understood what F1's smile implied, i.e. her group had not finished and she wanted to have more time to work on the task. The teacher then gave five more minutes to all the groups and went to see another group. Group A continued their work. Their conversation was quite inaudible as members of the other groups laughed. The groups 'defied' the time limit, resulting in the task to stretch up to about 15 minutes, perhaps because the teacher did not look too strict with it. After monitoring the groups, the teacher went to the front of the class and started to write on the board, and this seemed to be a very effective way of attracting the students' attention. They all stopped working and looked at her. Extract 2 illustrates the kind of exchanges that followed.

Extract 2

14	T	Tell me. What are the ones that you have? I've put some up on the board. Um.
15	F	(xxx). Exam.
16	T	Exams. Okay. Let's write some more of these. Exams.(xxx)
17	F2	Darkness.
18	T	Darkness. Any other?
19	M1	Parents
20	T	Parents? (<i>SS laugh</i>). Okay. What about that group over there? (<i>To Group B</i>)
21	F5	Yes?
22	T	Have you got any others that are not listed there?
23	F6	Bankrupt.
24	T	Being bankrupt—bankruptcy. Bankruptcy. (<i>Writes on the board</i>).

The above extract shows the kinds of IRF exchanges that were also prevalent in the subsequent parts of the lesson, specifically when the teacher wanted the students to contribute as many responses as possible to a certain topic of discussion. The teacher would start by trying to attract the students' attention, giving either general or personal (including verbal and non-verbal) solicits and editing or correcting the responses as a way of giving feedback, and asking for more responses. Occasionally, one or two students would try 'floor-seeking interruption' (van Lier 1988: 114) when a turn seemed to be available to them.

These 'brainstorming' exchanges, however, ceased when the teacher summed it up (see lines 48-49 below) right after F6's contribution (lines 47), thus controlling the amount of students speech, and attracted the students' attention to the next related activity (lines 51-52), during which the teacher showed on the overhead projector (OHP) her own list of the 10 fears in an ascending order (i.e. the tenth one was shown first).

Extract 3

- 47 F6 Teacher.
- 48 T Teachers? Ohhh. (*T & SS laugh*). Okay, okay. (*SS still laugh*). All right. That's probably enough. Many of you have some of these in common. So, these are just what you need as individuals. As you can see, you've come from different cultures and yet you have similar fears. (x). Let me give you a list of fears that have been compiled from research in America. And there's the list of ten. Let me show what these could be. (*T prepares the OHP¹*). What would be the worst one? Animals? Where do they usually (...).
- 54 F6 Heart attack.
- 55 T Heart attack. Yeah. So that's err diseases, isn't it? Where do they usually put this overhead²? (*T starts showing the list to the class from the 10th greatest fear. I started recording from when the 8th fear, flying, was displayed*). (...) [that] becomes worse when you're flying in a war zone or on a very old plane, I would think. Okay. Hey look what that is, number 7. Geologists thought that would be (xxx), wouldn't you? Number 7. Okay number 7. We had that didn't we? We had that in accidents. We had that in diseases.
- 61 Um, ya? All right. (*Moves the transparency, to the next fear on the list.*) Ah-ha, no one mentioned that. There are some people who would not go anywhere near a pool or a lake because of their fear of water is very strong. (*Moves the transparency, to the next fear on the list.*) Ah-ha, bankruptcy!
- 65 F6 Number 1! (*T & SS laugh*).

During this related activity, which lasted for about 5 minutes, the teacher was able to arouse the students' curiosity of what would eventually appear to be the Number 1 fear, which was "Speaking before a group" (lines 83-85, Appendix L, p. A-33). The teacher needed this presentation technique to serve that purpose, and so it was a bad idea if the students were delegated the job of operating the equipment.

At one point (lines 68-71, Appendix L, p. A-33), the teacher responded to a student's question on what the word 'bug' means, thus defining the word for the students. What happened subsequently was the teacher concluding the activity (lines 85-90 in Extract 4 below), introducing another one and explaining what she wanted them to do (lines 90-94), based on the notions derived from the previous discussion.

Extract 4

- 84 (T) Uh (...) Isn't that funny? Isn't that funny? Some people have said that they fear that more than others. Now look at that. But you don't. You don't. You are good talkers. (*Now T introduces the next activity*) Um, on Monday some of you said that in your presentation it was a bit difficult because you had to prepare, you had to concentrate.
- 88 And it was a little bit frightening because it was the first time that you had to do that. Then I guess after lots of preparation and familiarity that becomes easier, doesn't it? So, and I said also on Monday that we'll try and do lots of speaking. Today we'll do a little bit of speaking, but I'll arrange students in these groups. So you're going to speak in little groups. It's always easier, I think, speaking in little groups rather than larger groups.
- 93 And you don't have to worry about preparing because I have very short questions for you to talk about. So, stay in your groups and we'll...

¹ OHP = Overhead Projector

² Overhead = OHP

b. Question Cards

The students stayed in their groups and the teacher started to distribute some cards. It seemed to me that some of the cards were meant for certain students, because at some points, the teacher paused and checked the cards briefly before handing them out to some of the students.

The question cards had such topics as “Have you ever wished you were the opposite sex?” or “Everyone should get a good quality of health care. Do you agree?” about which the students had to talk to each other in their groups. These topics were not meant to be negotiated, i.e. the students could not choose or reject the topics when the cards were being handed out. There was one incident, however, when M1 and F2 exchanged their cards after F2 told him that his topic was an easy one for him (see lines 95-98). M1 gave up his card for F2 (line 99) when the teacher was with another group.

This technique worked fairly well — all members of Group A and the other ones participated actively (except F3, a Russian lady, who was consumed more by her own activity, i.e. looking up the meaning of the new words she found in her card). Extract 5 shows a segment of the exchanges that took place.

Extract 5

95	M1	(xxx) Go on. (<i>Long pause</i>). Okay. My topic is have you ever wished you were the opposite sex?
96		
97	F1	(<i>Looks at M1's card and smiles.</i>) Ohh (...)
98	F2	It's easy.
99	F1	Yeah. (<i>M1 gives the card to F2. M1 and F2 laugh.</i>)
100	F2	(<i>Reads the card.</i>) It's easy. Of course. My mother cooks everything for us. And also
101		we in Korea have discrimination about sex. If we want to get a job, the company want
102		you, err, prefer men to women.
103	M1	(xxx)
104	F2	This is also discrimination, I think.
105	M1	Why?
106	F2	It's a pity.
107	M1	Okay.
108	F2	My mother always asked to me, “You shouldn't go back home until 11o'clock, by
109		11o'clock, before 11o'clock.” (xxx) I thought maybe, I wish I were a man. If I were a
110		man my mother (x) not. Free. Free. I can do everything—whatever I want, because if I
111		want to go out by myself (xx) it's dangerous. If I were a man my mother (xxx). (<i>T comes</i>
112		<i>closer and listens.</i>)

At this point, the teacher joined in the discussion. But, as Extract 6 shows below, she did more than summarising what F2 was talking about (line 113). She corrected F2's grammatically incorrect expression (line 114-115), which was enthusiastically responded

to and 'practised' by F2 (lines 117). She also concluded the discussion by asking the group politely (see Manke 1997: 75-90) to embark on discussing the other topics (line 118).

Extract 6

113 T So your mother (xx) just allow you to do (xxx).
 114 F2 (xxx) I feel more freedom.
 115 T All right. You feel you'd have more freedom. (F2 is interested in T's expression. So T repeats) I feel I would have more freedom.
 116 (Repeats) I feel I would have more freedom.
 117 F2 (Repeats) I feel I would have more freedom.
 118 T (Smiles) All right. Would you like to move on to the next topic? (T goes to see another group. SS read their cards).
 119

After a few minutes, the teacher came back to Group A, where she then performed these roles (see Extract 7 below):

- Correcting M1's mispronunciation of the word 'waste' (lines 120-124) almost immediately after it was pronounced.
- Editing the students' statements by expressing her own comments and confirming her understanding as well as summarising the students' statements. These can be seen in lines 129-130, 139-143, 149 and 151 below.
- In nominating the students to comment on their peer's opinions, employing two kinds of solicits (Allwright 1980, in Larssen-Freeman, 1980: 165-187), i.e. *general solicit* or a turn made available to all the students or other members of a group (lines 129-130) and *personal solicit* or a turn made available for one student or group (lines 132 and 143-144).

Extract 7

120 M1 (Talks about his topic). Everything, everyone should get a good quality of health care,
 121 but I (xx) because if the health care is free maybe (xxx) I mean lots of people west* all
 122 the resources.
 123 T Waste.
 124 M1 Waste. Waste the resources of health care, because it's free. So maybe some people one
 125 day just a little bit of sickness or (xx) maybe they feel they are old they just go to the
 126 hospital not to the doctor. All the day, maybe one day one time or two times, because it's
 127 free, because they know how to use this facility. So I think it's better to charge this, but
 128 not very much.
 129 T Okay, that's a good point. So you're saying that if it's free, people would take advantage
 130 of it and abuse the system. Do others feel the same?
 131 F3 In Russia (xxx).
 132 T (To F1) What do you think, [F1]?
 133 F1 (Turns to M1) Yeah, I agree with you.
 134 F2 I think if it's the system, it's impossible.
 135 M1 (xxx). But in Taiwan nowadays...

- 136 F2 But some persons have to pay the money for them. I think everybody can't get it free. It
 137 is impossible. If (xx) to run the hospital, hire the doctor, or nurse, we have to pay the
 138 money. Who pay the money?
 139 T Oh. Okay. I see. I understand what you're saying. Yeah. It's paid through the taxation. So
 140 really it's not necessarily free. Everybody pays taxation. But everyone can get a doctor's
 141 care if they pay taxation. But the system in Australia is everyone who works pays tax.
 142 Those people who are not working are not taxed. So they are supported by everyone else.
 143 But sometimes people feel it's not fair, that they pay too much tax. And in Taiwan, is it
 144 free? How does it work in Taiwan?
 145 M1 Because we have special health insurance (xxx). Um, I think the taxation (xxx) is the
 146 same as in Australia. But if you're sick just go to the hospital, all the medicine (xx) and
 147 the tablets is free and all the consultation of the doctor is free. But (xxx) maybe I have to
 148 pay about 2 dollars.
 149 T Okay.
 150 M1 To make (xxx).
 151 T So just a small contribution. (*M1 nods*).

The teacher went to see the other groups. Group A continued the discussion. After a few minutes, the teacher introduced another classroom activity.

c. Mark and Naomi

Mark, an HIV-positive American film maker who was visiting Sydney, and Naomi, a retired flight attendant, were the first two of four people who appeared separately yet consecutively in a pre-recorded Australian SBS TV program called *Front Up*, which shows interviews of people on the street talking about themselves. α

The teacher wanted the students to view the interviews and take necessary notes on a double-sided sheet which she had prepared earlier and later distributed to the students. The notes contained a number of words and expressions used by the people in the video. Before playing the video, she asked the students to study the notes and ask her questions about unfamiliar words. After playing the video, she told the class what she wanted them to do next, as in the following extract.

Extract 8

- 173 (T) What I would like you to do now is altogether compare what you got. See if you can fill
 174 the gaps with each other's (xxxx).

All groups started to discuss. The teacher was with Group A and she took part in their discussion. What happened until the end of the lesson was mainly question-and-answer or the typical IRF exchanges between the teacher and students regarding what was implicit and explicit in Mark's and Naomi's statements about themselves in the video. The

teacher's talk, which was usually longer than that of the students, had the following major functions, presented here in order of frequency:

- Specifying the topic (lines 175-176) and placing a limit on the relevance of what may be said (lines 176), editing (line 183) and soliciting more responses (lines 183-184) as in the following extract:

Extract 9

175	→ T	All right. What about um family? There was a lot said about his mother. He had strong
176	→	feelings about his mother. Is it all positive or all negative, or both?
177	M1	Both.
178	T	Both. What are some of the positive things he said about his mother?
179	M1	(xxxx)
180	T	Go on. Go on.
181	M1	He said (xxxx). He said he didn't live together with his father and mother (xxx). He said
182		he had been affected by his mother.
183	→ T	That's right. Have been affected is the same. How? What has his mother given him or she
184	→	taught him? (<i>No answer</i>). What was his mother's occupation?
185	F2	Stripper.
186	T	Stripper. (<i>Smiles</i>). Stripper.

- Defining unfamiliar words or expressions, i.e. "doesn't deal with it (lines 302-304) and "suburbia" (lines 314-321) in these two extracts:

Extract 10

300	T	Does -he's referring to his HIV. "My mother doesn't deal with it."
301	M3	(xxx).
302	T	Yeah. I think, she maybe, she might care but she doesn't know how to show her feelings.
303		To deal with something could be you don't care, but it's also likely that you don't want
304		to expose yourself. 'Doesn't deal with it'—cannot accept it.

Extract 11

314	T	Yeah. What happens in the suburbs? What do people do in the suburbs in Australia?
315		Sometimes when the students come to Australia, they say, "Oh, there's not much life in
316		Adelaide, because people are hiding." Suburbia. People have their own houses. They
317		have their own families.. They keep to themselves. Tradition. Tradition of staying away,
318		not mixing. Okay. He talked about conformity in terms of Um, I think he talked about it
319		being boring. When people say suburbia they usually mean it's boring. I think that's what
320		he referred to. "Brother's ill adjusted." What reference did he make about his brother
321		being ill-adjusted. He mentioned it before. The reason why he lives in Saudi Arabia?

- Attracting the students' attention and, at the same time, specifying the next topic of discussion, as in the underlined words in lines 324-325 in the extract below.

Extract 12

323	T	To get away from their parents. Okay. Ill-adjusted, to get away from their parents. Um, I
324	→	didn't (xxxx). I forgot. <u>Okay, let's have a look at the next one. Naomi. She's quite</u>
325		different. Retired?

- Checking the students' understanding and confirming her own understanding of what was being said either by repeating the answer or by asking more probing questions. In the extract below, the teacher was asking the students questions about Naomi, the retired flight attendant:

Extract 13

326	M1	Retired flight attendant.
327	T	Retired flight attendant. What did she say about her former occupation?
328	M1	It's the best job in the world.
329	T	Best job in the world. Why?
330	M1	She can stay in five star hotels.
331	T	Five star hotels.
332	M1	And travel around the world.
333	T	And travel around the world. Great. Attitude towards her husband? What did she say
334		about her husband?
335	F2	Fine (xx).
336	T	Pardon?
337	F2	Fine but a little bit changing.
338	T	Yes. Fine but changed a little bit. Why did it change?
339	F2	Because his, her husband often go overseas.
340	T	Okay. In the past he went overseas and that perhaps changed, but something more
341		profound. Why?
342	F2	Lose the job?
343	T	He lost the job. He lost his job. Okay. Anything more about that? About attitudes towards
344		her husband?
345	F2	She feels bored.
346	T	She feels bored?

- Summarising the exchanges by asking the students to do so, as in the first two lines in the extract below.

Extract 14

199	→ T	Okay. Let's summarise what you have gathered, what information you have gathered for
200		um Mark. Okay? So, Um, occupation?
201	M	Artist.

At one point during this process, the teacher played the video once again (for the last time) and used the same functions of teacher talk, i.e. mainly asking the students questions about the rest of the video and giving feedback upon having their responses. However, it is interesting to see how she responded and gave feedback politely to students who answered her questions with dubious answers, as line 251 in Extract 15 shows. This type of response appeared twice during the exchanges.

Extract 15

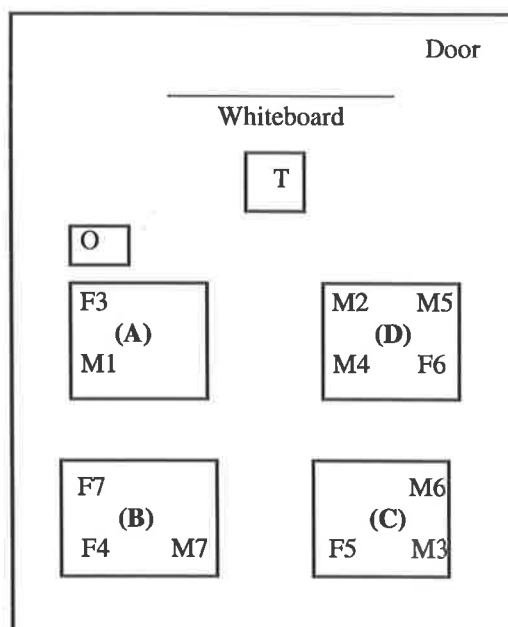
246	T	A stripper or striptease dancer. Yes, yes. (<i>Long pause</i>). What else about the mother? He
247		said about a lot of negative things about her too. What was negative?
248	F4	She always go out. Always um travel.
249	T	Travel a lot?
250	F4	Yes.
251	→ T	Okay. I don't remember that, but I'll listen carefully next time. Okay.

In sum, in terms of power relationships, the teacher assumed these acts:

- Choosing the aims, language and/or skills focus, topics of activities and preparing the materials.
- Writing and cleaning the board.
- Creating the groups, albeit letting late-coming students to join any group they wanted.
- Operating the equipment, in this case when using the OHP and video-player.
- Deciding which questions or problems in the lesson were explored.
- Choosing the vocabulary to be learned, giving meaning for words and even spelling the new words.
- Giving, not to mention offering, explanations and asking or answering questions.
- Breaking the silences created by the students.
- Checking the students' work.

10.2.1.3. Day 2 (Thursday, 27 March 1998; 11.15am-1pm, 2nd session)

The teacher and I had agreed that the observation would start when the class began the second session of the day. I was informed that in the first session the students viewed a video, and in this session they would be discussing their homework. The three main activities during the lesson are called *The Homework*, *The Big Names*, and *Gender Differences*.

Figure 10.2. Seating arrangement of EBTC class at CALUSA – Day 2.

a. The Homework

The homework had two parts: the first contained some jargon and idioms unfamiliar to most of the students which the teacher wanted to discuss as a starter for this session, and the second was a completion exercise which the teacher wanted the students to do for homework. The teacher started the exchanges by picking up a misspelt word in the material ('creeky' which should have been 'crikey'), telling the students the correct spelling of the word, letting them pronounce it for themselves and then giving them a definition of both the meaning and the use of that particular word. However, she also asked one of the students to look up what 'crikey' means in the dictionary.

There were eight other jargon items and idioms the teacher and students discussed in this part of the lesson, which lasted for about 10 minutes. The types of teacher talk and student talk which occurred were the typical IRF exchanges, during which:

- The teacher initiated responses, which were longer than the students' responses, mainly by pointing at a certain unfamiliar word or expression and asking whether the students knew what it meant. In the following extract, one student had just read the meaning of 'crikey' in the dictionary. The teacher agreed with the definition, gave a

little bit of extra information, and eventually specified the next topic of discussion by mentioning the next idiomatic expression (line 14-15).

Extract 16

13	T	Yap. Okay. So, astonishment, surprised. Someone might say 'goodness' or 'wow.' Or
14		they might say crikey. But the very first one, "Okay, chop, chop, let's get the show on
15		the road".

- The students responded in shorter words and expressions, as in Extract 17:

Extract 17

62	(T)	Crook? If you say, "You're crook"—what does it mean?
63	→ F6	Sick.
64	T	Sick. Good....

- The teacher gave feedback (i.e. such short assuring words as "Good" and "Okay"), usually preceded by repetition of the students' responses (see Extracts 16 and 17). However, it could also be longer and in the form of a definition of the word or expression in question, as in lines 69-70 in Extract 18:

Extract 18

66	(T) And the last one, "to clean up". "The [site] is cleaned up"—what do you think
67		happened?
68	M3	Won.
69	→ T	He won. If you clean up in a championship, it means that you clear everybody from your
70		path. You are the winner. (.....).

This lesson starter was concluded by the teacher, firstly, by asking the students to do the last part of the material for homework, and secondly, by introducing the next topic of discussion.

b. The Big Names

The teacher asked all the students to mention names of the world's most successful business people. However, it was only when this segment was to be concluded that the objective was revealed by the teacher: she wanted to see whether the students could actually mention equal numbers of female and male names. Thus, this was actually another kind of lesson starter. This activity ran for about 15 minutes, i.e. before the teacher concluded it by introducing the next activity.

The subsequent exchanges between the teacher and students were characterised by quite a typical IRF interaction pattern. The following extract shows how the teacher initiated or specified the topic, received responses from students and gave feedback.

Extract 19

- 72 (T) Let's do something different now. Finish the (xx) and get on to "Management
73 Styles: Behaviour in the Work Environment". (*Long pause*). Can you just call out names
74 of the world's famous people. Err, world's Um, successful people—business people?
75 F6 Bill Gates.
76 T Uhh, of course. The first one. All right. There are probably some that I don't know if
77 [they come] from your own cities or countries.
78 F6 Mr. Hayek.
79 T I don't know that. Can you spell that?
80 F6 H-A- =
81 T = Yeah.
82 F6 H-A-Y-E-K.
83 T (*Writes on the board*) Okay. Who's Mr Hayek?
84 F6 He invented Swatch.
85 T Wow!
86 F6 And, err (...) =
87 T = Invented Swatch watches.
88 F6 And the owner of Rolex.
89 T Rolex?
90 F6 (xxx).
91 T Any other business people—successful people that you can think of?

The above extract shows (and so do the rest of the transcript of this activity) that the usual IRF pattern, specifically the 'feedback' segment, was also characterised by the teacher's attempt to make the students clarify their responses by spelling the names of the people. In the subsequent parts of this activity, the teacher even managed to correct some of the students' pronunciation of the people's names. I found these examples (lines 130, 160, 165 and 178 consecutively) in the following extracts interesting.

Extract 20

- 128 T Yeah. Any other famous people?
129 F6 Aristoteles.*
130 → T Which one? Aristotle.... (*T confirms answer and corrects F6's pronunciation*).

Extract 21

- 157 T Okay. (*Smiles*). I thought that this person was living today. Any others—that you can
158 think of?
159 F6 Rothschild*
160 → T Rothschild (*T corrects F6's pronunciation*).
161 F6 Yeah, Rothschild.
162 T American? (*T writes on the board*) Is that right? How do you...probably like that.
163 What's the business of Rothschild?
164 F6 (xxx) woman, Nadina*.
165 → T Nadine. (*T corrects F6's pronunciation*).
166 F6 Yeah.

Extract 22

177 M3 (xxx.). Her family is rich because her husband has a big wineyard* in (x).
 178 → T Big wineyard. (T corrects M3's pronunciation). Vineyard.
 179 M3 Vineyard, okay.

c. Gender Differences

Each of the groups of students was given a questionnaire sheet on gender differences which contained a list of so-called characteristics of both sexes, and the students were asked to identify which of them applied to both female and male. As they started working, the teacher went around and monitored and also assisted each student in each group. Conversation between teacher and students was quite inaudible. This activity lasted for about 15 minutes, until the teacher said:

Extract 23

186 T Let's stop that now, and see what you have come up with (*Prepares the board*). So
 187 let's -let's hear your first one from each group. What did you think was your priority? (*To*
 188 *Group A which today consists of only two SS: F3 and M1*). [M1] Which is the first one?
 189 Number 1, for the two of you.

The above extract, particularly lines 188-189, also shows how the students were given both general and specific solicits by the teacher, which characterised the subsequent initiation of topics for the segment. Overall, nonetheless, the exchanges throughout this segment followed the IRF pattern of classroom interaction.

While the teacher made only two general solicits to the whole group of students during the exchanges (see lines 264-267 and 291-292 below), she made a large number of specific solicits both to individual students and certain groups of students, in order to generate their opinions. In doing so, she distributed the responding opportunities to the groups in an alphabetical order.

Extract 24

264 (T) Did you come to any agreement there? Did you think there is any difference?
 265 (*No response*). Do these styles pertain to male or female or are they gender-
 266 neutral? (*No response; T writes on the board*). Gender? (.....) To do with the social
 267 aspects of being male and female. Do you think these belong to women or men?

Extract 25

291 T Okay. So it's not to do with gender. All right. Well, then, can someone tell me or try and
 292 give their opinion or explain why is it that there are so few women at the very top of
 293 business?

Meanwhile, the kinds of specific solicits she made include:

- Gaze, i.e. by turning to or looking at a student or a group after asking a question.
- With chin, i.e. by raising her chin towards a student or group after asking a question.

As in the previous segments, the students responded to the solicits with short words or expressions, and the teacher would usually repeat the answer either to confirm her understanding or to generate and solicit more questions. However, the teacher edited some of the students' comments, i.e. by expressing her own judgment towards them. I think this was due to the sensitivity of the main issues being discussed. This is apparent in lines 328 and 333 in the extract below.

Extract 26

320	M1	I think women, they are not determined.*
321	T	They are not <u>determined</u> . (<i>Corrects M1's pronunciation</i>).
322	M1	Determined.
323	T	Why?
324	M1	Most of them, they, maybe they have lots of ideas, but they can't choose them. (<i>T</i>
325		<i>laughs</i>). They're all (xxx).
326	T	(<i>Laughs</i>). You say they're indecisive?
327	M1	Yeah, indecisive.
328	→ T	Uh...that's very nice. (<i>Laughs</i>).
329	M1	(xxx), and they cannot x their decision on a subject themselves.
330	T	Okay, So they can't make a decision. Is that what you're saying? Women cannot make a
331		decision.
332	F	(xx).
333	→ T	Wow, wow! How did the women in the room think about that?

Some correction on the teacher's part also took place three times during the exchanges — the first and the third times dealt only with one student's (M1's) pronunciation of the word 'determine' (which was pronounced [determain]) and the second with the word 'thorough'. These appear in the following extracts.

Extract 27

190	M1	Er, I think maybe being single-minded and determined*.
191	→ T	Okay—single-minded and <u>determined</u> .
192	M1	Determined, determined (<i>Corrects for himself</i>).

Extract 28

239	M	Conscientious, and =
240	T	= Conscientious and?
241	MM	Zorro* (<i>Mispronounce 'thorough'</i>).
242	T	And?
243	MM	Zorro*.

244	M	Zorro* (<i>Tries to pronounce it correctly</i>).
245	→ T	(<i>Understands; smiles</i>). I thought—this is interesting—I thought you were telling me this
246		(<i>Writes 'sorrow' on the board; T & SS laugh</i>). What was it you were telling me? I had to
247		listen carefully—what was it?
248	MM	Thorough.
249	T	Thorough. Very good. Okay (<i>Writes on the board</i>). Thorough, thorough.

Extract 29

320	M1	I think women, they are not determined.*
321	→ T	They are not <u>determined</u> . (<i>Corrects M1's pronunciation</i>).
322	M1	Determined.

However, the students looked quite comfortable when being corrected for their mispronunciation. This could be seen when M1 mispronounced 'determine' and was corrected for that, he tried to repeat the correct pronunciation at ease (Extracts 27 and 29). In Extract 28, the unidentified students (MM) even self-corrected their mispronunciation after being corrected indirectly by the teacher.

It is also interesting to see how the teacher summarised what the students had just said throughout the exchanges. All the short sentences she said started with the word 'so', as in the extracts below.

Extract 30

201	T	Okay. So you've got the one with 'initiative.' (<i>Writes on the board</i>).
-----	---	--

Extract 31

223	F8	Er, getting the best out of people.
224	→ T	Okay. So, getting the best out of people. All right. We're starting to diversify here a little
225		bit.

Extract 32

291	T	Okay. So it's not to do with gender. All right.
-----	---	---

Extract 33

299	T	So women would have to work harder at succeeding .
-----	---	--

Extract 34

329	M1	(xxx), and they cannot x their decision on a subject themselves.
330	→ T	Okay, So they can't make a decision. Is that what you're saying? Women cannot make a
331		decision.

Extract 35

- 343 F4 Um, and environment. It's very hard—hard circumstances, sometimes more than women.
 344 But I mean that work cannot, can be done by male and female, sometimes women not the
 345 men, in case of patience.
 346 → T So you think women tend to be more patient.
 347 F4 Yes, more patient.

After defining what the word 'franchise' means and leading a short discussion on practices concerning the franchise industry, the teacher concluded the lesson by assigning homework for the students and setting what the class would do on the next day.

To sum up, during the lessons, the teacher showed a degree of dominance over the students in terms of:

- Choosing the aims, the language and/or skills focus, the topics and activities as well as preparing the materials.
- Writing on and cleaning the board.
- Deciding when to start and stop doing an activity.
- Deciding which questions or problems are explored.
- As far as vocabulary is concerned, choosing the words, giving the meaning and spelling out the new words.
- Giving explanations.
- Asking and answering questions.
- Repeating what was said by a student if others did not hear it.
- Breaking the silences, usually by asking questions.
- Choosing the homework.

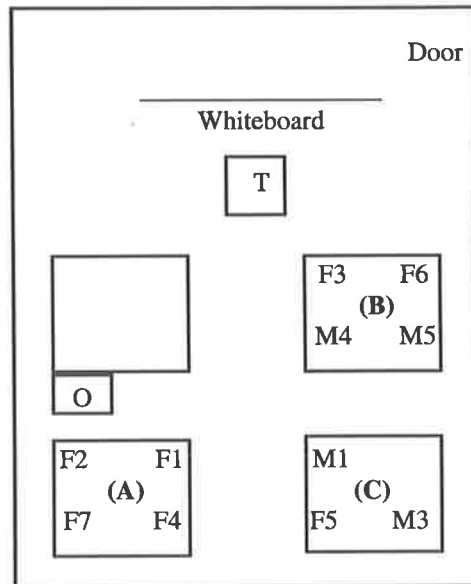
10.2.1.4. Day 3 (Monday, 30 March 1998; 9-10.50am, 1st session)

This session started with the teacher collecting and then discussing the homework assigned on the Friday of the previous week. I did not record the preceding discussion. I started recording when the teacher was about to introduce new material.

The groups' formation changed today. Unlike in the previous two lessons, there were only three groups, and due to the insufficient number of students in Group C, the teacher asked M1, member of Group A, to join the group. The seating arrangement is illustrated in

Figure 10.3 below. The three main activities during the lesson are called *The Six Post-War Survivors*, *The Five Case Questions* and *A Gender Discussion*.

Figure 10.3. Seating arrangement of EBTC class at CALUSA – Day 3.



a. *The Six Post-War Survivors*

The teacher gave the three groups a piece of paper containing a story about an imaginary small group of people from various backgrounds living in an imaginary post-war era. She told them that they had to reach a consensus, and that means everyone had to agree within their own group, and select only 6 persons who would be capable of and suitable for building an entirely new society. In doing so, the students should consider the six people's different backgrounds. Monitored by the teacher, the three groups discussed the contents for about 15 minutes.

Extract 36

22 T Five minutes more and I want you all to report on your sheets. (*SS are still discussing*).
23 Have you finished? Have you finished now? No? (*SS keep discussing*)

In the extract above, the teacher set the time limit for the students to work on the topic. As the students seemed to ignore it, she decided to start the class discussion by asking each group to report on their sheets. To attract the students' attention, she went to front of the class and began asking questions.

The teacher asked one group at a time to mention the numbers of the six people they had chosen. The teacher's confirmation of the students' answers by way of repeating them was apparent from the beginning of the exchanges. Repetition of answers also served as a signal for the students to give more answers (see Extract 37 below). Every now and then, the teacher asked more probing questions and summarised the students' responses (see Extract 38).

Extract 37

24	F1	Three.
25	T	Three.
26	F1	Number three, sorry.
27	T	Three.
28	F1	Five.
29	T	Five.
30	F1	Eight.
31	T	Eight.
32	F1	Ten.
33	T	Ten.
34	F1	Eleven.
35	T	Eleven.
36	F1	Twelve.
37	T	Twelve. All right. Group 2 (<i>Group C</i>).

Extract 38

58	SS	Five.
59	T	Five, yeah. Ooh. Not much (xxx) in the groups. Okay. (<i>T takes the paper</i>). So what did you notice about these categories? What was it that you notice about? What sort of individuals were they?
60		
61		
62	F2	Different occupations.
63	T	Okay. So occupations were different. (<i>T writes on the board</i>). So you focused on occupations. Occupations were different. Anything else? What made you choose some over others?
64		
65		

The typical IRF pattern of teacher-student exchanges was quite prevalent during this segment of the lesson. The students mainly responded to the teacher's general and specific solicits in shorter expressions and were given feedback in the form of the teacher's longer comments and questions. Moreover, the shift from one topic to another during the discussion, which was marked significantly by the teacher's probing questions, was guided by the teacher's comments on the students' answers. Thus, even though the core issues of subsequent discussion were generated from the students' responses, it was quite clear that the teacher set the agenda for discussion. This can be seen in Extract 39 below.

Extract 39

89	(T) Group 1, why didn't you want number 1?
90	F4	We didn't want number 1.
91	T	You didn't want number 1. Why?
92	F4	(xxx) (asks F1 to speak for the group).
93	F1	Because she is a racist.
94	T	Okay. And how would that affect anything?
95	F1	Maybe he's too, she's too selfish to forming a new society.
96	T	Okay.
97	F4	Also from her age—thirty-six years old already. So =
98	T	= Too old, eh? (smiles).
99	F4	So in this case we have to protect Um female to make them still survive and children, et
100		cetera =
101	T	= Procreation. Yeah. Okay. (T laughs). All right, okay. Um, Group 2, you didn't like the
102		army instructor. Why not the army instructor? (T laughs; Group 2 seems uncertain).
103		Don't need such a person? Okay. And Group 3, Um, what was wrong with number 3, the
104		black militant biological researcher? Anything?
105	F	Militant.
106	T	Militant. You didn't like it (xx). Aggressive? (No response) Okay....

The teacher concluded this activity by introducing the next part of the lesson which she said was relevant to the activity they had just done together.

b. The Five Case Questions

To begin this segment, the teacher read five problem questions which the students had to write down and try to solve with their group peers. These were such questions as “A robber pulls a gun on a bank teller. What should the bank teller do?” After dictating the five questions, the teacher told the class to write one or two sentences for each case, instead of talking about it, in just five minutes. The students were about to finish their task when another teacher came in to announce a party to be held at school. The class continued five minutes later, and it was the teacher who initiated the exchanges.

Extract 40

183	T	So, okay. Let's go back to our problem. I would like someone to read out what they've
184		got. [F4], would you read out, read out the one, the first one. What would you say?

The extract above also shows that in terms of *turn-giving*, the teacher now relied on specific or personal solicits, i.e. by mentioning the names of certain students in each of the groups. This was prevalent up to the end of the segment. Besides, the teacher summarised the content of each answer right after it was given by the appointed students. In Extract 41 below, one student (F6) was asked to answer question number 4 (“A relative is trying to give up smoking. What should the relative do?”).

Extract 41

204 F6 Relative have to...should help him, cigarettes. (T & SS laugh; F6 looks
 205 uncertain about her answer).
 206 T Yeah. Relative should help the person to give up smoking. Number 5. [F7], would you
 207 like to give me number 5—the nurse and the patient?

At the end of the segment, she told the class that the next part of the lesson would be a related discussion on gender issues.

c. A Gender Discussion

The students were told that they would listen to a three-part audio recording of monologues from three different people. Each of the three groups was assigned with one of the recordings and asked to give the teacher a summary of what they heard. The teacher paused at each end of the monologues. After the monologues had been played, the teacher asked the students to work in their groups, discussing their part of the recordings, for 10 minutes. I concentrated on Group A.

The first round of the discussion was mainly the teacher checking the students' comprehension of the monologue. The usual IRF pattern of exchanges occurred during this process with the teacher asking questions either to the whole class or a certain student, the students responding, and the teacher giving feedback, either by repeating, commenting on the answers, or asking more questions. The latter took place at the end of this first round. In lines 267-271 below, the teacher repeated and confirmed her understanding of a student's answer and raised related issues for more discussion within the groups. This sort of topic specification was done three times throughout this third part of the lesson.

Extract 42

267 T Okay. So her parents tried to treat them equally but she felt that it was not the case
 268 because she was just a girl. (.....). Now, just briefly, how does it work in your culture?
 269 Is it the same in every situation or is it different in the cities, in the country? Is it up to
 270 the individuals? Is it legalised to try and prevent discrimination? What happens in
 271 your country? Can you just talk about that for a while?

All the students started discussing the teacher's topics within their groups. Once again, I concentrated on Group A whose members were talking to and about each other. This technique worked quite successfully, specifically within Group A, where all the members took active part in the discussion. However, the teacher still played some roles here as she

corrected the students' pronunciation and gave two specific solicits (see Appendix L, lines 272-293, p. A-51). This type of teacher's involvement in the students' group discussion also occurred when the examples from each group were brought forward to a class discussion on the same matter, i.e. gender differences and discrimination in the students' different cultures. However, the most apparent aspect of the interaction was that the teacher used specific solicits quite often in order to generate examples from certain students, as the following extract illustrates.

Extract 43

310	T	I want examples from different countries. Just as an example. Err, perhaps, ehm [F1], can you give us a brief summary of what you talked about. What happens in Japan—just briefly.
311		
312		
313	F1	Um, in Japan in the old time, there were (...)
314	T	<i>(Asks students in other groups to be quiet)</i> Quiet, quiet.
315	F1	Yeah, long time ago, there were discrimination between women and men =
316	T	= For employment?
317	F1	Yeah, but now there is a law of equal, between women and men, and the law was made about ten years ago, I think, more than ten years ago. So now situation has already
318		changed, and company should give equal opportunity to women.
319		
320	T	Okay, so the law has changed.
321	F1	Yes.
322	T	Okay. Good, thank you. [M1], can you tell us about the situation in Taiwan?
323	M1	Um, I think the society has changed, has been changed, because now [lots of] the company, they employ women to be a manager.
324		
325	T	Okay.

In summary, the teacher was quite dominant in terms of:

- Choosing the aims, language and/or skills focus, topics and activities as well as preparing the materials.
- Writing on and cleaning the board.
- Deciding when to start and stop doing an activity.
- Giving meaning for and spelling out new words.
- Answering the students' questions.
- Repeating what was said if others did not hear it.
- Breaking the silences created by the students.
- Checking the work and choosing the homework.

10.2.2. UEC Class (13 Students)

10.2.2.1. Background

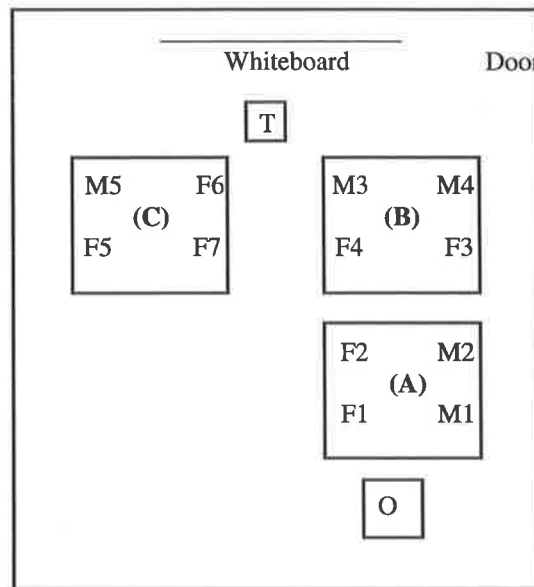
This class was in its fifth (last) week of the course when observed. Unlike the EBTC class, it was taught by the same teacher, a 52 year-old lady, from the beginning. Just like the other classes at CALUSA, the students came mostly from some Asian countries. Out of 13 students, only one was European (from Switzerland). The others were Indonesian, Japanese, Taiwanese, Saudi Arabian and South Korean.

The teacher told me prior to the observation activities that everything I would see in the classroom would be the implementation of a curriculum negotiation process conducted at the beginning of the term during which each student was involved in making the decisions. Therefore, such things as the use of certain study materials and the related teaching-learning activities in the class would be the results of negotiation.

Unfortunately, the negotiation took place at the beginning of the course (i.e four weeks before I started the observation activities). As a consequence, my further analysis and discussion of how the negotiated curriculum took place and how the results were related to the classroom discourse and vice versa, are entirely based on the teacher's information and my own observation data.

10.2.2.2. Day 1 (Wednesday, 1 April 1998, 11.30am-1pm, 2nd session)

The following exchanges were the continuation of a discussion the class had in the first session, which I did not observe. They had been given a textbook on writing in an academic setting, which was designed to teach the students better ways to write good academic essays required in Australian universities. However, the lesson was in three parts, and I call these *The Expressions*, *The Completions* and *The Reading Passages*. As the following figure shows, the students sat in three groups of four, and they were formed by the students themselves.

Figure 10.4. Seating arrangement of UEC class at CALUSA – Day 1.

a. The Expressions

In this first part of the lesson, the teacher asked the students to add information to make their argument convincing. The first example she gave them was “going to the movies”, and they were asked to think about what they would say to convince a friend who does not want to go to the movies to go and/or to convince friends that they are not interested in going to the movies. In the subsequent exchanges, which lasted for about 10 minutes, the teacher basically asked questions, the students responded, and the teacher gave feedback, (mostly by repeating or commenting on the responses in order to confirm her understanding). Sometimes, the teacher also edited the responses by explaining the appropriateness of the expressions. In the following extract, for example, two students (M1 and F3) were responding to the teacher’s questions: “How do you say you’re not convinced? What words do you use?” (lines 19-20).

Extract 44

- | | | |
|----|----|--|
| 21 | M1 | I’m not interested. |
| 22 | T | What? |
| 23 | M1 | I’m not interested. |
| 24 | T | I’m not interested. Okay. |
| 25 | F3 | I’m not sure. |
| 26 | T | I’m not sure (<i>hesitant</i>). That’s a bit -if you -don’t say “I’m not sure” because they will keep trying to persuade you on. |
| 27 | | |

This kind of IRF interactional pattern was even more prevalent in the first related segment of this activity where the students were directed to the next section of the material and asked to indicate the most formal expressions used in asking questions, adding information, challenging, expressing reservation and reassurance (see Appendix L, lines 51-87, pp. A-54–A-55). In terms of turn-giving, the teacher used specific solicits, particularly when she began the second related segment, that is by asking the students to put the words and expressions into the blanks in the material. This is shown in lines 83-87 below.

Extract 45

81	(T)	All right, very good. Now the next thing you have to do is you have to
82		sort of pick the words and expressions into these blanks. What I'd like you to
83		do is just—let's see, you [got] eight—just uhm [partner]. Maybe you two
84		(M5 & F5) do asking questions, and you three (F6, F7 & F8) do adding
85		information, you two (M1 & F1) do challenging, you two (M2 & F2) do
86		expressing reservation, you two (F3 & F4) do the reassuring, and you two (M3
87		& M4; T laughs) (xxxx). Do number 1 for me.

The teacher spent the next 15 minutes going around the class to monitor the groups' work, during which she also gave the three groups quite an extensive amount of information as to how they were supposed to do the task. By doing so, she specified the topic of discussion, confirmed her understanding of and edited the students' responses (mostly by repeating and commenting on them), and defined as well as exemplified certain words and expressions that she thought would be worthy of explanation. Therefore, the students tended to respond — in shorter expressions — only when a turn was obviously given. One male student (an Indonesian), nonetheless, attempted “floor-seeking interruption” (van Lier 1988: 114), which, however, was done in a light-hearted — if not very polite — manner, i.e. by a little bit of joking and smiling. This is shown in the extract below.

Extract 46

166	(T)	They are more easily persuaded, and what about the secret of success in life in (xxxx).
167		“How to change men's minds?”
168	→ M1	Men's? Only men's? (smiles).
169	T	Maybe that's only for women! (SS laugh).
170	→ M1	Only men? (still smiles)
171	T	Why is it only men's minds? Maybe we can change “men's and women's minds.”

All the features discussed in this section can be seen in Appendix L, lines 88-194, pp. A-55 – A-57.

b. The Completion

The students were asked to form complete phrases from a group of loose words in the material using a group of other words available. The objective was obviously to match both groups of words to obtain appropriate and acceptable phrases in English, such as “to keep an open mind” and “to drive a hard bargain”, etc. What happened during the exchanges was mainly the teacher making general solicits to attract the students’ responses (as in lines 195-196 in Extract 47 below), the students responding (lines 197 and 201) and being told whether their answers were correct (lines 198, 202 and 204), and the teacher defining or summarising the discussion on the said words or phrases (204-207).

Extract 47

194	(T)	All right, look at ‘magic’; complete that, on the next page. What do you
195		reach? You reach. What do you drive, what do you keep, what do you study, what do
196		you find? What word would go with what?
197	F4	Reach a solution?
198	T	No
199	F4	No?
200	T	You would usually find=
201	F	= Find a solution?
202	T	Find a solution.
203	F	Keep an open mind.
204	T	Keep an open mind. That’s right. What you’re doing here, these are the usual phrases
205		that are put together. When you talk about persuasion, you don’t have to concentrate on
206		these words because they go together, like, you know, like songs. You have certain words
207		and certain sounds that go together. Like in English, these words, they go together. So
208		you reach a—you don’t know that word, ‘stalemates.’ Stalemate is where nobody moves.
209		Everybody agrees to disagree.

c. The Reading Passages

This activity was an extension of *The Completion* in which each of the students was requested to read to anyone sitting next to them some reading passages containing the kinds of phrases they discussed previously. In the beginning of the activity, the teacher reminded one female student who looked somewhat sleepy. Using Stubbs’ (1976: 159) taxonomy, I view this as belonging to the category of “showing attention”, as shown in the extract below, where it was M1, instead of F1 (the ‘sleepy’ student), who responded.

Extract 48

260	T	(To F1) You don’t look very interested in your reading [passage] (smiles). You look
261		like you’re falling asleep (xxx) here?
262	M1	Yeah (smiles; F1 changes her sitting position).
263	T	Okay (to F1), be enthusiastic, constructive attitude (smiles and goes to other
264		groups).
265	M1	(Smiles; to F1) (xxxx)

The exchanges following the above incident were quite like those in the previous activity, i.e. characterised heavily by the IRF pattern of exchanges. However, it was obvious that this time the teacher made more general solicits, responded with shorter feedback and did less defining and summarising.

The last segment in this activity was a discussion of the four basic types of written communication in an academic setting, during which the teacher dominated the discourse by explaining what argumentative, descriptive, narrative, and comparative essays are. The students were involved in the process when they were asked to classify the piece of writing they were reading. Even so, the teacher eventually assumed the 'resource person' role when a correct classification or definition was needed. The following extract illustrates this.

Extract 49

- 341 T Paraphrase? But the word 'substantiate' -it says here "It is necessary to substantiate
342 your thinking". What word can you substitute there for? What word could you use
343 as a synonym for the word 'substantiate', if you want to paraphrase this? (*No response*)
344 It is necessary to give a reference, give a reference, or quote the authority or
345 backup any (xx) thinking. (.....). And E? It sounds a bit silly, really, but I've been (xxx)
346 a lot about personal pronouns, and F is just very good advice. Okay. Now, I have a quite
347 nicely constructed (x) for you to look at. You don't need to search (*T takes the new*
348 *material and distributes it around the class*). See how it is constructed. Okay, so we got
349 this opening. What's the approach of these essays? What kind -of those four types of
350 essays. There are four types of essays on this sheet. Which kind is it (xxx)?
351 M1 Narrative one?
352 T What?
353 M1 It's narrative.
354 T Oh, no.
355 M1 The first one?
356 T No, it's not narrative. It doesn't tell a story.
357 M1 Descriptive, maybe descriptive (*to himself*).
358 T Whenever you have a -when we talk about -what about these words: "What we are
359 saying is" What is that? Could you =
360 F = Argumentative
361 T Argumentative, argumentative. And remember in an argumentative essay, the
362 difference between argumentative and explanatorial descriptive, explanatorial-
363 descriptive, is you add the headings or the sections that you're going to have. But in an
364 argumentative, you just finish with your argument. So you (*turns to M3*), what's the
365 argument? What are they going to establish in this essay? What are they persuading you
366 about? That -what? What's the argument? (.....) Only read the introduction, don't
367 read anything else. A lot of words in the introduction that tell you what did they say, what
368 is their position?

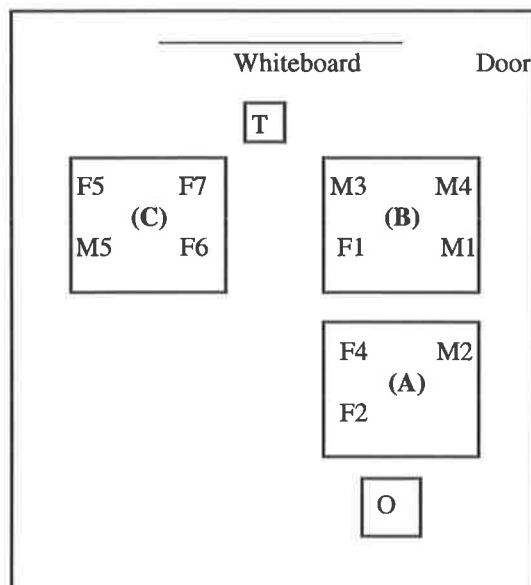
In terms of power relationships, the teacher showed a degree of dominance over the students in terms of:

- Choosing the aims, language and/or skills focus, topics and activities and preparing the materials.
- Writing on and cleaning the board.
- Deciding when to start and stop an activity.
- Deciding which questions or problems were explored.
- Choosing the vocabulary, giving meaning for words, spelling out new words.
- Asking and answering questions.
- Breaking the silences.

10.2.2.3. Day 2 (Thursday, 2 April 1998, 11.30am-1pm, 2nd session)

This session had three related activities: *A Warmer* (as the teacher herself called it), *The Language of Advertising* and *Defending Your Point of View*.

Figure 10.5. Seating arrangement of UEC class at CALUSA – Day 2.



a. A Warmer

Each of the students was given a sheet of paper with some captioned pictures (e.g. leather) and words to match (e.g. colour, material, quality, shape). Again, the IRF pattern of interaction was quite apparent during this process; the teacher started the exchanges by making specific solicits to the students, the students responded and were given feedback.

In giving feedback, the teacher usually repeated the answers, specifically if the answers were correct, and then solicited the subsequent questions. The exchanges extended a little bit with the teacher giving some explanation only when the answer was incorrect, and, in this case, as shown in the extract below, the teacher usually did one or a combination of the following:

- Showing some hesitation
- Saying no in a cautious manner
- Explaining in which context the uttered word is normally used in English.
- Defining the meaning of the word with some hints of the correct answer she expected.

Extract 50

12	T	Square?
13	F	Shape.
14	T	Shape. Blonde?
15	F7	Colour.
16	T	Colour. Long?
17	Sm SS	Size.
18	T	Size. Scrappy?
19	M1	What's scrappy?
20	F7	Mmm?
21	T	Scrappy is like when you don't shave, when a man doesn't shave, and he
22		doesn't brush his hair or he =
23	F7	= Size.
24	MM	= Shape.
25	T	Err =(hesitant).
26	F/M5	=Opinion.
27	T	Yeah (...) (Some SS laugh).Opinion.
28	M	(xxx).
29	T	No, opinion, thank you (to M5; smiles) (...) Broad? (...)
30	F7	Material.
31	T	No.
32	F/MM	Size.
33	T	Size. Yeah, broad, broad shoulders. (F4 smiles). Broad. Next, um, greenish?
34	F2	Colour.

The nature of this part of the lesson, i.e. the relativity of the association between the words in question, had actually enabled the teacher and students to negotiate meaning quite effectively. One of the students, for example, (see line 40 in Extract 51 below) managed to defend her opinion that 'gold' should be associated with 'material' rather than with 'colour', but eventually she accepted the teacher's argument that in their context 'gold' is 'colour'. Indeed, during this process, it was the teacher who told the students whether one answer was correct or incorrect.

Extract 51

35	T	Gold. (F2 chuckles).
36	M1	(xxx)?
37	T	No (turns to F4 who looks puzzled). Colour.
38	M1	Quality. Quality. (SS laugh).
39	T	(xxx). Colour. Yeah, [because of the colour]. Yeah.
40	→ F4	(Still doesn't understand) but I think (xxx) gold ring and (xxx).
41	T	No, usually 'gold' refers to the colour of it. If you have a silver ring or gold ring,
42		you're still referring to the colour, not to the material. (SS laugh).
43	F	(xxx).

b. The Language of Advertising

The teacher distributed and asked all the students to read a reading text entitled *The Language of Advertising* that they had to discuss in their groups later. She told them that there were three kinds of terms they would find in the readings and, using the three terms, they should be able to categorise different advertising reading passages. When the students started reading, the teacher went around the class and saw each of the students. She monitored the work of each group and gave directions as to how to carry out the task. She also reminded one of the students (F4) not to use her dictionary.

After about 10 minutes, she asked all the groups if they had finished their work. She then used specific solicits to ask some of the students (from Group A first) to read the passages one after another and give their answers. In other words, every time a student finished his/her passage and gave an answer, the teacher asked another student to do the same thing. The teacher also played an important role during this segment as she settled disputes over the correct answers. In doing so, she offered her explanation and definition of the disputed terms and categories of advertisement, thus suggesting the correct answers, which were always accepted by the students.

c. Defending Your Point of View

The teacher had three books, in which there was a reading text about writing an argumentative essay called *Defending Your Point of View*, that she wanted the students to read. For some reason, the teacher was unable to provide each student with a book, so she asked the students to form three groups of 3 or 4 to share one book each. The teacher played a decisive role here, because she herself asked some of the students to move and join the other groups in order to form a position that would enable them to read the books

from different angles. The students read the material for about 5 minutes, during which the teacher went around the classroom to monitor the students' work and assisted when needed. The 'reading comprehension' discussion was conducted after the students had read the material. However, the discourse was dominated by the teacher, and the classroom interaction followed this pattern:

- The teacher specified the topic by giving extensive explanation of the various elements in the reading material that she wanted the students to talk about. However, as apparent in Appendix L, lines 254-332, pp. A-66 – A-67, almost all the solicits she made in specifying the topics of discussion failed to attract responses from the students, most of whom chose to be 'good' listeners this time. So much so that when the teacher asked one of the students (F2) to comment, for example, it was another student (M1) who 'stole' the opportunity, thus preventing the interaction from being too one-sided.
- The students' responses were mainly too short to be considered significant in shaping the discourse of classroom power relationships during the activity.

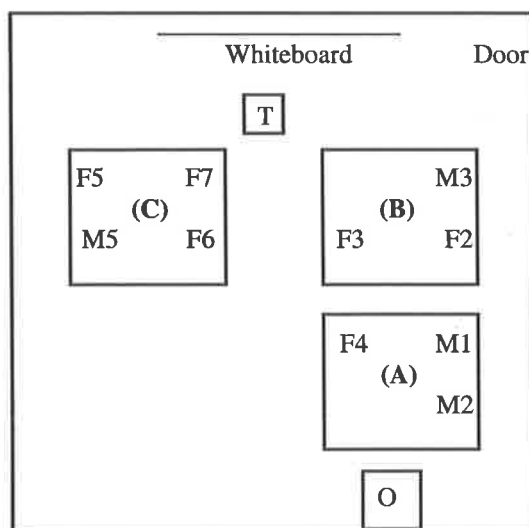
In conclusion, the teacher's dominance was shown as regards:

- Choosing the aims, language and/or skills focus, topics and activities and preparing the materials.
- Writing on and cleaning the board.
- Deciding when to start and stop doing an activity.
- Deciding which questions or problems in the lesson were explored.
- Choosing the vocabulary to be learned, giving meaning for and spelling out new words.
- Giving, not to mention offering her own, explanations.
- Asking and answering questions.
- Repeating what was said by a student if the other students did not hear it.
- Breaking the silences.

10.2.2.4. Day 3 (Friday, 3 April 1998, 9-10.50am, 1st session)

This lesson was in two parts only, i.e. *The Syllable Soup* (as the teacher called it) and *April Fool*, which was the title of the reading material for the second part of the lesson.

Figure 10.6. Seating arrangement of UEC class at CALUSA – Day 3.



a. *The Syllable Soup*

As a warmer, a language game called *The Syllable Soup* was introduced by the teacher to the first four students in the classroom that morning. She gave each student a copy of the game and explained what she wanted them to do with it. Each copy of the game had the syllables of such words as ‘television’ and ‘calculator’ scrambled in boxes of different shapes, which the players had to join together.

Throughout this part of the lesson, the teacher assisted all the students, particularly those who asked for her help, by giving them grammatical and technical hints for solving the puzzle. Besides, she also set the time limit by giving 15 minutes for them to work on this puzzle (during which other late-coming students popped in and were also told about the game). This is shown in the extract below.

Extract 52

- 21 Okay, so they've taken all the syllables (xxx). Okay? They've taken the word
 22 'tomorrow', right? And they've erased these and they put out in the side here,
 23 and -so your task is to find a syllable with a capital letter and put it in a circle, and
 24 find another syllable that is the stressed syllable in the word and put it in the square. So

- 25 you got 'to-mor-row'.
- 26 F3 And then you go down?
- 27 T And then you go down. So what would that be? Look at this one—going down. What
- 28 would that be? So you need 'something-vi-sion', 'something-vi-sion'. You can try -well,
- 29 maybe you could go 'tele-err-sion'. What could that be? Tele-err-sion.
- 30 F Television.
- 31 T Television. Okay, so 'tel-' and then here you put in -where is it? V-I, then you put T-E-
- 32 L, and then E and then V-I and then (*writes '-sion' on the board*). So 'television'. Okay.
- 33 (*Turns to F4*) Now you understand? (*laughs*).
- 34 F4 Yeah.
- 35 T Now you have only fifteen minutes.

b. April Fool

Right after the warmer, a writing practice entitled *April Fool* was introduced. Each of the students was given a piece of paper containing numbered simple and complex sentences which they had to combine, e.g. by using conjunctions, and alter, when necessary, to form a grammatically coherent text on how the *April Fool* tradition began. The teacher spent a few minutes in the beginning to explain:

- What the tradition is to some of the students in whose cultures this might not be known at all.
- What she expected the group of students to do with the material, because this was supposed to be group work even though each student had the written material.

This activity generated quite a warm atmosphere of interaction between the teacher and the students. The teacher employed very few personal solicits, and, looking so fascinated with suggesting the most appropriate one-word conjunctions to the sentences, some of the students responded voluntarily and actively to the teacher's questions. In the following extract, the students were trying to insert a conjunction between the sentences: "The tradition began a long time ago" and "No one knows where it began".

Extract 53

- 73 (T) "This tradition began a long time ago".
- 74 F3 No one knows where?
- 75 T You need a =
- 76 F4 =Although?
- 77 T No.
- 78 M2 And no one knows where.
- 79 T Well, what's the better word? --because it means -although is a little bit -because it
- 80 indicates that this is going to be something, not really an addition.
- 81 F3 But no one knows where....
- 82 T But (...)
- 83 M2 But.
- 84 T But, the conjunction, "but no one knows where this tradition began".

The subsequent exchanges involved more complicated grammatical items, thus more elaborate teacher-student discussion, than in the extract above. Nonetheless, the students remained quite enthusiastic in giving their responses without being personally solicited. The teacher, however, as shown in the above extract, remained the sole ‘editor’ of the students’ responses; she corrected (grammatical) mistakes, defined the contexts for certain conjunctions to be placed into, and even suggested alternatives of correct answers (i.e. combination of sentences having different functional conjunctions) for students to consider. She was quite aware of this tendency, though, and she light-heartedly admitted, or perhaps reminded herself about it, as the following extract shows.

Extract 54

130	T	Ah-ha! Or ‘as’ [you got] ‘as’? I’d better stop telling you the answers. (<i>SS laugh</i>). It
131		doesn’t look good on the tape. (<i>SS don’t understand; they look at T</i>).
132	M2	It doesn’t look good on the tape?
133	T	It doesn’t look good on the video (<i>points to the camera; SS understand and laugh</i>).

To sum up, the teacher’s dominance was shown in the following acts:

- Choosing the aims, language and/or skills focus, topics and activities, and preparing the materials.
- Writing on and cleaning the board.
- Deciding when to start and stop doing an activity.
- Deciding which questions or problems are explored.
- Choosing the vocabulary, giving meaning for and spelling out new words.
- Giving explanations.
- Asking questions.
- Breaking the students’ silences.
- Checking the work and choosing the homework.

10.3. At STKIP

10.3.1. Speaking III Class (30 students)

10.3.1.1. Background

This class was the only one I was able to videotape during the fieldwork activity in STKIP Gorontalo. The teacher of the other class I wanted to observe did not agree to be recorded, let alone videotaped.

This speaking class was for Semester 5 students (from the 1995/96 academic year). Also enrolled in this class were a few junior secondary school teachers who were doing in-service training for an undergraduate degree in TEFL at STKIP Gorontalo.

The teacher was a male in his late thirties who had had 9 years of teaching experience. He had been back from doing a postgraduate degree in Jakarta for more than a year. He took part in the survey and interview, and the data he provided suggest that, among other things, he allowed his students to be involved in choosing their preferred teaching-learning methods, created various kinds of interaction in speaking activities, preferred to put the students into small groups for discussion, and tried to use more effective teaching aids.

The class was divided into groups of three students. Each week one group was assigned one topic to discuss first within the group itself and later in a panellist discussion in front of the class, during which another group of three was supposed to debate their presentation. During the observation, three topics were talked about, namely *Culture*, *Students' Motivation*, and *Library*. The two groups were expected to discuss the topic for the first one hour and the audience was given the opportunity to respond in the last thirty minutes.

During the discussion, the teacher acted as a *moderator*, who, according to the tradition in the Indonesian academic culture, is in charge of the various aspects of running a discussion, from the beginning to the end. These include distributing the speaking and responding opportunities for the speakers and participants, making sure that the talk remains focused on the specified topic, mediating disputes and summarising the talk.

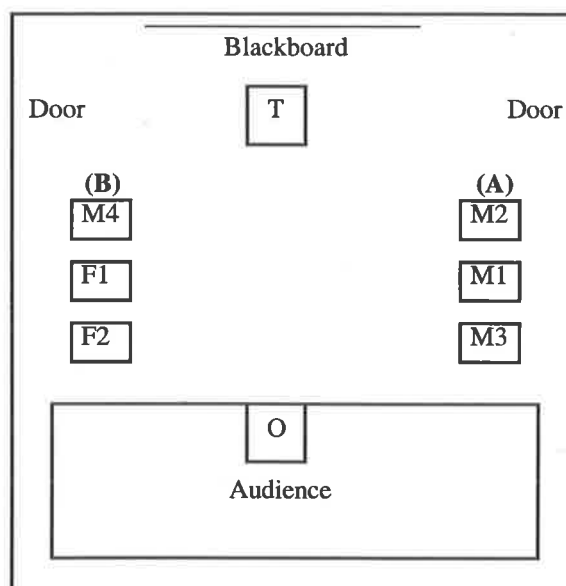
As far as the students are concerned, I used the words ‘speakers’ to refer specifically to the two discussant-groups, and ‘audience’ or ‘students’ interchangeably to the rest or all of the class.

10.3.1.2. Day 1 (Tuesday, 28 October 1997, 8.00am-10.20am)

I began the observation when the class had been in session for a few minutes. The class was having a panellist discussion on *Culture*. Two groups (Groups A and B), each having three members, were discussing the topic in front of the class.

The audience consisted of the other members of the class (also already divided into groups). I filmed the selected segments of the classroom interaction from the centre seat in the first row.

Figure 10.7. Seating arrangement of Speaking III class at STKIP – Day 1.



Prior to the discussion, as the teacher told me at the end of the lesson, Group A presented their paper on the topic for about 15 minutes, during which they narrowed down the talk to comparing and contrasting Western and Eastern cultures. The transcript starts when M1, one of the Group A speakers, was giving more explanation about the topic.

In CLT terms, the speakers, except two females (F1 and F2 of Group B), were able to express their ideas effectively from the beginning to the end of the lesson. By

'effectively' I mean they used all the linguistic resources they had to negotiate what they meant in a communicative way, regardless of the many grammatical mistakes they frequently made and regardless of some the rather pointless statements they sometimes proposed. These all happened despite the fact that their speaking turns and the contents of their talk were constantly monitored and, in some instances, even censored by the teacher.

In general, the students had been able to put their ideas across in an argumentative and sometimes shrewdly critical way. The efforts by some of the students to convince their interlocutors might probably explain why they made long statements rather than just short responses to the teacher's invitations to speak. Many of these statements were even spoken out without having to wait for the teacher's solicits. One of the students (M1), who was rather more outspoken than his average classmates, showed a little bit of resistance when the scope of the main issues he was talking about was restricted by the teacher (see e.g. lines 86-87 in Extract 56 and also 111-113 in Extract 57 below).

However, as far as the teacher is concerned, it was quite apparent that he, being the moderator, performed a number of quite decisive roles throughout the discussion — to which the students did not show any objection at all. In terms of frequency, these were:

- Giving specific solicits, most of which were meant for certain speakers or a group of students either by verbally asking for their comments or even just by gazing. The following extract has all of these.

Extract 55

155 T (Looks at F1 & F2) No more? [M2]? (No response). Okay (to the whole class), just
156 spend about thirty minutes to discuss about Western and Eastern culture, yes. Er, this
157 [time] I give to the other groups. Group 2. (Points at a few students) Are you Group 2?

- Summarising the talk, both at particular points during the discussion (see Appendix L, lines 64-65, p. A-72) and, especially, at the end of it (refer to Appendix L, lines 169-214, pp. A-74 – A-75).
- Editing, which was done four times throughout the discussion, especially when he wanted the speakers to remain focused on the specified topic. In the following extract, one of the speakers (M1) was talking about Western culture just in terms of what he

referred to as “short clothes” — the kind of clothes worn by most European visitors to Indonesia — which he strongly opposed.

Extract 56

78 M1 Yeah, yeah (xxx) when they are wearing the short clothes. But maybe they are refers to
 79 being free, yeah? *Lebih bebas untuk berpakaian*³. But when we are talking about their
 80 wearing, the short clothes, no! I don't agree.
 81 T Yeah, religion roots. Okay, er, you must remember you are going to talk about culture,
 82 wide- wider than that. So whenever you see from one point, er Western point and
 83 Eastern point, don't become stand on one side. Yes? It means you must consider
 84 advantages and disadvantages. And later I will ask you your princip* later. Right? Okay.
 85 Something like that. Yeah.
 86 M1 But we're talking about the moral=
 87 → T =The other speakers?

The teacher was trying to say that M1 had been quite narrow-minded in talking about Western culture. However, M1 resisted and tried to defend his argument. Clearly ignoring M1's further argument, as in line 87 in the extract above, the teacher interrupted and asked the other speakers to speak instead. At another point of the discussion, the teacher also performed the editing on the grounds of the sensitivity of a topic, such as religion, even though the speaker still managed to resist. As shown in the following extract, M1 (whose comments were inaudible) was contrasting between Western and Eastern cultures on the basis of religion. The teacher interrupted and asked him to change the subject. Thus, the teacher also specified the next topic of discussion.

Extract 57

110 M1 (xxx) =
 111 T =Wait. So we don't talk more about religion=
 112 M1 =Yes.
 113 T Yeah. Talk about science.

- Correcting, which happened twice. Firstly, when the teacher wanted M1 to say that Western culture is ‘heterogeneous’ rather than ‘homogeneous’ (lines 39, p. A-71). Secondly, when the teacher wanted M1 to say ‘performance’ instead of its Indonesian equivalent *kinerja* (line 149, p. A-73).
- Maintaining order in the classroom. This happened mainly when the teacher reminded the students (or audience) to pay attention to the speakers. An example is shown below.

³ Translation: “They have more freedom to wear what they want to wear.”

Extract 58

56 T = Yeah, er, wait. [Concentrate] what the speaker said, yeah? You understand?
 57 SS Yeah, yeah

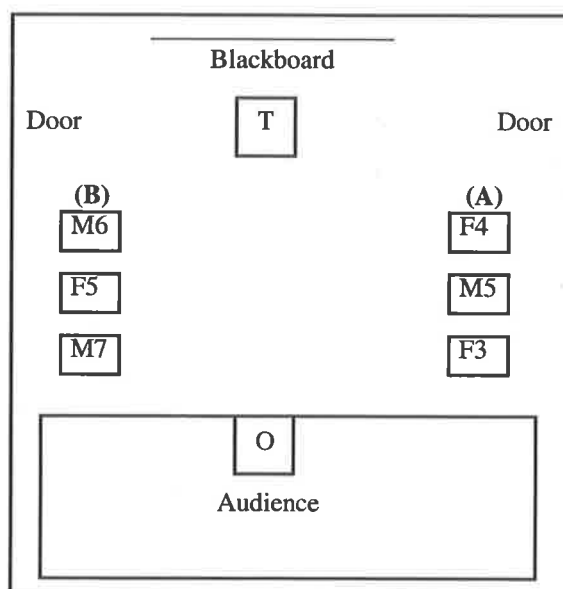
In sum, the teacher's dominance over the students was shown in terms of:

- Choosing the aims, language and/or skills focus as well as the kind of activity.
- Writing on the board.
- Creating the groups.
- Deciding when to start and stop an activity.
- Deciding which questions or problems were explored.
- Choosing the vocabulary to be learned, spelling out certain words.
- Giving explanations, usually when summarising a topic of discussion.
- Asking questions.
- Breaking the silences.

10.3.1.3. Day 2 (Tuesday, 4 November 1997, 8.00am-10.20am)

I filmed this class session from the beginning. The format of the discussion was the same: a panellist discussion, presenting two groups that discussed a topic. The topic was '*Motivation*,' which was narrowed further by the presenters into *Students' Motivation*. In the transcript, EM stands for 'extrinsic motivation' and IM for 'intrinsic motivation'.

Figure 10.8. Seating arrangement of Speaking III class – Day 2.



The teacher spent the first 10 minutes of the lesson giving directives to all the students and, especially, to the group that was going to present the paper, regarding how the class discussion would be conducted (see the extract below). Among the protocols he mentioned were that all the students were expected:

- To “follow this program actively” (line 6-7)
- To take notes when necessary (line 8) and
- To speak when they were given the “chance to speak”. Otherwise, they would lose the “chance to practise” (lines 8-11).

Extract 59

1	T	Okay, we are going to continue our activities as what we have been done in- but before
2		the class began, began, I ask you for you to prepare the sken* (scene?) of this room
3		especially for the groups will carry out discussion. Who is the =?
4	SS	= Group 2A.
5	T	Why don't make er (. . . .) (<i>SS mumble</i>). Okay, let's do it (<i>The groups come forward and</i>
6		<i>prepare the discussion for a few minutes</i>). All participants or all students will follow-
7		should follow the- this program actively. So you thinks what are discuss and then you can
8		take a note. Later I will give you a chance- you can present your idea concerning the
9		material that they have discussed. Do you understand?
10	SS	Yeah//yes.
11	T	If I call you and you don't speak, it means that you lost the chance to practise. So all
12		things will be expressed spontaneously, okay, based what people will discuss in this class.
13		Now, I would like to ask- I would like to ask you- this group (<i>to Group A</i>). Who is to be
14		leader? (<i>M5 raises his hand</i>).
15	T	[M5]. So you organise well this program. Er, I think you have a small discuss, yeah,
16		before this class. Okay. Do you understand? What topic are you going to discuss?
17	M5	Students' motivation.
18	T	Yeah, students' motivation, yeah. So talking about motivation. I ask all of you, you have
19		basic knowledge about motivation, whether from your experience or from the theorists.
20		Okay?

Before the presenter-group started with their paper, the teacher specified the topic of discussion with an extensive explanation of various aspects of motivation in learning, and the students responded to him only when a general solicit was made available to them.

Right after M5, speaker of Group A, finished his short presentation, the teacher asked the members of Group B to comment, and then Group A to respond, and so on, until they got to the point where the teacher summarised the talk on an issue and generated further topics of discussion mostly by asking some topical questions to the presenter-group. This pattern of exchanges was quite prevalent from the beginning to the end of the discussion. It was quite obvious that most of the students' comments or responses were solicited by the

teacher, mostly with verbal requests and sometimes with just a gaze or gesture. This can be seen in Appendix L, from lines 78 to 228, pp. A-76 – A-79.

At the conclusion of the lesson, the teacher summarised the discussion and made sure that the students had no more questions to ask the speakers. After giving some directives for the next discussion, he ended the lesson by asking the audience to applaud the speakers.

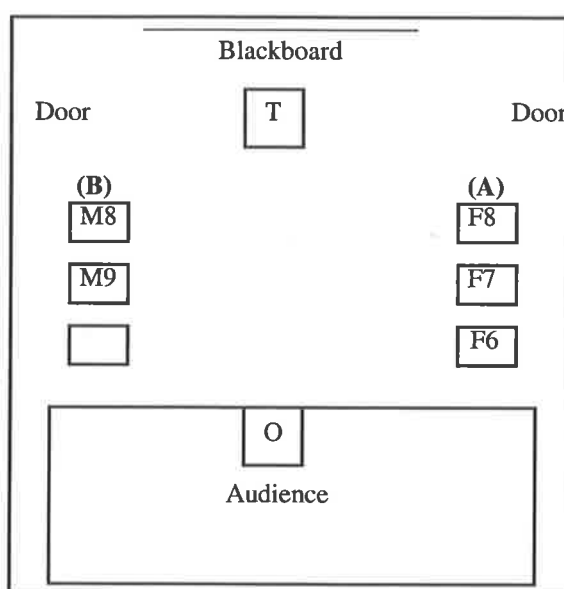
To summarise, the teacher's dominance was apparent mainly in the following acts:

- Choosing the aims, language and/or skills focus, and the kind of activity.
- Creating the groups.
- Deciding which questions or problems were explored.
- Spelling out new words.
- Giving explanations.

10.3.1.4. Day 3 (Tuesday, 11 November 1997, 8.00am-10.20am)

I was able to film this class from the very beginning. The topic of discussion was *Library*, and as usual two groups of students came forward to discuss the topic.

Figure 10.9. Seating arrangement of Speaking III class at STKIP– Day 3.



The teacher told the class that, based on the timetable that they had agreed on, the lesson would be in two parts. The first part would be a panellist discussion as usual and the second would be an exercise about the discussion topic. The teacher also reminded the class about their agreement that everyone should take part in the discussion.

As usual, the teacher started by asking the two groups to come forward and arranged their chairs in the usual formation. Before the presenters were given the opportunity to begin the discussion, the teacher talked a little bit about what a library means to the students.

The exchanges started right after M8, Group B's spokesman, ended his presentation. That was when the teacher nodded to Group A, signalling them to respond to the presentation, which they did. However, unlike the exchanges during the previous two lessons, in the beginning of this class discussion, it was M8, not the teacher, who distributed the specific solicits to members of Group A, and the teacher, who later summarised some of the points the two groups had made, did not seem to bother. This can be seen in the following extract, which begins with the teacher's specific solicit to Group A, right after Group B's presentation.

Extract 60

- | | | |
|----|----|---|
| 37 | T | Yes (<i>nods and turns to Group A</i>). |
| 38 | F7 | If we want to use the library at STKIP Gorontalo (...) I- we have to know to use the card |
| 39 | | catalogue. In the card catalogue, we can read err the card number of book, title of book, |
| 40 | | author of book and (xx) (.....). |
| 41 | M8 | Okay (<i>turns to F8</i>), maybe the other, please? |
| 42 | F8 | Thanks, the library, if the students know how to use the catalogue itself, (xx) and how to |
| 43 | | find the book (.....) and other materials. |
| 44 | M8 | Yeah, the other? |
| 45 | M7 | (xx) if we visit the library we have card, after that if we want to enter the library, in the |
| 46 | | library we must keep silent (.....). |
| 47 | M8 | Okay, thank you. |

The teacher gave M8 the last chance to comment on Group A's points of view and his own summary of their statements. After this he dominated the classroom discourse, particularly when he noticed that some of the students were not paying serious attention to what the two groups were talking about. Looking somewhat annoyed, he spent the next few minutes giving some reminders to the students, as shown in the following extract.

Extract 61

- 92 T Yeah, pay attention here. I would like to tell you, whenever you are going to discuss you
 93 must open your insight. You know insight?
 94 SS Yeah.
 95 T Yeah. How can you make your insight large? Don't make your insight narrow. So I give
 96 an analogy, when come into the room, don't just sit in chair, right? But you can see the
 97 windows, er the sken* (*scene?*) of this room, whether it's (x), the lamp in place, correct,
 98 right? Do you understand me? Like when you are going to solve problems, don't just
 99 [count] one skill, yeah. So whenever [you just count one] it means that whenever (xxx),
 100 only once. We don't want any more comment er (x), because it's quite narrow thinking
 101 (.....). For example, when you think library, you are going to start from where to think
 102 about library, whether from the management, the function, the material, and the function.
 103 All right? It seems that talking library today is not quite interesting, right? It seems to this
 104 class. Why I said that? Because many participants don't- not pay attention seriously
 105 talking about library. So I assume that perhaps, yeah, many of the students here don't like
 106 enter the library. That is my conclusion.
 107
 108 SS Yeah//No, no//No, Sir.
 109 T Why I said that? Because you don't pay attention this problem. Yeah, that is my
 110 assumption. Whether it is right or not, should be made research. Yeah, form overview- my
 111 overview, it seems that reading is not your hobby (.....). Is that right?
 112 SS Yeah//No.

With the two groups still sitting in front of the class, the teacher told all the students that for the second part of the discussion he had three questions about the library that they had to be able to answer when he asked them to. I have paraphrased the questions as follows:

1. Have you (the students) been satisfied with the STKIP Library service? State your argument.
2. Do you like the library's organisation and management? State you attitude.
3. If you have not been satisfied, what can you do to help improve the library service?

He did not tell the students to jot down the questions when he read them out, but at the end, these turned out to be a 'test of alertness' for the students. This was apparent when he requested one of the students to come to the front and read the three questions he had just dictated. The student was later reprimanded for beating around the bush and failing to mention the questions. A second student attempted the 'floor-seeking interruption' to offer his answers, but could only mention two of the questions. So he was also reprimanded, as the following extract illustrates.

Extract 62

- 164 T Why? You forget it. You don't follow this discussion. Okay? There's your weaknesses,
 165 yes. Why? Because you don't follow the sequence. Okay. So, you lost steps and steps in
 166 the one class, right? I'll start from you (*turns to F4*).

At some point during the subsequent exchanges, the teacher added one more question for the students to answer (i.e. “How often do you go to the library?”), and this became another topic of discussion later on. One of the students (F4), as in line 166 above, was invited to the front of the class and asked to answer the questions. The teacher asked the questions, edited her responses and finally summarised the exchanges with his own conclusions. These same processes were also applied to another student (MS3) who volunteered to answer the four questions.

The other student (M3), who was given a specific solicitation right after the teacher summarised MS3’s statements, offered his own suggestion as regards the campus library unsatisfactory services. What is interesting in his statements was that when referring to the teacher, he used the deferent ‘my/our lecturer’ rather than the standard ‘you’. This is shown in lines 215-216 and 218 in the following extract.

Extract 63

209	M3	Let me give a suggestion. We know in our campus, this college, er (xx) make many
210		seminar in our college, but um like we- our problem now- about librarian, it’s never held
211		in our college. It’s better than um calling my lecturer give a suggestion maybe to tell to
212		our Chairman to hold a seminar of our discussion now. And in the seminar will follow by
213		the students, maybe the librarians, and the staff of STKIP. And our problem maybe can-
214		what, tell or told to the librarian or chairman of STKIP about their serving or management
215		of our library. And how to make a suggestion this maybe by our lecturer or by ourselves
216		(smiles). What’s good, ourselves or? (points to T and smiles; SS laugh).
217		I don’t know. It’s better by our lecturer to give the suggestion to the Chairman and
218		Program Study.
219	T	Yeah.

A couple of other students contributed their ideas to the proposed questions up to the end of the lesson. Their arguments were basically critical suggestions for improving the services of the campus library. As usual, the teacher edited their statements, summarised the talk, and concluded the whole discussion.

To conclude, the teacher was apparently more dominant than the students in terms of:

- Choosing the aims, language and/or skills focus and the kind of activity.
- Deciding when to start and stop an activity.
- Choosing the vocabulary to be learned, giving meaning for words and spelling out new words.

- Asking questions.
- Breaking the silences.

10.3.2. Speaking II Class (35 Students)

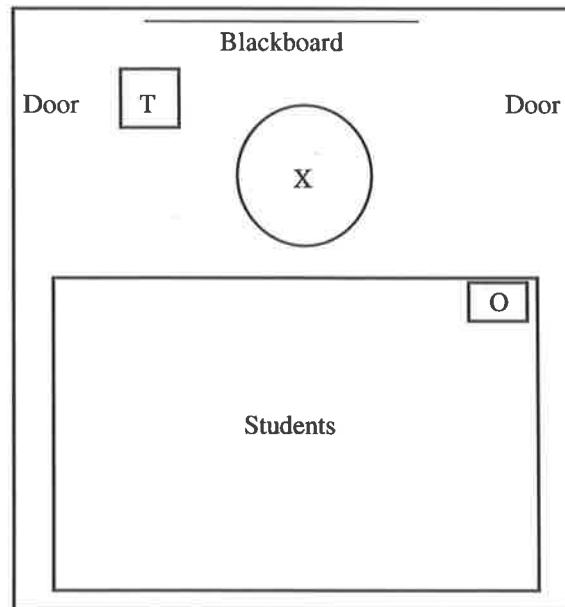
10.3.2.1. Background

It has been mentioned in subsection 6.4.3.2 of Chapter 6 that the teacher of Speaking II class refused to be filmed and even tape-recorded. Therefore I could only use the classroom observation checklist and field notes during the three-day observation activities, the results of which are presented here.

The teacher was a female in her early thirties who had a BA qualification in linguistics from a university outside the North Sulawesi Province. She had been a permanent staff member of STKIP for nearly five years and was expecting to do a Masters degree outside the province. Her students were in their third semester or second year at STKIP. Out of the 35 students on the class list (as the teacher told me), 24 turned out on Day 1 of observation, 20 on Day 2 and 17 on Day 3.

The material was a photocopied exercise book on English idioms, each chapter of which has 6 idioms. The weekly meeting was designed to follow the order of the chapters, and the students were expected to memorise the idioms, their meaning and the two-line dialogues that came with them, as well as doing the accompanying exercises for additional homework. Besides, there was a main activity during each lesson which required each student or pair of students to come forward to practise using the idioms they had memorised in different ways. Even though the three lessons started right on time (10.30am), they were dismissed by the teacher at different times, i.e. when all the student pairs had had their turn, not necessarily at the scheduled time (12.00pm midday). This means that it could run for only about 60 minutes, perhaps even less, rather than the officially-scheduled 90 minutes. The seating arrangement over the three days of observation remained the same, as illustrated in Figure 10.9 below. The circle (X) was where the students came forward to and performed the classroom task in pairs.

Figure 10.10. Seating arrangement of Speaking II class at STKIP over the 3 days of observation.



10.3.2.2. Day 1 (Tuesday, 21 October 1997, 10.30am-11.45am)

There was minimum instructional activity during this lesson. Apart from opening the lesson by reminding the students about the classroom activity — which, according to her, had been communicated to the students a week before — in both English and Indonesian, the teacher merely performed the role of an examiner. She sat in front of the class and allowed pairs of students to volunteer their turn. Once a pair was finished, she wrote their mark in her notebook and later invited whichever pair to come forward, mostly by saying “Okay, next, please”. At some points, she broke the students’ silence when they seemed somewhat reluctant to come forward. Indeed, during this activity, the student pairs — which were formed by the students themselves — were quite free to decide when to come forward.

The rest of the class tended to pay no attention at all to the performing pairs. Most of them used the opportunity to rehearse their dialogues with their partners, and, as a result, the class became a little bit noisy with the students whispering to each other. Thus, the performing pairs looked like they were performing for the teacher only rather than for the

whole class. The students did not even pay attention when the teacher was correcting and explaining the mistakes made by the performing pairs.

In terms of power relationships, it was apparent that the teacher dominated these acts:

- Choosing the aims
- Choosing the language and/or skills focus
- Choosing the topic(s) and activities
(These first three aspects were quite apparently decided by the teacher because what happened during the lesson was all her idea.)
- Choosing and preparing the materials (the English idioms original material was hers)
- Deciding when to start and to stop an activity (especially when dismissing the class after all the pairs had come forward prior to the official end of the lesson)
- Deciding which questions or problems in the lesson were explored (especially when the performing pairs made mistakes during their dialogues)
- Breaking the silences (when asking reluctant students to come forward)
- Checking the work (the dialogue practice was a checking of the students' work in itself).
- Choosing the homework (when reminding the students to do the idiom exercises in the material).

Other than the above, most of the acts or decisions were handled by the students themselves or the students together with the teacher herself.

10.3.2.3. Day 2 (Wednesday, 29 October 1997, 10.30am-12.00md)

The lesson on Day 2 was a bit different from the previous one. The teacher began the lesson by explaining the meaning of the 6 idioms for the day's discussion. Part of the material was a short conversation between two people in which the six idioms were used. The teacher read the conversation aloud, with some emphasis on the idioms, and the students imitated the teacher in unison. She asked the students to spend some time during the lesson to study the conversation silently and try to use their own words to retell the conversation before the class.

The students would have to perform individually for this classroom task. However, for approximately ten minutes, they rehearsed their own versions of the conversation with anyone sitting next to them ('anyone' because they were not restricted to sitting anywhere in the classroom). After this, the teacher asked them to stop working and started to call for volunteers to come and do the task before the class. Nonetheless, the students' rehearsal kept on going even during the other students' performance in front of the class. Again, the teacher acted as an examiner by allowing the students to come forward and take their turn. During each student's turn, the teacher wrote the student's mark in her notebook. When a student had finished, she invited other students to take their turn voluntarily as well. As usual, the lesson ended when the last students had finished their turns. Before being dismissed, the students were told to do the exercises for homework.

Overall, the teacher assumed major responsibility in:

- Choosing the aims, the language and/or skills focus, topics and activities, as well as choosing and preparing the materials.
- Deciding which questions or problems in the lesson were explored, especially when she explained the meaning of the six idioms. At the same time she was also choosing the vocabulary to be learned and asking questions to the students (none of whom asked any question about anything during the lesson).
- Making sure the lesson was lively, i.e. by breaking the students' silences at some points of the lesson.
- Marking the students' work or performance of retelling the conversation in their own words.
- Deciding what the students should do for homework.

10.3.2.4. Day 3 (Wednesday, 12 November 1997, 10.30am-11.30am)

The teacher informed me prior to the lesson that during the lesson the previous week — which I did not observe — the students were told that she wanted them to do something different for today's lesson. She wanted to ask each of them a number of questions based on the idioms they had learnt as well as the relevant sections of the accompanying exercises they had worked on during the previous weeks. That means the students were expected to have prepared themselves for today's lesson. Thus, when opening the lesson,

she spent the first few minutes reminding the students of what she told them the previous week and explaining the objectives of the activity.

As usual, the students sat wherever they liked in the classroom and the teacher invited whoever wanted to come forward first. I noticed that, from the first day of my observation activities, the one who volunteered first was always the same person: a cheerful male student who was also the chairperson of the class.

The teacher asked each of the students a set of questions. The correct answers should have the appropriate idioms in them. When a student gave a wrong answer, the teacher would help with giving some hints so that he or she could give the correct answer. Every time one student had answered all the questions, the teacher wrote down his/her mark in her notebook and an opportunity was given to all the other students to come forward. This activity ended after all the students had had their turn. As there were only 17 students present, it took the teacher less than an hour to let all the students have their turn before the class ended.

In sum, the teacher was apparently responsible for the entire lesson in terms of:

- Choosing the aims, language and/or skills focus, topics and activities, as well as choosing and preparing the materials.
- Being the only person each of the students was talking to during the main classroom activity. (At the same time she was the only person who was talking or asking questions to the students.)
- Deciding when to start and stop the activity.
- Deciding which questions or problems in the lesson were explored, i.e. when responding to the students' mistakes during the main activity.
- Giving explanation, i.e. when explaining what kind of mistakes a student had made.
- Breaking the silences, i.e. when encouraging reluctant students to come forward for their turns.
- Checking the students' work, i.e. when asking the questions to the students.
- Choosing the homework, i.e. when deciding which part of the material was for the students to do at home.

10.4. Summary

This chapter contains the classroom observation data of TSPR practices gathered from two CALUSA classes (EBTC and UEC) and one STKIP class where video-taping was permitted (Speaking III) as well as from another STKIP class where recording was not allowed by the teacher (Speaking II). The data have been analysed in a narrative way using the relevant components of classroom discourse analyses, i.e. by van Lier (1988), Stubbs (1976: 160-161) and Wajnryb (1992: 120), as well as my own interpretation in order to describe the TSPR features of the classroom interactions observed. The results obtained, together with those from the other data collection instruments, are discussed in the next chapter.

Part Five

**Discussion, Conclusions
and Recommendations**

Chapter 11

Discussion of Results

11.0. Introduction

This study set out to investigate aspects of TSPR in the two study centres in order to provide answers to the following research questions:

- How are the contextual aspects related to TSPR perceived by the teachers in both contexts?
- To what extent do the teachers and students share their perceptions regarding the principal acts of power sharing in language classroom-related interactions?
- How do the students' learning style preferences show their perceptions of power relations?
- How have TSPR been practised or experienced in classroom interactions in both contexts?

These questions will be addressed respectively in the next sections with reference to the data results presented and analysed in the previous chapters. The contextual factors of TSPR are given first to serve as a comprehensive overview of the discussion

11.1. The Contextual Factors of TSPR

11.1.1. Personal and Sociocultural Factors

11.1.1.1. A Background Comparison

First of all, it is noteworthy that the respondents' profile obtained through Questionnaire A indicated some differences between the two groups of teachers and students. In comparing CALUSA teachers and their STKIP counterparts, it is obvious that the former were predominantly female, of an older age group and had higher academic qualifications. They were also more experienced, in that they had spent a longer period of time in their profession, and some had taught English or other subjects overseas. In addition, they had fewer classes to teach per week and, in general, responded to the open questions in more detail than their STKIP counterparts.

As for the two groups of students, despite the fact that the majority of CALUSA students were of non-Western cultural backgrounds just like their STKIP counterparts, a number of differences were noticeable in their profile. Thus, a strong majority of CALUSA students proved to be older than STKIP students, while compared to CALUSA students, a strong majority of STKIP students were female. While they had learned English in formal education at home for about the same length of time as STKIP students, CALUSA students were very fortunate to be able to come to study English in Australia as private students (for periods of up to 7.5 months). A small number of them had even studied English in major English-speaking countries other than Australia (i.e. Britain, Canada, New Zealand, and the United States), which enabled them to enjoy a much richer learning experience in a completely different educational setting and be exposed to the real-life, sociolinguistic context of the target language use. In contrast, none of the STKIP students had been overseas even though a solid majority of them had had the experience of being taught by native-speakers of English from periods of 3 months to 2 years. In addition, while CALUSA students could choose the course(s) that they were interested in or that might meet their learning needs, STKIP students did not have this privilege as they were institutionally required to do all the subjects offered.

11.1.1.2. Some Sociocultural Stereotypes

In sociocultural terms, the most interesting aspect of the students was especially expressed by CALUSA teachers during the interviews. In response to my questions regarding this matter, they mentioned some stereotypes about their mostly Asian students. The teachers considered that, in comparison with those from Western countries, most students from *some* Asian countries:

- Are not used to the change of learning and teaching styles towards SCL and were more involved in class activities;
- Are hesitant 'to sing out' and challenge the teacher;
- Are harder to negotiate with, not very critical and articulate about their needs;
- They lack the motivation to work individually.

The stereotypes mentioned were concerned with the students' different learning attitudes that were seen to be incompatible with the school's emphasis on interactive, student-centred and communicative language learning activities. These might also be related to

their inability or reluctance to speak up when they were expected to during the interactive or dialogic phases of the classroom processes. This might be an indicator of their inability or, perhaps, unwillingness to take on more interactive and communicative roles. Thus, the power sharing process, in which interaction and communication are necessary, might be harder to develop in such circumstances.

In this regard, there was a strong indication, especially expressed by a senior teacher at CALUSA, that these problems were caused more by sociocultural factors than by linguistic incompetence of the students. In other words, due to their sociocultural background, the students might prefer to keep silent during classroom interactions when they were expected to speak up, even though they were linguistically capable of doing so (i.e. they understood what was being talked about and knew how and what to say, but they chose not to say much). In this case, such factors as the students' excessive politeness, shyness, fear of making mistakes, high respect for teachers, and tendency to avoid threatening the 'face' of teachers and to undermine their authority (Cotterall 1999), which are said to be the stereotypical characteristics of Asian ESL/EFL students, might be the primary cause. Being a student of Asian background studying in Australia myself, I can fully relate the above mentioned stereotypes to my own classroom or learning behaviour and acknowledge that, to a large extent, they hold true. Nevertheless, what actually happened might be just an example of the existence of different sets of expectations between teachers (or an institution) committed to SCL or SA and students from different sociocultural and educational backgrounds (Cotterall 1999).

STKIP teachers' description of their students revealed that the stereotypes mentioned by CALUSA teachers were also apparent in their students. (Refer to Chapter 7 for the interview data results.) However, the stereotypes were concerned largely with the students' negative attitudes to learning that were effecting the interpersonal relationships between the teachers and students inside and outside of the classrooms.

What I had left unexplored during the investigation was the students' personal views of their own learning styles and attitudes as well as what they perceived as their teachers' teaching styles and 'sociocultural traits'. Had these been investigated through interviews, some of the stereotypes mentioned by the teachers could have been validated and/or analysed further in comparative terms. As Cotterall (1999) has indicated, the cultural

predisposition and beliefs of the individual teachers and students, and the context in which the learning take place have to be taken into account in the attempts to foster student autonomy. This study, however, has focused primarily on the recognition of some of these aspects as influential factors in L2 pedagogy in general and ELT in particular.

11.1.2. Political, Managerial and Economic Factors

Each educational institution has a curriculum to teach. The curriculum can be the product of a governmental authority in charge of curriculum design, the institution itself, the classroom teacher alone or in cooperation with other teachers or the institution, as well as the teachers and students.

In this regard, the question about who designs a school's curriculum and how it is designed has a political, managerial and economic connotation. As far as TSPR are concerned, it may imply a distinction between a school that is politically independent as well as economically viable to set its own direction and one that is not. This might be reflected in the teachers' and students' perceptions of TSPR and could practically affect what eventuates in the classroom. In other words, to what extent TSPR exist in either context may also depend on whether the school has the freedom to set its own curriculum in the first place.

The data show that, even though CALUSA used to be a semi-private language school (i.e. when the field study was carried out, and it was eventually privatised in mid 1998), it designs and teaches its own curriculum. CALUSA, in other words, had considerable freedom to design a curriculum that suits both the backgrounds and learning objectives of its students and to teach subjects in which the students' individual needs, potential and expectations are taken into account. As the teachers communicated to me during the interviews, this was carried out, among other things by:

- Consulting the students at the beginning of each term regarding the guidelines that had already been set by the institution. (I was unable, however, to observe how this procedure was actually done, and so it is difficult to validate this information.)
- Involving the students in day-to-day classroom decision making. (During the classroom observations I was able indeed to see how this was practised in the classes.)

In addition, the students were seen and treated as valued customers of the school. In the words of one of the teachers, the students are the school's "employers and asset". When it came to certain type of students (e.g. recipients of foreign-aid scholarships), though, this policy was subject to substantial adaptation to or compromise with the funding institution's political or curricular guidelines. Nonetheless, in order to address the students' more immediate and personal needs, daily negotiations were still possible. I experienced such negotiations myself during my few weeks at CALUSA prior to enrolment at my postgraduate course in the University of Adelaide.

In contrast, STKIP was state-owned and taught a national curriculum set out by a curriculum authority within the Education Ministry of the central government. (This was also the case in the original country of one non-White-Australian CALUSA teacher interviewed.) Allowing the students to have a say about, let alone alter, the core content of this top-down curriculum was certainly impossible here. However, as the teachers told me during the interviews, the students were, to some extent, involved in making the classroom decisions for themselves on a daily basis only. The classroom observation data show that, to a some extent, this was the case, at least as far as the two classes observed were concerned.

When it comes to the managerial and economic issues, the most salient factor expressed by most of the teachers interviewed was concerned with how time consuming and expensive the SCL and CLT approaches would be if they were to be applied optimally, especially when the institution as a whole was economically incapable of providing full support. For example, in terms of catering for the students' individual needs throughout the course term, the two approaches require some institutional support with the right teaching-learning and curricular resources to help the lessons keep up with the changing and immediate learning needs of the students. While this has proven to be possible at CALUSA, as shown partly by the existence of a self-access learning resources centre for the students and staff, such a support has not existed at STKIP and will take a long time to be established (especially in view of Indonesia's current political, economic as well as social instability and its accompanying unpredictability). The interview data in Chapter 7 indicate how some of the STKIP teachers interviewed had to cope with such things as lack of recent publications in TEFL at the STKIP library, the students' varying degrees of language proficiency, large class sizes of at least 40 students and lack of technical

facilities to support SCL as well as CLT activities. In such a situation, less power sharing and minimum application of any interactive method can be expected.

To sum up, the contextual factors affecting TSPR practices and how these were looked at in both contexts include a number of personal, sociocultural, political and economic aspects surrounding the teachers and students as well as the contexts in which they were in. Considerations about these contextual, especially political and economic, factors were lacking in the literature reviewed in Chapters 2 and 3. The following subsections will shed some light on how the above aspects worked in both ESL and EFL contexts in terms of how they were *represented* in more details by the respondents' answers to the questions about TSPR principles.

11.2. Perceptions of and Experiences with Principles of TSPR

This issue was explored during the interviews and also by using Questionnaire A. The basic understanding was that the principles of TSPR are embodied in the SCL approach (which also embodies aspects of SA and CLT — as they have been described in the two literature review chapters), and that how the approach was perceived by the teachers might give a clue of how the principles of TSPR in general were understood. The most salient issues emphasised are described in the subsections below.

11.2.1. The Teachers' General Perspective

The principles of TSPR imply the importance of a shared classroom decision making between the teachers and students. The teachers' general perspective about this issue was firstly investigated by asking them who they thought is (or should be) the classroom decision maker — the teacher(s) or students. The fact that most of the teachers interviewed regarded themselves as “the ultimate classroom decision makers” means that the teachers were quite aware of the central role they could or were expected to play in the many facets of classroom interaction. In other words, opportunities can be given to students to make decisions but, normally, it is the teachers who usually make the final decisions.

11.2.2. On SCL

SCL is a central notion in the TSPR discourse, and therefore the teachers' perception of SCL might give a clear picture of its desirability and practicability in both contexts of learning.

The results show that there was quite a good understanding among the teachers about the SCL approach, along with its advantages and disadvantages. In general, the definitions they gave imply what Macaro (1997: 176) calls "some moving away from teacher centredness towards learner centredness". It is worth noting that, perhaps due to their ability to have access to the latest information on current L2 pedagogical trends, some CALUSA teachers were able to put forward a more critical stance towards the approach, e.g. by saying that it is a bit idealistic. Their economic capability (e.g. higher annual salaries) which certainly far exceeds that of their STKIP counterparts, I assume, can be partly held responsible for this sort of attitude. In the case of STKIP, although the five teachers claimed to be relatively familiar with SCL, those who had done postgraduate studies seemed to have a better understanding of what it really is about. They were quite able to elucidate their own definitions of SCL with some explanation of the student-centred practices that they thought they should be doing or had put into practice in their classes, which the other teachers had failed to demonstrate.

11.2.3. Student Involvement Issues

Another central issue in TSPR is student involvement in the learning process — it implies how much power (e.g. decision making responsibility) is afforded the students along the process. As implied in the previous sections, all the teachers interviewed shared a recognition of the importance of involving the students in classroom decision-making (i.e. on a day-to-day, managerial basis), even though in most cases it was the teachers who made most of the final decisions. In principle, they acknowledged the importance of involving the students as a way of catering for their individual differences and language learning needs. In other words, a full appreciation of the unique perceptions, purposes and concerns of each student (Withall in Marjoribanks 1991: 91) had been expressed by the teachers.

Nonetheless, it appears to me that CALUSA teachers' points of view reflected their informed professional knowledge of the issue, which might have been informed partly by the institution's formal policy on SCL and their access to the latest studies or publications or seminars on the subject. This was in contrast with most STKIP teachers' opinions, which, I assume, were shaped only by a shared ideal notion of the need to create an 'equal proportion' of teachers' and students' classroom responsibilities. However, as mentioned earlier, all the teachers emphasised the importance of confining the students' involvement in this matter on a day to day basis. This means that, generally, the students might have their say only within the parameters that were already set either by the classroom teachers themselves, by the teachers in consultation with other teachers, or by the institution itself. In other words, even though their say was formally recognised and accommodated in the initial stages of the course, the students were not directly or physically involved in the curriculum setting, which, of course, remained part of the institution's responsibility.

11.2.4. Student Control over (Language) Learning Process

TSPR are also concerned with the question of student control over the (language) learning process (SCOLP — see also the introduction to Chapter 1, p.1). In this regard, most teachers argued that allowing students to have more control of classroom activities does not pose any 'threat' whatsoever to their roles as teachers. However, CALUSA teachers emphasised that to put this into practice might be hard at first for both teachers and students — especially those who have never experienced it — but over time it is very rewarding for both. This view implies an optimism towards the relevance of SCOLP in the long run, and at the same time reflects an awareness of how SCOLP was still found to be such a challenge to some of the teachers and students. At STKIP, the teachers were happy about this so long as the students do not abuse it and create problems that could disrupt the whole classroom processes. This is indicative of the perception that SCOLP may result in possible excessive 'freedom' that leads to some disruptive behaviour on the part of the students, which is perceived as unacceptable. This concern was also expressed by one CALUSA teachers who said that what should be catered for was the "needs-based" rather than "wants-based" aspiration of the students.

11.2.5. The Conducive Classroom Circumstances: What Are They?

Learning takes place in a conducive classroom circumstance. The results of Questionnaire A show the teachers' beliefs of what they regarded as the classroom circumstances that were considered to be the most conducive to language learning. A key-word analysis (Nunan 1992: 146) conducted in grouping the teachers' statements strongly points to the following factors:

- *Interaction* (i.e. with special emphases on interpersonal relationships, students' opportunity to use English effectively and classroom interaction).
- *The students* (i.e. their access to the materials prior to the lesson as well as their needs, interests and involvement).
- *The teacher* (i.e. their commitment to the classroom processes).
- *Classroom environment* (i.e. a comfortable classroom atmosphere).
- *Materials* (i.e. authenticity of the materials).

The above views reflect some of the core aspects of TSPR believed to be of importance to language teaching-learning process that have been discussed in Chapters 2 and 3.

11.2.6. TSPR in Three Phases of Classroom-Related Activities

Both the teachers' and students' perception of and experiences with the TSPR issues in classroom-related activities were explored using the questionnaire items. These were divided in terms of the three phases of classroom activities (BCA, DCA, ACA). A key-word analysis conducted on the questionnaire items resulted in the following classification, which is given in order of frequency. For example, "student involvement" appears in all the three phases, and "student assessment of the teacher's performance" appears in the ACA phase only.

Classification of items	BCA	DCA	ACA
• Student involvement	✓	✓	✓
• Student self-assessment or evaluation	✓	✓	✓
• Personal choices or preferences	✓	✓	-
• Teacher-dominance issues	-	✓	✓
• Teacher-student negotiation	✓	-	✓
• Student needs and interests	✓	-	-
• Classroom interaction	✓	-	-
• Opportunity to use English effectively	-	✓	-
• Acceptance and/or rejection	-	✓	-
• Interpersonal relationship	-	✓	-
• Self-correction assistance	-	✓	-

- Student control over the pace of learning - ✓ -
- Post-lesson assistance - - ✓
- Student assessment of the teacher's performance - - ✓

The above 'checklist' show that the topics of the questionnaire items cover a wide range of TSPR issues discussed in the literature review chapters. (The responses to some of their general principles have been addressed in previous sections of this chapter.) The following two tables summarise the results of the data obtained.

Table 11.1. Percentage of teacher-respondents' overall responses on average.

School (Number)	Phases	% Opinion				% Experience			
		VSA	SA	WA	NE	VHE	HE	LE	NE
CALUSA (10)	<i>BCA</i>	59.21	17.11	22.37	1.32	45.16	22.58	27.42	4.84
	<i>DCA</i>	41.35	32.69	22.6	3.37	45.45	29.7	21.82	3.03
	<i>ACA</i>	48.24	29.41	22.35	0	50.7	30.99	18.31	0
	<i>Average</i>	49.60	26.4	22.44	1.56	47.1	27.76	22.52	2.62
STKIP (10)	<i>BCA</i>	17.72	30.38	32.91	18.99	3.85	35.9	26.92	33.33
	<i>DCA</i>	28.02	43.48	22.22	6.28	21.94	46.94	23.98	7.14
	<i>ACA</i>	16.67	40	32.22	11.11	16.25	43.75	25	15
	<i>Average</i>	20.8	37.95	29.12	12.13	14.01	42.2	25.3	18.49

Table 11.2. Percentage of student-respondents' overall responses on average.

School (Number)	Phases	% Opinion				% Experience			
		VSA	SA	WA	NE	VHE	HE	LE	NE
CALUSA (41)	<i>BCA</i>	29.19	25.78	37.58	7.45	17.67	26.18	36.91	19.24
	<i>DCA</i>	29.41	31.18	32.12	7.29	20.88	27.16	39.38	12.57
	<i>ACA</i>	19.94	24.93	45.15	9.97	10.67	17.7	37.92	33.71
	<i>Average</i>	26.18	27.3	38.28	8.24	16.41	23.68	38.07	21.84
STKIP (38)	<i>BCA</i>	41.22	25.68	20.27	12.84	8.42	25.59	31.31	34.68
	<i>DCA</i>	45.36	31.26	17.41	5.97	18.32	32.82	34.99	13.87
	<i>ACA</i>	37.87	32.25	22.49	7.4	10.39	23.74	40.65	25.22
	<i>Average</i>	41.48	29.73	20.05	8.74	12.38	27.38	35.65	24.59

The above tables contain the average percentage of responses to all of the questionnaire items both in each particular phase (DCA, BCA, ACA) and in general. The shaded figures denote the highest average percentage. The results are discussed below in terms of approval, exposure/experience and overall findings.

11.2.6.1. Approval

A combination of the overall results of the highest rates of approval and exposure (i.e. 'Always' and 'Often') and of the lowest rates ('Sometimes' and 'Never') shows that, in general, the TSPR issues/practices contained in the questionnaire received a warm welcome from all the respondents — the highest percentage sits on both 'very high' and 'high' approval rates (i.e. the 'Always' and 'Often' options). This result is consonant with that obtained from the interviews in that it reflects the acceptability of the TSPR issues in both contexts of ELT. It also implies that in whatever context of learning, the TSPR principles have been looked at in quite a favourable way.

The results indicate the following findings:

- A very significant number of CALUSA teachers indicated *very* strong approval to the majority of the items. This is somewhat in contrast to the majority of 'strong approval' responses shown by their STKIP counterparts, which means that they were willing yet rather cautious to accept, let alone initiate, change. The fact that the condition in which STKIP teachers operated was quite different from that of their CALUSA counterparts might be held responsible for this difference. (See background comparison section 11.1.1.1.) In other words, STKIP teachers were quite aware of their own, their students' and their institution's limitations when it came to the question of applying some the proposed TSPR principles at STKIP, despite their general approval of them. For example, in response to the question of addressing each student's individual needs (QIN3 – BCA), one of the teachers showed an approval of it and yet claimed it to be impractical at STKIP given the large number of the students.
- Most STKIP students, on the other hand, shared the progressive views shown not by their own teachers, but by CALUSA teachers. Additionally, their very strong approval rates, as the statistical evidence of the majority of questionnaire items shows, contrast markedly with those shown by their CALUSA counterparts. These results give an impression that, compared with their STKIP counterparts, CALUSA students were rather 'conservative' towards the TSPR principles proposed. One of the most interesting examples of this is the students' responses to QIN3 (BCA) that asks "Students should be able to let the teacher know what their needs are". Only 19.51% of CALUSA students showed very strong approval to this classroom act and a

majority of 51.43% of STKIP students showed the same degree of approval. (See Chapter 8 for more examples.)

The whole idea of power sharing contained in the questionnaire items might be quite fascinating to the STKIP students. They really wanted something different to be happening in their L2 classrooms. Doesn't it make a real difference to be able to have a say about what teaching method they wanted the teacher to use? To become a good friend of or be close to the teacher? To evaluate the teacher's teaching performance? To negotiate the due date for handing in homework? etc. These are the things they might have never experienced in their learning career.

On the other hand, CALUSA students — many of whom had been to countries other than Australia to learn English — might have had experienced all these fascinating ideas previously and therefore preferred to have less and less involvement in these matters. Besides, as Cotterall (1999) has suggested, they might also have a different set of expectations from the learning process they were involved in. They had a desire to focus on the target language rather than on the acquisition of learning-to-learn tactics or discussion of the communication process, which might be considered as less relevant to their learning goal. In addition, most CALUSA students were brought up in 'large power distance' societies (e.g. Japan, Korea, Taiwan) which accord high respect for teachers. These students, in Cotterall's view, might find it difficult to engage in activities (a) which are premised on a relationship of social equality between teacher and students, (b) where they can make decisions about their learning, which could seem, to some students, to encroach on the teacher's field of expertise, and (c) where classroom discussions aimed at eliciting their views could appear to threaten the 'face' of the teacher or undermine his/her authority.

STKIP students too were brought up in a 'collectivist' and 'large power distance' society, and so the above explanation can be used to describe them to a large extent. However, it seems that it is their focus of learning that matters here. They were interested in the target language, and yet what happens in the course of the learning process is also important to them, perhaps due to the fact that they were trained to be teachers of English.

11.2.6.2. Exposure/Experience

In terms of exposure or experience with the classroom practices, most of the teachers — CALUSA teachers, in particular — indicated that the practices had been established, at least encouraged, quite frequently. In fact, there was a very close correlation between the teachers' opinions and experience both at CALUSA and STKIP. Despite this however, most of the students, especially STKIP students, thought that that was not the case — most of STKIP students showed the lowest rates of exposure. Apparently, teachers tend to think they have done something, but their students feel that they have not done much or, perhaps, anything at all.

11.2.6.3. Overall Results

A closer look at the overall results indicates the following:

- There was a bigger gap between the highest responses shown by CALUSA teachers and students than those shown by their STKIP counterparts. In other words, in terms of both the highest approval and exposure/experience rates, there was no precise 'agreement' between the teachers' and students' overall responses to the items, and in this case, the biggest 'disagreement' occurred between CALUSA teachers and students. This means that, at CALUSA, on the one hand, most teachers demonstrated a very strong approval, but most students indicated weak approval; similarly, while their teachers claimed very high exposure/experience, the students indicated low exposure/experience. At STKIP, on the other hand, while most teachers showed 'only' strong approval, most students showed very strong approval. In addition, while the teachers indicated a high exposure/experience rate, the students chose to indicate a low exposure/experience rate.
- Compared with the teachers' highest responses concerning opinion and experience, which are quite consistent, the students' responses, particularly those shown by STKIP students, are at variance. In other words, the students' were strongly in favour of the practices suggested but, at least in their opinion, they had not had much experience of them.

11.2.7. The Respondents' Input

The respondents' input to the open-ended question in each of the three phases of classroom acts in the questionnaire were obtained in the form of the teachers' and

students' statements. These were considered as supplementary Questionnaire A data. Nonetheless, the data might be able to shed some light on the other ones discussed in this chapter. The results appear in a classification of the statements (see Table 11.3. below), which were obtained through a key-word analysis of the statements.

Table 11.3. Number of respondents' statements for three phases (BCA, DCA, ACA) in general.

No.	Category of input	BCA		DCA		ACA		Total	
		R	S	R	S	R	S	R	S
1	Classroom interaction	14	17	12	12	11	11	37	40
2	Personal choices/preferences	6	8	3	5	1	2	10	15
3	Interpersonal relationships	4	4	6	7	1	3	11	14
4	Pre-lesson access to materials	4	4	-	-	1	2	5	6
5	Opportunity to use Eng. effectively	2	2	1	1	1	1	4	4
6	Review of lesson	2	2	-	-	3	2	5	4
7	Assessment	1	1	-	-	3	3	4	4
8	Peer support	-	-	2	2	1	1	3	3
9	Small-group-related c'room activities	-	-	-	-	2	3	2	3
10	Acceptance and rejection of materials	1	2	-	-	-	-	1	2
11	Choice of teachers	2	2	-	-	-	-	2	2
12	Experience and expectations	1	2	-	-	-	-	1	2
13	Opportunity to provide materials	2	2	-	-	-	-	2	2
14	Classroom management	1	1	2	1	-	-	3	2
15	Negotiation	-	-	-	-	1	2	1	2
16	Post-lesson assistance	-	-	-	-	2	2	2	2
17	Classroom 'freedom'	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1
	Total	41	48	26	28	27	32	94	108

On average, each of the 94 respondents contributed approximately 1.15 statements. In total, out of the 17 categories derived from the 108 statements they made, the first 'big three' in the table above (particularly "classroom interaction" and "interpersonal relationships") appear quite consistently in larger numbers than the other ones throughout the three phases (see Tables 8.7., 8.18. and 8.25). As a result, they eventually turn out to have the largest number of statements. Given the openness of the questions asked, this result is indicative of the popularity and relevance of the issues reflected in those categories to the respondents' language teaching and learning situations across the board. Nonetheless, regardless of how many statements are contained in each category, all of them (as can be seen in their original versions in Appendix I), reflect the core issues of TSPR, SA, SCL and CLT discussed in the two literature review chapters.

In conclusion, the respondents' perceptions of and experiences with the TSPR issues and/or practices have indicated the desirability and, to some extent, the practicability of the aspects of TSPR in their respective contexts of ELT. Ideally, the views expressed by the teachers during the interviews and in response to Questionnaire A will show a high

degree of consistency. As regard the students' data, their general views on TSPR may be explained further by their overall learning style preferences.

11.3. The Students' Learning Style Preferences

The majority of CALUSA and STKIP students' responses to Questionnaire B tended to prefer the first three learning style categories, which are *non* 'authority-oriented', to the fourth one, which is. Although the results were not meant to strictly pigeon-hole the students in any way, this finding means that, across the board, they were basically very much in favour of language learning activities that support interactive and communicative activities. These are regarded as most conducive to L2 learning situations (i.e. SA, SCL, CLT and, of course, TSPR) implied by the questionnaire items. The information has been summarised in Tables 11.4 and 11.5 below.

Of the first three categories, the 'communicative' items seemed to be most preferred by the majority of CALUSA students. This result, I assume, implies their immediate communicative needs and academic objectives in learning ESL in Australia, a trend shared by STKIP students to some extent. Nonetheless, a few 'authority-oriented' items received quite strong preference, especially from STKIP's younger students (Semester I and III). It seems that they wanted to use as many learning resources as possible and so were in favour of some kind of 'eclecticism' in the learning process, ranging from the most student-centred to the most teacher-centred learning acts. In general, though, the results are consonant with those obtained through Questionnaire A. Thus, despite some significant differences in terms of their general approval towards the TSPR issues (see Table 11.2), the students were consistently 'united' in their responses to Questionnaire B.

However, with these results comes a validity problem for the data obtained, particularly those from CALUSA students. As outlined in Chapter 6, only 22 students (i.e. those from the two classes observed — EBTC and UEC) out of the 41 CALUSA student-respondents filled out both Questionnaires A and B. In other words, the other 19 CALUSA students only filled out Questionnaire A which means that their views on learning style preferences could not be obtained. All the 38 STKIP students completed both questionnaires. Thus, while STKIP students' responses to the two questionnaires can be fully validated,

CALUSA students' data might not be completely valid for drawing solid conclusions and making sound generalisation.

Table 11.4. Number of Questionnaire B items marked as 'best' and 'good' by >50% of CALUSA's EBTC and UEC classes (n=22).

	Class	% - %	Learning styles				TOTAL
			Conc.	Anal.	Comm.	A-Ortd.	
Best	EBTC (n=11)	54.55 - 72.73	-	2	5	-	7
	UEC (n=11)	54.55 - 81.82	2	-	5	-	7
Good	EBTC (n=11)	54.55 - 81.82	3	2	2	5	12
	UEC (n=11)	54.55 - 72.73	5	2	1	3	11
TOTAL			10	6	13	8	37

Table 11.5. Number of Questionnaire B items marked as 'best' and 'good' by >50% of STKIP's Semesters I, III, V and VII students (n=38).

	Semesters	% - %	Learning styles				TOTAL
			Conc.	Anal.	Comm.	A-Ortd.	
Best	I (n=10)	55.56 - 77.78	2	1	4	3	10
	III (n= 12)	54.55 - 75	-	1	2	2	5
	V (n=7)	57.14 - 71.43	1	-	1	-	2
	VII (n=9)	55.56 - 88.89	2	2	7	2	13
Good	I (n=10)	55.56 - 100	4	4	1	5	14
	III (n=12)	58.33 - 66.67	3	3	1	4	11
	V (n=7)	57.14 - 71.43	1	-	1	-	2
	VII (n=9)	57.14 - 85.71	6	5	7	7	25
TOTAL			19	16	24	23	82

In sum, the students' views on TSPR that are generally in favour of interactive and communicative classroom routines (in which TSPR are central issues) corroborate with quite high preferences towards 'non-authority-oriented' modes in L2 learning activities that they indicated. To what extent these tendencies were demonstrated or *realised* in actual classroom activities will be discussed in the following section.

11.4. TSPR in Classroom Practices: The Realisation

How TSPR were realised in classroom practices was investigated during the classroom observation period in both locations.

The results indicate that the most salient feature of the interactions was the classroom talk of the classroom discourse (i.e. teacher talk, student (learner) talk, teacher-student interactions, talk on tasks, etc.[see also Mican 1997: 144]). As implied in the literature

review chapters, the assumption of the classroom talk distribution determines how much classroom power, control, role or responsibility is individually assumed or shared. Indeed, I am treating the notions of power, control and responsibility as important aspects of classroom life that the teachers and students must share for each other's good.

Compared with other types of classroom talk, especially student talk, teacher talk appeared to be functionally dominant, and this was irrespective of the length of the talk during the interactions observed. In other words, teacher talk tended to serve similar purposes or function throughout the interactions despite the fact that the classroom talk of the two CALUSA teachers was relatively longer than that of their STKIP counterparts.

The teachers' dominance was apparent mostly in what Mickan (1997: 45) calls "teacher-fronted sections of lessons", i.e. the beginning of a lesson (or, in my opinion, part of the lesson, to be more specific) when the content of a lesson was being introduced or practised, when instructions were being given and in reviewing work. (However, in my view, these should also include the middle and final parts of a lesson in which teacher talk directs the classroom discourse.) In the classes I went into, including the Speaking II class at STKIP (where the students were given a lot of freedom to make their own decisions and be responsible for a number of things during the interactions), the students responded — verbally or with action — mostly when the speech turn was made available or when the desired action was requested by the teachers.

What eventuated in the lessons, in my observation, were mostly the teachers' agendas being carried out by, or in cooperation with, the students. More importantly, the teachers' views that they made most of the classroom decisions, as expressed earlier, eventuated in the lessons observed. The students themselves were on the most part capable of doing what was expected of them quite well.

This dominance, however, was not without any 'resistance' from the students. Some of them, particularly in STKIP's Speaking III class, managed to put forward their own agendas at some stage during the discourse, but later gave up because of the teachers insisting on their direction of talk.

In order of frequency, the results include the following functions of the teachers' talk in both locations:

1. Specifying the topic throughout the lessons (Stubbs 1976: 161). This happened when the teachers (a) introduced the lessons, (b) ended one segment within the lesson and introduced another one, and (c) chose the homework for students to do.
2. Setting the time limit as to how long a student or groups of students could work on a certain activity.
3. Giving specific (personal) and general solicits to the students (van Lier 1988) when they wanted to hear from the students.
4. Checking the students' understanding and confirming their own understanding of the students' responses (Stubbs 1976: 160)).
5. Editing, i.e. when they commented on something the students had said, implying a criticism or value judgment of some kind (Stubbs 1976: 161).
6. Summarising something that had been said or read, or summarised the situation reached in a discussion or lesson (Stubbs 1976: 160).
7. Correcting, i.e. when they corrected or altered something a student had said, either explicitly or by repeating the 'correct' version (Stubbs 1976: 161)
8. Defining, which happened when they defined a word and/or expression or reformulated something that had been said or when they asked the students to give a definition or to clarify something (Stubbs 1976:160-161).
9. Attracting attention, particularly when they specified or introduced a topic (Stubbs 1976: 160).
10. Controlling the amount of speech (Stubbs 1976: 160), especially when they asked some of the students who were having their own conversation during an activity to stop talking and pay attention to what was being done or said. This was especially prevalent during STKIP's Speaking III lessons.
11. Reminding and reprimanding. These were apparent *only* during the STKIP's Speaking III lessons where some of the students were reminded and reprimanded for failing to do what the teacher expected them to do.

It is important to note that, judging from the students' active participation in the small-group and the whole-class interactive and communicative activities they were involved in, the teachers' dominance did not entirely deny the learning opportunities that had been

afforded. However, this study did not investigate in more detail how much learning has actually occurred in these situations.

11.5. Summary

In this chapter, I have discussed the results obtained from the research data presented and analysed in the previous chapters. The discussion provides the answers to the four questions of the investigation through a comprehensive and analytical elaboration of the data collected by each of the four research instruments/methods of the study. These have been put forward in the form of a number of major findings as follows:

- The contextual factors of TSPR in ESL and EFL settings (i.e. personal, sociocultural, political and economic factors in both contexts studied);
- The perceptions of and experiences with the principles of TSPR (i.e. the teachers' favourable perspectives in general and especially on SCL, their positive views on issues of student involvement in classroom decision making, student control and what they regarded as the most conducive interactive L2 learning atmosphere, as well as how the principles of TSPR were progressively seen in the three phases of classroom activities). These are presented in terms of the respondents' approval, exposure or experience and input statements.
- The students' learning style preferences (i.e. the students' tended to show more preferences to 'communicative' and 'non-authority-oriented' L2 teaching-learning modes);
- TSPR in classroom practices (i.e. how TSPR were actualised or experienced in the classrooms of both contexts).

The next chapter, which is the last one, will conclude the whole thesis and offer some recommendations based on the findings of this chapter.

Chapter 12**Conclusions and Recommendations****12.0. Introduction**

In the previous chapter I have discussed the results of the data analysis by way of responding to the four research questions which explore the teachers' and students' representation, the realisation of teacher-student power relationships as well as the related factors that affect them.

In this final chapter, I will first summarise the key points that have emerged from the discussion and then offer some recommendations for further studies on teacher-student power relationships.

12.1. Conclusions**12.1.1. General: The Rationale**

When it comes to promoting student-centred learning and communicative language teaching in current English language pedagogy, where student autonomy development is the general pedagogical objective and communicative competence promotion is the specific linguistic goal, how teachers and students interact and what learning opportunities are afforded the students during interaction are central issues.

The questions are associated with the teacher-student power relationships issues, and are concerned with ways in which teachers and students share classroom power, roles, control and responsibilities through interactive activities in order to create as many learning opportunities as possible. In this thesis, these are regarded as essential elements of second language classroom interactions that determine whether or not the teaching and learning activities promote student autonomy and communicative competence. The central tenet of this thesis has been that the push towards student-centred learning and communicative language use in English language teaching must go hand in hand with the establishment of more equitable teacher-student power relationships. In other words, teacher-student power

relationships must be considered before other steps towards student-centred learning and communicative language teaching. However, as the thesis has demonstrated, the notions of power, role, control and responsibilities are subject to the teachers' and students' different perspectives and the contextual factors that affect them.

In the literature on English language pedagogy, very little attention has been paid to the issues of teacher-student power relationships. In addition, most of the accounts on these issues proposed so far have been based on studies conducted in the context of English as a second language with very little investigation of what happens in English as a foreign language context where local circumstances operate and exert influence in different ways.

The study has investigated how teacher-student power relationships issues were represented and realised in practice by the teachers and students of English in both second language and foreign language contexts where student-centred learning and communicative language teaching were being implemented.

12.1.2. Specific: The Findings

- The teacher-student power relationships issues offer a set of ideas that were quite acceptable to the teachers and students in general. This is irrespective of the differences in the teaching-learning situations and conditions as well as the personal, sociocultural, political and economic factors between the respondents and their institutions. In more specific terms, however, it is interesting to see that CALUSA teachers and STKIP students shared the most progressive stance, whereas STKIP teachers and particularly CALUSA students shared rather different views. In this case, CALUSA teachers were more open to change and confident about the use of the resources they had access to in applying the approach. Meanwhile, STKIP teachers were willing but rather cautious, most probably due to their contextual limitations. STKIP students were quite fascinated with these 'liberating' principles, whereas CALUSA students might have had different expectations from the whole process or had experienced them previously and therefore did not respond to them so positively. Nonetheless, most of the respondents generally viewed the teacher-student power relationships issues as "good ideas" indeed, which should ideally be introduced to the second language classroom.

- The above conclusion agrees with the teachers' interview data and was also supported by the students' generally high preferences towards the three "non-authority-oriented" modes in second language learning processes. Thus, there was the desire to realise second language classroom circumstances that promote equitable teacher-student power relationships which can assist the nurturing of teacher-student interpersonal interactions and eventually the development of the students' communicative competence in the TL.
- In terms of their claims about exposure to the implementation of the teacher-student power sharing activities, the teachers and students had somewhat contrasting views. While most of the teachers were very confident that they had done these in their classes on quite a frequent basis (albeit STKIP teachers less frequently), most of the students did not appear to see that this was the case. Thus, either teacher-student power sharing had not been actually put into practice as frequently as the teachers claimed they had, or the students did not realise that they had experienced it.
- In spite of the above, the respondents were able to put forward their own ideas of classroom activities that accommodate the principles of teacher-student power sharing in second language learning. This is shown by the statements they made about (a) what the teachers considered as conducive to second language learning, and (b) what both the teachers and students considered to have not been included in Questionnaire A which investigates teacher-student power relationships. The statements made many references to various relevant core issues of student autonomy, student-centred learning, communicative language teaching and teacher-student power relationships which have been discussed in Chapters 2 and 3.
- As far as the classroom realisation is concerned, the classroom observation data results suggest that the teachers in both study centres attempted to create an interactive and communicative classroom atmosphere. The 'spirit' or enthusiasm of student-centred learning and communicative language teaching was quite palpable. The intra- and inter-group tasks and discussion techniques used within the four CALUSA and STKIP classes I observed affirmed this view. The results also show how learning was facilitated by these techniques, as shown by the fact that the students were quite able to perform the communicative tasks effectively in the target language. In terms of teacher-student power relationships, however, it was evident that, in the lessons observed, it was the teachers' agendas that were being carried out by, or in cooperation

with, the students. One of these was the curriculum set by the institution itself (as in CALUSA's case) or a national authority (in STKIP's case) which was then translated into the teachers' own syllabuses or lesson plans. At some points during the lessons, though, one or two students indeed tried to resist, but they eventually gave up.

- Despite their limitations, though, English as a foreign language (STKIP) students had shown their ability to assume more decisive roles in the learning process. However, the fact that they acknowledged their teachers' authority in the process prevented them from going too far against the teachers' agendas.

12.2. Recommendations for Further Studies

It is recommended that further studies be carried out by paying special attention to the following:

- Classroom observations should be conducted by teachers or researchers in cooperation with teachers right from the beginning to the end of the term to see the extent to which power sharing actually takes place. This will enable the researcher to see how such essential things as curriculum negotiation is conducted and implemented in the teaching-learning process.
- In order to obtain a balanced coverage of opinions of the teaching-learning processes as well as of the views regarding the main research (teacher-student power relationships), the students should also be interviewed.
- As power sharing may develop over time, how it is seen and experienced in a certain context should be better studied through a longitudinal action research.
- Studies can be conducted in different contexts. The results can be expected to give a more comprehensive and comparative account of teacher-student power relationships across different contexts of English language teaching.
- How much learning takes place when more classroom power is delegated to the students should also be studied by looking closely into the patterns of teacher-student interactions that take place. The study can begin by studying one class or a certain group of students in a class over a certain period of time (e.g. one term or course period).

- That English as a second language students at CALUSA and their English as a foreign language counterparts at STKIP have fairly different views about teacher-student power relationship needs to be studied further through interviews or other methods.

12.3. Concluding Remarks

In this study I have looked closely into how teachers and students of English operating in both English as a second language and English as a foreign language contexts represented and realised teacher-student power relationships issues. I have suggested that in order to promote student autonomy, student-centred learning and communicative language teaching, especially in dealing with students from and in different contexts, modern English language teaching in institutional settings should take into account the issues of 'power relationships' between teachers and students. The participants and events investigated represented teachers and students as well as classroom interactions in English language teaching institutions committed to activities that promote student-centred learning and communicative language teaching. These are the modern approaches to second language teaching and learning in which student autonomy and communicative competence constitute the ultimate goals.

Across the board, the teachers and students were obviously in favour of the application of the principles of teacher-student power sharing in promoting student autonomy, student-centred learning and communicative language teaching. Due to a number of contextual circumstances, their representation reflected optimism (i.e. enthusiasm and confidence) to a large extent and pessimism (i.e. caution and even scepticism) to a lesser extent. Attempts to realise power sharing in making classroom-related decisions and putting them into practice have been demonstrated. They worked quite effectively even in situations where or with individuals with whom less power sharing can be expected. However, these attempts were still obviously overshadowed by the contextual factors. In future, such attempts will need to be improved (e.g. through critical evaluation and further studies) in order to allow for greater power sharing to take place in its real sense. Failure to do so will result in teacher-student power sharing being inadequately applied or, in its worst case, remain mere rhetoric.

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Appendix A

Letters of Approval

Letter 1: AusAID's Approval



THE UNIVERSITY OF ADELAIDE
International Programs

JJ:ns

5 August 1997

Mr Chairil A Korompot
5/266 Marion Road
Netley
SA 5037

Dear Mr Korompot,

I am pleased to advise that AusAID has approved your application for overseas field work for 4 months from 1 October 1997.

I trust you will now confirm travel arrangements and organise your field work in accordance with the information provided on your application.

With Best Wishes.

Yours sincerely

Niranjala Seimon
AusAID Liaison Officer
International Programs

cc. Professor P. Mühlhäusler, Dept of Linguistics
Mr. D. Rose, Dept of Linguistics
Peter Anastassi, IPO
Margaret McAlister, Finance Officer, IPO (emailed)

Dennis Murray, Director

The University of Adelaide, Australia, 5005
Tel: (08) 8303 5252 Fax: (08) 8232 3741
international.programs@registry.adelaide.edu.au

Letter 2: Supervisor's Approval**THE UNIVERSITY OF ADELAIDE**Centre for European Studies
Hughes Building

19/8/97

Cheril Kompot has
agreed to shorten his
fieldwork in Indonesia
from four to two months.

Supervisor

Dept of Linguistics

Letter 3: Head of STKIP's Permission

DEPARTEMEN PENDIDIKAN DAN KERUDAYAAN RI
SEKOLAH TINGGI KEGURUAN DAN ILMU PENDIDIKAN
(STKIP) GORONTALO

R E K O M E N D A S I

No. 2062/103.2/PA/97

Berdasarkan surat permohonan tertanggal 15 Juni 1997, Ketua STKIP Gorontalo dengan ini memberikan rekomendasi kepada:

N a m a: Chairil Anwar Koropot, S.Pd.
Tempat/tanggal lahir: Kotamobagu, 13 Mei 1970
Pendidikan saat ini: Mahasiswa Pascasarjana (S2)
Lembaga pendidikan: Linguistics Department, Faculty of Arts, University of Adelaide, South Australia

untuk melaksanakan penelitian yang mencakup kegiatan pengumpulan data dengan kuesioner, wawancara, dan observasi kelas pada Program Studi Bahasa Inggris, Jurusan PBS STKIP Gorontalo, terhitung mulai tanggal 15 Oktober 1997 hingga akhir November 1997.

16 Oktober 1997


Prof. Dr. H. Nani Tulali
NIP. 130.387.905

Appendix B

Questionnaire A (for CALUSA Teachers)

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

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This questionnaire is designed to investigate classroom power relations between the students and you as an ESL teacher. In particular, it seeks information on the extent to which you involve your students in making the decisions about the *before, during-, and after-class* acts, and how you feel about this power sharing. A number of questions has been provided for each phase. However, space has been given for any area of the study which has not been covered in this questionnaire. If there are any questions you do not wish to answer, please leave them blank.

The information you provide will be compared with that from Indonesian teachers of EFL. It will be processed and disclosed for professional purposes only. I have asked for your name only so that I can contact you for an interview.

Please rest assured that your identity remains confidential. If you have any queries, you can always contact me in person or via e-mail or telephone. Your participation is very much appreciated and will be very useful for my area of study.

Best regards,

Chairil Anwar Korompot
 MA Student, Applied Linguistics, Faculty of Arts, University of Adelaide
 E-mail: ckorompot@arts.adelaide.edu.au
 Phone: 8351 1903 (Home), 8303 5288 (Campus)

DIRECTIONS:

For the questions on pages 3-6, please place a tick (✓) in the columns provided, i.e. under any of the options which best represents your opinion. You may wish to clarify your answer by writing your comment in the space given. Thank you.

Please write in the space provided or circle the appropriate answer.

ft

1. Your name:	
2. Your country of origin:	
3. Your age:	years old
4. Sex:	Male / Female
5. Your place of origin:	(Bali, Jawa Tengah, Medan, Papua, Other, etc.)
6. Teaching experience:	years
7. Number of classes you teach in a week:	
8. Do you allow your students to choose their course?	Yes / No
9. Please explain:	
10. Have you ever taught English in another country?	Yes / No
11. YES! (if how?)	
12. Please list three most important things that you think you should do as an English teacher to create an effective learning atmosphere.	
a.	
b.	
c.	

Before-Class Activities: A = Always, O = Often, S = Sometimes, N = Never

No.	Classroom Practices	Should this happen in a language classroom?				Do you allow this in your English class?			
		A	O	S	N	A	O	S	N
	Students should be able to:								
1	Choose a course that suits their needs or objectives.								
2	Help teacher choose and prepare learning materials.								
3	Tell teacher what their needs are.								
4	Tell teacher about their strengths and weaknesses.								
5	Choose the topics of a lesson to be covered.								
6	See if the topic is appropriate to them.								
	Teacher and students should:								
7	Discuss the objectives of the subject or course.								
8	Discuss what to study during the class or lesson.								
9	Other (Please list three activities) I would allow my students to...								
9a									
9b									
9c									

During-Class Activities A = Always, O = Often, S = Sometimes, N = Never

No.	Classroom Practices	Should this happen in a language classroom?				Do you allow this in your English class?			
		A	O	S	N	A	O	S	N
	Students should be able to:								
1	Express their ideas about anything, to anybody, and at anytime.								
2	Sit anywhere or next to anybody they want.								
3	Write on or clean the board.								
4	Form groups for discussions or group works themselves.								
5	Operate any equipment used (e.g. tape recorder or video-player).								
6	Tell teacher about their problems with the lesson.								
7	Choose any new words to be learned.								
8	Try to give meaning for new words.								
9	Explain something they know about.								
10	Answer their friends questions or give comments.								
11	Find their own mistakes.								
12	Decide when to start or stop doing an activity.								

Appendix C

Questionnaire A (for STKIP Teachers)

**TEACHER-STUDENT POWER SHARING PRACTICES IN CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT:
A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF TWO ENGLISH STUDY CENTRES**

ft

Kuesioner ini merupakan bagian dari penelitian yang sedang saya kerjakan di Australia dan Indonesia. Dengan ini saya mohon bantuan Anda untuk menjawab semua pertanyaan yang ada di dalamnya.

Dengan penelitian ini, saya ingin melihat sejauh mana guru/dosen dan siswa/mahasiswa bahasa Inggris di kedua negara memahami dan menjalankan "pembagian peran" di kelas, baik sebelum, pada saat, maupun setelah proses belajar-mengajar berlangsung. Secara khusus, saya ingin melihat tanggapan Anda atas praktek-praktek yang dipertanyakan dalam kuesioner ini dan kemungkinan pengalaman Anda terlibat dalam pelaksanaan praktek-praktek tersebut di kelas ini. Jika Anda merasa ada yang belum tercakup dalam setiap bagian kuesioner ini, Anda dipersilahkan menuliskan *tiga* butir pemikiran pribadi Anda pada bagian yang disediakan, di bawah judul:

Lain-lain: Sebelum/Selama/Sesudah PBM berlangsung, guru sebaiknya memberi siswa kesempatan...

Kerahasiaan dari pengolahan semua informasi yang Anda berikan merupakan jaminan utama dari saya. Hasil penelitian ini akan dilaporkan dalam bentuk tesis dan hanya akan digunakan lebih lanjut untuk kepentingan ilmiah. Pertanyaan Anda mengenai kuesioner ini dan penelitian tersebut dapat diajukan langsung kepada saya atau lewat telepon. Partisipasi Anda dalam penelitian ini sangat dihargai dan merupakan sumbangan yang amat berarti bagi bidang kajian yang tengah saya tekuni. Terimakasih.

Salaja,

Chairil Anwar Korompot

MA Student, Applied Linguistics, Faculty of Arts, University of Adelaide, South Australia

Alamat: Kel. Kisman Datau, Jl. Panjaitan Baru No 111A, Limba U I, Gorontalo 96115, Telepon: 23724

PETUNJUK PENGISIAN:

Untuk halaman 3 sampai 6, mohon berikan tanda cek (✓) di dalam kolom yang disediakan, di bawah pilihan jawaban yang kira-kira mewakili pendapat dan pengalaman pribadi Anda. Terimakasih.

Petunjuk:

Isilah jawaban Anda pada bagian yang disediakan.

ft

1. Nama:	
2. Umur:	
3. Jenis kelamin:	
4. Agama:	
5. Pendidikan terakhir:	
6. Pengalaman mengajar: tahun	
7. Jumlah kelas yang ditangani dalam seminggu:	
8. Anda memberi kesempatan kepada para mahasiswa untuk menentukan metode belajar-mengajar yang mereka sukai? Ya / Tidak	
*Mohon dijelaskan:	
9. Tiga hal yang Anda anggap perlu Anda lakukan sebagai guru untuk menciptakan suasana kelas yang lebih kondusif bagi pembelajaran bahasa Inggris:	
a.	
b.	
c.	

Appendix D

Questionnaire A (for CALUSA Students)

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is part of my research on how language teachers and students share classroom responsibilities before, during and after classroom sessions. I am asking for your help to answer all the questions. One of the things I want to look at is whether your teachers let you participate in doing things that they traditionally do in and outside the class, and how you feel about it. In this case, I want to know whether you think the classroom practices are a good idea, i.e. whether they should happen in a language class, and whether you have ever experienced any of these practiced here in this class or school. If you think you have some ideas that have not been covered in this questionnaire, please write them down under "I want my teacher to allow me to...." If there are any questions you do not wish to answer, please leave them blank.

The information you provide will be compared with that from Indonesian students studying English in Indonesia. It will be processed and disclosed for professional purposes only. If you want to, please give your name. Your identity will remain confidential. I will be happy to answer your questions and can be contacted directly or via e-mail or telephone. Your participation is very much appreciated and will be very useful for my area of study.

Best regards,

CHRISTI ANWAR KOROMPOT
 MA Student, Applied Linguistics,
 Faculty of Arts, University of Adelaide
 E-mail: ckorompot@arts.adelaide.edu.au
 Phone: 8351 1903 (Home), 8303 5288 (Campus)

DIRECTIONS:

For the questionnaire (pages 3-6), please place a tick (✓) in the column provided, under any of the options which best represents your opinion. Thank you.

Please write in the space provided or circle the appropriate answer.

1. Your name	
2. Which country are you from?	
3. Your age	Years Old
4. Sex:	Male / Female
5. Your English level	Beginner / Intermediate / Upper Intermediate / Advanced
6. Are you on a scholarship?	Yes / No
7. Did you have any problems this course or class?	Yes / No
*If YES, please explain why.	
8. Length of time studying English in Australia	
9. Length of time studying English in home country	
10. Have you ever studied English in any of these countries: Britain, USA, Canada, New Zealand?	Yes / No
*If YES, for how long?	

Before-Class Activities

3

No.	Classroom Practices	Should this happen in a language classroom?				Have you ever experienced this in this class?			
		Always	Often	Sometimes	Never	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
	Students should be able to:								
1	Choose a course that suits their needs or objectives.								
2	Help teacher choose and prepare learning materials.								
3	Tell teacher what their needs are.								
4	Tell teacher about their strengths and weaknesses.								
5	Choose the topics of a lesson to be covered.								
6	See if the topic is appropriate for them.								
	Teacher and students should:								
7	Discuss the objectives of the subject or course.								
8	Discuss what to study during the class or lesson.								
9	Other (Please list three activities) I want my teacher to allow me to...								
9a									
9b									
9c									

During-Class Activities

4

No.	Classroom Practices	Should this happen in a language classroom?				Have you ever experienced this in this class?			
		Always	Often	Sometimes	Never	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
	Students should be able to:								
1	Express their ideas about anything, to anybody, and at anytime.								
2	Sit anywhere or next to anybody they want.								
3	Write on or clean the board.								
4	Form groups for discussions or group works themselves.								
5	Operate any equipment used (e.g. tape recorder or video-player).								
6	Tell teacher about their problems with the lesson.								
7	Choose any new words to be learned.								
8	Try to give meaning for new words.								
9	Explain something they know about.								
10	Answer their friends questions or give comments.								
11	Find their own mistakes.								
12	Decide when to start or stop doing an activity.								

During-Class Activities (Continued)

5

No.	Classroom Practices	Should this happen in a language classroom?				Have you ever experienced this in this class?			
		Always	Often	Sometimes	Never	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
	Students should be allowed to:								
13	Suggest another place for the class to study (e.g. in a language laboratory).								
14	Refuse to do something they are not prepared to.								
15	Check their own work.								
16	Work more in groups or pairs than individually.								
17	Students should do whatever teacher wants them to do.								
	Teacher should:								
18	Assist students to find their own mistakes.								
19	Tell students about all their mistakes.								
20	Teach using methods that students want or prefer.								
21	Teacher and students should become good friends.								
22	Other (Please list three activities I want my teacher to allow me to...)								
22a									
22b									
22c									

After-Class Activities

6

No.	Classroom Practices	Should this happen in a language classroom?				Have you ever experienced this in this class?			
		Always	Often	Sometimes	Never	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
	Students should be able to:								
1	Ask for an extension to hand in homework.								
2	Tell teacher whether they think they have been successful or not.								
3	Contact teacher by phone, fax, or e-mail when having problems with a task or lesson.								
4	Contact teacher in person outside the class when having problems with a task or lesson.								
5	Evaluate teacher's performance during and after the course or term.								
6	See if their learning objectives have been achieved.								
7	Teacher should tell students whether they succeed or fail.								
	Teacher and students should:								
8	Discuss what to do for homework.								
9	Negotiate the due date for handing in homework.								
10	Other (Please list three activities I want my teacher to allow me to...)								
10a									
10b									
10c									

Appendix E

Questionnaire A (for STKIP Students)

TEACHER-STUDENT POWER SHARING PRACTICES IN CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF TWO ENGLISH STUDY CENTRES

18

Kuesioner ini merupakan bagian dari penelitian yang sedang saya kerjakan di Australia dan Indonesia. Dengan ini saya mohon bantuan Anda untuk menjawab semua pertanyaan yang ada di dalamnya.

Dengan penelitian ini, saya ingin melihat sejauh mana guru/dosen dan siswa/mahasiswa bahasa Inggris di kedua negara memahami dan menjalankan "pembagian peran" di kelas, baik sebelum, pada saat, maupun setelah proses belajar-mengajar berlangsung. Secara khusus, saya ingin melihat tanggapan Anda atas praktek-praktek yang dipertanyakan dalam kuesioner ini dan kemungkinan pengalaman Anda terlibat dalam pelaksanaan praktek-praktek tersebut di kelas ini. Jika Anda merasa ada yang belum tercakup dalam setiap bagian kuesioner ini, Anda dipersilahkan menuliskan *tiga* butir pemikiran pribadi Anda pada bagian yang disediakan, di bawah judul:

Lain-lain: Sebelum/Selama/Sesudah PBM berlangsung, saya ingin mendapat kesempatan....

Kerahasiaan dari pengolahan semua informasi yang Anda berikan merupakan jaminan utama dari saya. Hasil penelitian ini akan dilaporkan dalam bentuk tesis dan hanya akan digunakan lebih lanjut untuk kepentingan ilmiah. Pertanyaan Anda mengenai kuesioner ini dan penelitian tersebut dapat diajukan langsung kepada saya atau lewat telepon. Partisipasi Anda dalam penelitian ini sangat dihargai dan merupakan sumbangan yang amat berarti bagi bidang kajian yang tengah saya tekuni. Terimakasih.

Salam,

Chairil Anwar Korompot

MA Student, Applied Linguistics, Faculty of Arts, University of Adelaide, South Australia

Alamat: Kel. Kisman Datau, Jl. Panjaitan Baru No 111A, Limba U I, Gorontalo 96115, Telepon: 23724

PETUNJUK PENGISIAN:

Untuk halaman 3 sampai 6, mohon berikan tanda cek (✓) di dalam kolom yang disediakan, di bawah pilihan jawaban yang kira-kira mewakili pendapat dan pengalaman pribadi Anda. Terimakasih.

1

Petunjuk:

Isilah jawaban Anda dalam ruang yang tersedia atau lingkari pilihan yang ada.

19

1. Nama:	
2. Agama:	
3. Umur:	
4. Jenis kelamin:	Laki-laki / Perempuan
5. Anda sudah di kelas/mahasiswa?	
7. Anda sendiri yang memilih matakuliah / kelas ini?	Ya / Tidak
8. Pernahkah Anda belajar dari guru penutur-asli Bahasa Inggris?	Ya / Tidak
9. Pernahkah Anda belajar Bahasa Inggris di luar negeri?	Ya / Tidak
10. Pernahkah Anda belajar Bahasa Inggris di luar negeri?	Ya / Tidak

2

Selama PBM (Lanjutan):

No.	Pernyataan	Haruskah ini dilaksanakan di kelas Bhs. Ing?				Pernahkah Anda mengalaminya di kelas ini?			
		Selalu	Sering	Kadang	Tak boleh	Selalu	Sering	Kadang	Tak Pernah
	Siswa sebaiknya diberikan kesempatan:								
13	Mengusulkan tempat lain untuk belajar (misalnya di lab bahasa, ruang terbuka, pasar, museum, dll).								
14	Menolak mengerjakan sesuatu jika merasa tidak siap melakukannya.								
15	Memeriksa sendiri pekerjaannya.								
16	Lebih sering belajar dan bekerja kelompok daripada bekerja sendiri.								
17	Siswa harus mengerjakan apa saja yang diperintahkan guru.								
	Guru sebaiknya:								
18	Membantu siswa menemukan kesalahannya sendiri.								
19	Membawitahukan semua kealahan yang dibuat siswa.								
20	Mengajar sesuai dengan metode yang diinginkan atau yang lebih disukai oleh siswa.								
21	Guru dan siswa sebaiknya bergaul sebagai sahabat.								
22	Lain-lain - Selama PBM berlangsung, saya ingin mendapat kesempatan:								
22a									
22b									
22c									

Sesudah PBM:

No.	Pernyataan	Haruskah ini dilaksanakan di kelas Bhs. Ing?				Pernahkah Anda mengalaminya di kelas ini?			
		Selalu	Sering	Kadang	Tak boleh	Selalu	Sering	Kadang	Tak Pernah
	Siswa sebaiknya diberikan kesempatan:								
1	Maminta perpanjangan waktu untuk menyelesaikan pekerjaan rumah.								
2	Menilai sendiri apakah ia berhasil atau gagal mencapai tujuan belajarnya.								
3	Menghubungi guru secara tak langsung (misalnya lewat telepon) jika mendapatkan kesulitan belajar.								
4	Menghubungi guru secara langsung di luar jam pelajaran jika mendapatkan kesulitan belajar.								
5	Menilai berhasil-gagalnya guru dalam membantu siswa mencapai tujuan belajarnya.								
6	Menilai sendiri apakah tujuan belajarnya telah tercapai atau tidak.								
7	Guru sebaiknya memberitahu siswa tentang keberhasilan atau kegagalan belajarnya.								
	Guru dan siswa sebaiknya:								
8	Membahas apa yang akan dikerjakan untuk pekerjaan-rumah.								
9	Merundingkan batas waktu penyerahan pekerjaan rumah.								
10	Lain-lain - Setelah PBM berlangsung, saya ingin mendapat kesempatan:								
10a									
10b									
10c									

Appendix F

Questionnaire B (for CALUSA and STKIP Students)

QUESTIONNAIRE: Which ways do you like to learn English?

(Elizabeth Bailey 1988. Adapted from Ken Willing 1985)

Please answer these questions first.

1. How old are you?	years
2. What's your sex? (Please circle).	Male / Female
3. What class/level/semester are you in?	
4. Do you attend an English course?	Yes / No

DIRECTIONS: Please circle the answer that is right for you.

Example:

I like to learn by listening to songs.

no a little good best

1. In class, I like to learn by reading.

no a little good best

2. In class, I like to listen and use cassettes.

no a little good best

3. In class, I like to learn by playing language games

no a little good best

4. In class, I like to learn by conversations.

no a little good best

5. In class, I like to learn by pictures, films, video.

no a little good best

6. I want to write everything in my notebook.

no a little good best

7. I like to have my own English textbook.

no a little good best

8. I like the teacher to explain everything to us.

no a little good best

9. I like the teacher to give us problems to work out

no a little good best

10. I like the teacher to help me talk about my interests.

no a little good best

11. I like the teacher to tell me all my mistakes.

no a little good best

12. I like the teacher to let me find my mistakes.

no a little good best

13. I like to learn by doing lots of different things in class.

no a little good best

14. I like to do one thing carefully.

no a little good best

15. I like the teacher to go slowly.

no a little good best

16. I like the teacher to go fast.

no a little good best

17. I like to study English by myself (alone).

no a little good best

18. I like to learn English by talking in pairs.

no a little good best

19. I like to learn English in a small group.

no a little good best

20. I like to learn English with the whole class.

no a little good best

21. I like to go out with the class and practise English with native-speakers.

no	a little	good	best
----	----------	------	------
22. I like to study English grammar.

no	a little	good	best
----	----------	------	------
23. I like to learn many new words.

no	a little	good	best
----	----------	------	------
24. I like to practise the sounds and pronunciation of English words.

no	a little	good	best
----	----------	------	------
25. I like to study spelling.

no	a little	good	best
----	----------	------	------
26. I like to learn how to write letters, notes, lists, etc.

no	a little	good	best
----	----------	------	------
27. I like to learn English words by seeing them.

no	a little	good	best
----	----------	------	------
28. I like to learn English words by hearing them.

no	a little	good	best
----	----------	------	------
29. I like to learn English words by doing something.

no	a little	good	best
----	----------	------	------
30. At home, I like to learn by reading English newspapers, magazines, etc.

no	a little	good	best
----	----------	------	------
31. At home, I like to learn by using cassettes.

no	a little	good	best
----	----------	------	------
32. At home, I like to learn by watching TV in English.

no	a little	good	best
----	----------	------	------
33. At home, I like to learn by studying English textbooks.

no	a little	good	best
----	----------	------	------
34. I like to learn by talking to friends in English.

no	a little	good	best
----	----------	------	------
35. I like to learn by watching and listening to native-speakers.

no	a little	good	best
----	----------	------	------
36. I like to learn by using English in shops/ restaurants/coffee bars, etc.

no	a little	good	best
----	----------	------	------

Your participation is greatly appreciated.

Chairil Anwar Korompot

MA Student, Linguistics Division, Centre for European Studies,
Faculty of Arts, University of Adelaide, South Australia

Appendix G

Questions for Interview

1. Could you tell me a little about yourself and your teaching appointments?
2. How long have you been teaching?
3. In your opinion, who is the decision maker in the classroom?
4. Are you familiar with the "student-centred learning" approach (SCL)?
5. Based on your professional/academic experience, how would you define SCL?
6. What strategies have you used to put students in the centre of the whole teaching-learning activities?
7. What are the problems you have had so far in applying the SCL in your class(es), especially with students from Asian countries?
8. By allowing students to have more control in the class, do you feel that the teacher loses their role or authority in the classroom?
9. Is the institution you are working for in favour with SCL approach? (Or Is the institution you are working for student-centred in terms of curriculum planning?)
10. Do you think that the application of the SCL approach takes more time and costs more than other approaches?

Your participation in this study is very much appreciated

Chairil Anwar Korompot
MA Student, Linguistics
Centre for European Studies
Faculty of Arts, University of Adelaide.

Appendix H

Classroom Observation Checklist

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION CHECKLIST

(Adapted from Deller (1990:6) in Wajryb (1992:120))

School: Observation day: #

Date:/...../..... Time: am/pm

Class/Course: Number of students:

Class setting:

Lecture Group discussion Drill/practice Other:

	T	S	T-S*
1. Who chooses the aims?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Who chooses the language and/or skills focus?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Who chooses the topic(s) and activities?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Who chooses and prepares the materials?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Who chooses the seating arrangements?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Who writes on the board?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Who cleans the board?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Whom does the students speak to?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Who creates the pairs or groups?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Who decides when to stop an activity?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Who operates the equipment?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. Who decides which questions or problems in the lesson are explored?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. Who chooses the vocabulary to be learned?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. Who gives meaning for words?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. Who spells out new words?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. Who gives explanations?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	T	S	T-S*
17. Who asks questions?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. Who answers student questions?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19. Who repeats what is said if others do not hear it?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20. Who creates the silences?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21. Who breaks the silences?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22. Who checks the work?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23. Who chooses the homework?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Totals :

— — —

Comments:

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

*Description:

- T = Teacher (done by teacher)
- S = Student (done by student)
- T-S = Teacher-Student (done by teacher and student).

Appendix I

Additional Information from *Questionnaire A* Results

I.1. Conducive Classroom Atmosphere: Teachers' Beliefs

I.1.1. CALUSA Teachers

- **Interpersonal relationships** (*6 teachers*)
 1. "Be lively."
 2. "Be warm and friendly."
 3. "Ensure students feel at ease with each other and their teacher."
 4. "Help students to interact with other students."
 5. "On-going support and praise."
 6. "Relate meaningfully to students as people."
 7. "Treat each student as an individual."

- **Comfortable classroom atmosphere** (*4 teachers*)
 8. "A relaxed positive atmosphere."
 9. "Establish a good class dynamic."
 10. "Help students to feel comfortable and relaxed."
 11. "Help the students to relax."

- **Commitment to teaching and learning processes** (*2 teachers*)
 12. "Ensure students are always learning and asking [sic] students about their learning experiences."
 13. "Set and expect high standards of work and commitment."
 14. "Show commitment to students and actual teaching."

- **Good preparation of lesson** (*3 teachers*)
 15. "Be organised [in (1) assessing needs, (2) negotiating, (3) planning, (4) implementing, and (5) evaluating]."
 16. "Have well-planned lessons and ensure students know what is involved in the task and the learning outcome."
 17. "Prepare thoroughly."

- **Confidence** (*2 teachers*)
 18. "Be confident in knowledge of the subject."
 19. "Inspire confidence."

- **Interesting materials** (*2 teachers*)
 20. "Choose interesting materials."
 21. "Provide interesting material [sic]."

- **Opportunity to use English (2 teachers)**

22. "Allow them, encourage them, facilitate an atmosphere where they use the language meaningfully."
23. "Ensure all students participate and are given the opportunity to use English actively."

- **Student involvement (2 teachers)**

24. "Involve students during the lesson."
25. "Involve students as much and in as many way as possible."

- **Student needs and interests (2 teachers)**

26. "Engage their interest in the material."
27. "Meet students' intellectual and emotional needs in a classroom."

- **Attention to errors (1 teacher)**

28. "Be understanding of and attentive to errors."

- **Authenticity (1 teacher)**

29. "An authentic series of tasks."

- **Review of lesson (1 teacher)**

30. "Review what you have taught."

I.1.2. STKIP Teachers

- **Quality teaching methods, materials, and aids (4 teachers)**

1. "Create interesting teaching aids that are suitable for language learning."
2. "Use appropriate methods."
3. "Use effective learning (and teaching) aids."
4. "Use good teaching methods."

- **Comfortable classroom atmosphere (3 teachers)**

5. "Facilitate a friendly atmosphere so that students feel relaxed and will be able to express their ideas with ease."
6. "Facilitate a pleasant learning environment."
7. "Keep the students motivated to express their ideas so that they be will able to remove their feeling of inhibition."

- **Interpersonal relationships (3 teachers)**

8. "Appreciate students' efforts and ideas."
9. "Be communicative."
10. "Establish good communication with students."

- **'Pre-lesson' access to materials (3 teachers)**

11. "Have the textbook."
12. "Let the students know what the materials are before class."
13. "Make reference and reading materials available to students."

- **Classroom interaction (2 teachers)**

14. "Create more varied kinds of interaction."

15. "Direct the teaching-learning process towards *student-centred learning*."

- **Good preparation of lesson (2 teachers)**

16. "Have good mastery of the material."

17. "Set teaching objectives."

- **Opportunity to use English (2 teachers)**

18. "Let the students participate."

19. "Put students into small groups for speaking practices."

- **Classroom management (1 teacher)**

20. "Manage the classroom."

- **Student needs and interests (1 teacher)**

21. "Identify students' needs."

- **Systematic delivery of material (1 teacher)**

22. "Present the material as systematically as possible."

I.2. Responses to QIN 9 (p. 3), QIN 22 (p. 5), and QIN 10 (p. 6)

I.2.1. Before Class Acts

a. CALUSA teachers' input:

- **Classroom interaction (given by 4 teachers)**

1. "Ask for extra help."

2. "Disagree with me."

3. "Give feedback on type of activity."

4. "State their opinions and suggest alternatives."

5. "Suggest topics to study."

6. "Tell me if the material is boring or unsuitable."

- **Personal preferences (4 teachers)**

7. "Ask to be in another class if they prefer."

8. "Bring in material."

9. "Choose individual activities."

10. "Create their own assessment."

11. "Not do certain tasks if deemed inappropriate."

12. "Withdraw to library for individual learning."

- **Acceptance or rejection of material (1 teacher)**

13. "Accept or reject or redesign assessments."

14. "Accept or reject texts."

- **Experience and expectations (1 teacher)**

15. "Discuss with them what they can expect from each lesson."

16. "Think about what they have learnt."

b. STKIP teachers' input:

- **Classroom interaction (5 teachers)**
 1. "Ask me questions about the material (2 other similar input)"
 2. "Ask me to review past lessons."
 3. "Ask me what the lesson is about."
 4. "Express their concerns regarding learning facilities used in classroom activities."
 5. "Listen to what is being explained."
- **Opportunity to provide material (2 teachers)**
 6. "Find another relevant material based on the topics."
 7. "Prepare the material themselves."
- **Classroom management (1 teacher)**
 8. "Arrange seating and clean the board."

c. CALUSA students' input:

- **Choice of teacher (2 students)**
 1. "Choose another teacher."
 2. "Choose teacher who has good work experience."
- **Interpersonal relationships (2 students)**
 3. "Let me know my weaknesses and strengths."
 4. "Explain personally my weaknesses."
- **Classroom 'freedom' (1 student)**
 5. "Drink coffee in class."

d. STKIP students' input:

- **Classroom interaction (5 students)**
 1. "Ask questions regarding previous lesson."
 2. "Ask teacher about last week's lesson."
 3. "Be asked about last week's lesson."
 4. "Consult the teacher."
 5. "Suggest suitable teaching method."
 6. "Suggest teacher to pay attention to students' suggestions."
- **'Pre-lesson' access to materials (4 students)**
 7. "Be given a copy of the material."
 8. "Be informed about the topic of the lesson."
 9. "Have access to the textbook to be used."
 10. "Talk briefly about the lesson."
- **Interpersonal relationships (2 students)**
 11. "Be known by teacher personally, just like any other student in class."
 12. "Be made more motivated to learn."

- **Opportunity to use English effectively (2 students)**
 13. "Practise English briefly in an atmosphere created by the teacher."
 14. "Practise English with friends or native speakers."

- **Personal preferences (2 students)**
 15. "Leave class if teacher doesn't show up after 15 minutes."
 16. "Not wait too long for teacher to come to class."

- **Review (2 students)**
 17. "Be involved in reviewing the past lesson—as an icebreaker."
 18. "Review previous lesson."

- **Assessment (1 student)**
 19. "Know teacher's assessment procedures."

I.2.2. During Class Acts

a. CALUSA teachers' input

- **Personal preferences (2 teachers)**
 1. "Leave early or miss sessions if they wish / need to."
 2. "Not participate in activities they felt uncomfortable with."
 3. "Use dictionary."
 4. "Use first language to explain to each other."

- **Classroom interaction (1 teacher)**
 5. "Tape my work and give feedback."

- **Peer support (1 teacher)**
 6. "Use other students in the class as mentors."

b. STKIP teachers' responses:

- **Classroom interaction (4 teachers)**
 1. "Answer my questions."
 2. "Ask me questions about anything they don't understand."
 3. "Express their ideas."
 4. "Offer alternative ideas or concepts."
 5. "Suggest alternative solutions to problems."

- **Peer support (1 teacher)**
 6. "Learn from more competent fellow students."

c. CALUSA students' input:

- **Classroom interaction (2 students)**
 1. "Argue with any of her opinions and she should pay attention with them."
 2. "Express my ideas or opinions much more."

3. "Shout or scream out loud in the class."
4. "Talk more and more."

- **Personal preferences (1 student)**

5. "Go home early."

d. STKIP students' input:

- **Interpersonal relationships (6 students)**

1. "Be assisted in learning—not 'oppressed' by some teachers."
2. "Be attended by the teacher, just like any other inactive students."
3. "Be convinced by the teacher that students and teacher are equally important."
4. "Be free from 'authoritarian' teachers."
5. "Be free to be 'close' to the teacher so that I could ask him/her to help me."
6. "Be given equal attention and opportunity."
7. "Interact with the teacher."

- **Classroom interaction (5 students)**

8. "Ask or answer a question out of the context of the lesson."
9. "Ask questions (especially about the lesson just learnt)." (4 similar comments)

- **Classroom management (2 students)**

10. "Preside over a group/class discussion."

- **Opportunity to use English effectively (1 student)**

11. "Have the opportunity to come to the front of class and explain/teach."

I.2.3. After Class Acts

a. CALUSA teachers' input:

- **Interpersonal relationships (1 teacher)**

1. "Be able to laugh together."
2. "Honestly talk to each other."
3. "Plan and invite me to a party."

- **Negotiation (1 teacher)**

4. "Negotiate alternative assessment."
5. "Negotiate alternative homework assignment"

- **Personal preference (1 teacher)**

6. "Move to another class if dissatisfied with my teaching."
7. "Not return homework."

b. STKIP teachers' input:

- **Classroom interaction (3 teachers)**

1. "Ask questions."
2. "Suggest better methods the teacher can use to teach the class."
3. "Tell me about their difficulties in doing the homework."

- **Small-group-related classroom routines (2 teachers)**

4. "Choose to do homework in small groups."
5. "Form their own groups [for homework assignments]."
6. "Report the group work."

- **'Pre-lesson' access to material (1 teacher)**

7. "Ask about the literature used."
8. "Ask about the next material/lesson."

- **Assessment (2 teachers)**

9. "Evaluate their own performance/achievement."
10. "Evaluate the 'results'."

- **Opportunity to use English effectively (1 teacher)**

11. "Apply what they have learnt 'in the field'."

- **Peer support (1 teacher)**

12. "Motivate other students who haven't succeeded."

c. CALUSA students' input:

- **Classroom interaction (2 students)**

1. "Ask any question out of the lesson [sic]."
2. "Do more open discussion—about common subject [sic]."
3. "Talk for a long time with her [the teacher]."

d. STKIP students' input:

- **Classroom interaction (6 students)**

1. "Ask questions about the lesson." (2 similar comments).
2. "Discuss with teacher what he/she thinks about the lesson."
3. "Discuss with teacher what to study for next lesson."
4. "Discuss with teacher whether the lesson has been successful or not."
5. "Make suggestions regarding teacher's way of delivering the material."

- **'Post-lesson' assistance (2 students)**

6. "If failed, contact teacher by phone for explanation."
7. "Visit teacher's home for consultation or solving problems."

- **Review (3 students)**

8. "Review the lesson in a method preferred by students."
9. "Review the lesson just learnt." (1 similar comment)

- **Assessment (1 student)**

10. "Be given marks better than just a 'C'."

Appendix J

Assessment Questionnaires

Copied from Nunan (1996) in Pemberton *et al.* (1996: 22-23 & 25)

Questionnaire 1: Needs Identification

We would like you tell us which of the following uses of English are important for you. Please put an 'X' in the box beside each if you think it is 'Very Useful', 'Useful', 'Not Useful'.

	Very Useful	Useful	Not Useful
Do you want to improve your English so that you can:			
1. Tell people about yourself	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Tell people about your family	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Tell people about your job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Tell people your education	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Tell people about your interests	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Use public transportation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Find new places in the city	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Speak to tradespeople	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Speak to your landlord / real estate agent	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Buy furniture / appliances for your home	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Deal with door-to-door salespeople	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. Communicate with your friends	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. Receive telephone calls	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. Make telephone calls	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. Do further study	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. Get information about courses / schools etc.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

- | | | | |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 17. Enrol in courses | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 18. Get information about the education system | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 19. Help children with schoolwork | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 20. Apply for a job | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 21. Get information about a job | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 22. Attend interviews | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 23. Join sporting or social clubs | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 24. Join hobby or interest groups | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 25. Watch TV | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 26. Listen to the radio | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 27. Read newspapers, books, magazines | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 28. Give, accept, refuse invitations | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 29. Make travel arrangements | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 30. Talk to your boss | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 31. Talk to doctors / hospital staff | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 32. Talk to neighbours | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 33. Talk to your children's teachers | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 34. Talk to government officials | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 35. Talk to English-speaking friends | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 36. Get information about goods and services | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 37. Complain about, or return goods | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

From this list, choose five you want to learn first.

- | | |
|---------|---------|
| 1. | 2. |
| 2. | 4. |
| 5. | |

Questionnaire 2: Reflective Assessment

**PLEASE COMPLETE THIS FORM
BETWEEN NOW AND NEXT WEEK**

NAME: _____

UNIVERSITY NUMBER: _____ DATE: _____

This week I studied: _____

This week I learned: _____

This week I used my English in these places: _____

This week I spoke English with these people: _____

This week I made these mistakes: _____

My difficulties are: _____

I would like to know: _____

I would like help with: _____

My learning and practising plans for next week are: _____

Appendix K

Motivation and Negotiation Curriculum Models

Copied from Boomer (1982: 128-129) and Boomer *et al.* (1992: 10-11)

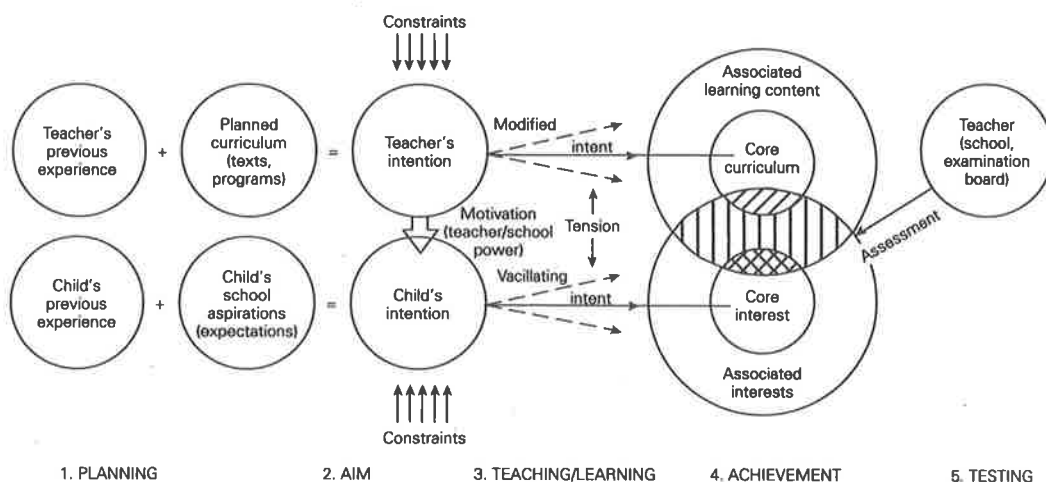


Figure 1: Model A: Motivation

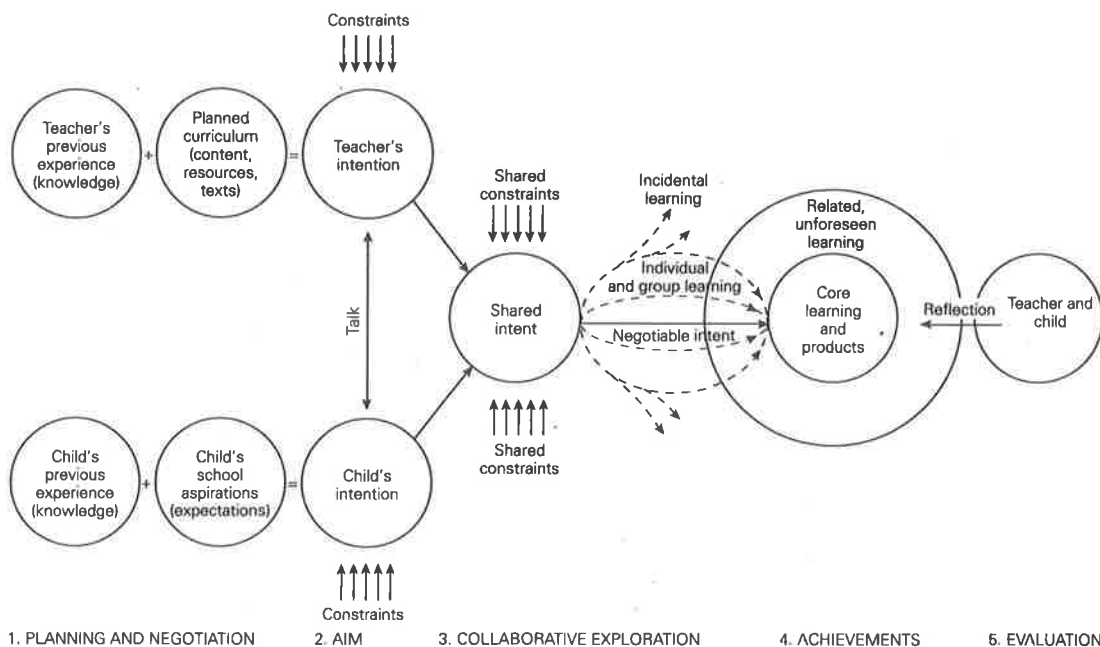


Figure 2: Model B: Negotiation

Appendix L

Transcripts of Classroom Observation: *Teacher-Student Power Relationships*

L.1. At CALUSA

L.1.1. Class: EBTC/Advanced (14 students)

L.1.1.1. Day 1 (Wednesday, 25 March 1998, 9-10.50 am, 1st session)

Group A:

This group was discussing what they thought were the things that human beings would fear the most. They had been told to have as many as 10 fears—'Human Greatest Fears'.

- | | | |
|----|----|--|
| 1 | F1 | C-O-C-K-R-O-A-C-H. (<i>Spelling 'cockroach.'</i>) |
| 2 | M1 | And bee. Maybe. |
| 3 | F1 | What, bee? What bee? |
| 4 | M1 | Bee (<i>Imitating a bee flapping its wings</i>). |
| 5 | F1 | Bee. |
| 6 | F2 | No. Some man who was bitten by a bee. |
| 7 | F1 | I forget. One, two, three, four, five (<i>Counting words on their list</i>). |
| 8 | M1 | Fire. |
| 9 | F1 | Fire? |
| 10 | M1 | (xx) |
| 11 | T | (<i>Approaches</i>) What have you got? (<i>F1 smiles.</i>) All right. Five more minutes and I want you to give me your list. |
| 12 | | |

The teacher went to another group. Group A continued their work. Their conversation was quite inaudible as members of the other groups laughed. After about 15 minutes, Group A finished their work. The teacher stopped monitoring and was now in front of the class, writing on the board.

- | | | |
|----|----|---|
| 13 | F1 | (<i>To F2, pointing to the board, smiles</i>) Look, look! (<i>F2 looks up, smiles</i>). |
| 14 | T | Tell me. What are the ones that you have? I've put some up on the board. Um. |
| 15 | F | (xxx). Exam. |
| 16 | T | Exams. Okay. Let's write some more of these. Exams.(xxx) |
| 17 | F2 | Darkness. |
| 18 | T | Darkness. Any other? |
| 19 | M1 | Parents |
| 20 | T | Parents? (<i>SS laugh</i>). Okay. What about that group over there? (<i>To Group B</i>) |
| 21 | F5 | Yes? |
| 22 | T | Have you got any others that are not listed there? |
| 23 | F6 | Bankrupt. |
| 24 | T | Being bankrupt—bankruptcy. Bankruptcy. (<i>Writes on the board</i>). |
| 25 | F5 | Accident. |
| 26 | T | Accidents. Traffic accidents or any other accidents? |
| 27 | M1 | Casualty, I think. |
| 28 | F5 | Failure. |
| 29 | T | Being hurt; being hurt in an accidents, yeah? |
| 30 | M2 | Failure. (xxx) |
| 31 | T | Failure. |

- 32 F3 Nightmare.
- 33 T Nightmare. So a fear of having nightmares. Right.
- 34 M3 Pregnant (*Smiles. SS laugh*).
- 35 T Pardon?
- 36 M3 Pregnant (*Laughs*). Accident.
- 37 T What was that?
- 38 F Pregnant.
- 39 T Getting pregnant. Okay.
- 40 M3 For teenagers.
- 41 T Yes.
- 42 M3 Yeah.
- 43 F6 Aliens.
- 44 T Aliens. Anything else? (*SS laugh*).
- 45 F2 Stranger
- 46 T Which, stranger? That's a good one.
- 47 F6 Teacher.
- 48 T Teachers? Ohhh. (*T & SS laugh*). Okay, okay. (*SS still laugh*). All right. That's probably enough. May of you have some of these in common. So, these are just you need as individuals. As you can see, you've come from different cultures and yet you have similar fears. (x). Let me give you a list of fears that have been compiled from research in America. And there's the list of ten. Let me show what these could be. (*T prepares the OHP¹*). What would be the worst one? Animals? Where do they usually (...).
- 54 F6 Heart attack.
- 55 T Heart attack. Yeah. So that's er diseases, isn't it? Where do they usually put this overhead? (*T starts showing the list to the class from the 10th greatest fear. I started recording from when the 8th fear, flying, was displayed*). (...) [that] becomes worse when you're flying in a war zone or on a very old plane, I would think. Okay. Hey look what that is, number 7. Geologists thought that would be (xxx), wouldn't you? Number 7. Okay number 7. We had that didn't we? We had that in accidents. We had that in diseases. Um, ya? All right. (*Moves the transparency, to the next fear on the list.*) Ah-ha, no one mentioned that. There are some people who would not go anywhere near a pool or a lake because of their fear of water is very strong. (*Moves the transparency, to the next fear on the list.*) Ah-ha, bankruptcy!
- 65 F6 Number 1! (*T & SS laugh*).
- 66 T Okay. Going down might be a bit better. (*Moves the transparency, to the next fear on the list.*) Ah-ha, we had that didn't we?
- 68 F1 What's a bug?
- 69 T Bug is a slang term for insects. Same thing, really. Um, sometimes a bug could be an animal that is similar to an insect. But perhaps it doesn't have as many legs or wings. Just a slang term. (*Moves on.*) Heights. I have that fear (*Laughs*). Somebody said that (*pointing to the board*). Look, somebody said height. What do you think number 1 is?
- 73 M2 Wild animals.
- 74 T Wild animals.
- 75 F6 Cholesterol.
- 76 T Which? What did you say? (xxx)
- 77 F6 Cholesterol.
- 78 T Cholesterol. (*Laughs*).
- 79 F6 In the United States it's very =
- 80 T = Exactly, exactly, having a high cholesterol.
- 81 M3 Divorce.
- 82 T Divorce. That's not even mentioned, isn't it? It could be divorce. What do you think? Have a look. (*T shows the No. 1 fear, speaking before a group, on the OHP. SS laugh*).
- 84 Uh (...) Isn't that funny? Isn't that funny? Some people have said that they fear that more than others. Now look at that. But you don't. You don't. You are good talkers. (*Now T introduces the next activity*) Um, on Monday some of you said that in your presentation it was a bit difficult because you've had had to prepare, you've had to concentrate. And it was a little bit frightening because it was the first time that you had to do that. Then I guess after lots of preparation and familiarity that becomes easier, doesn't

¹ Overhead Projector

90 it? So, and I said also on Monday that we'll try and do lots of speaking. Today we'll do a
 91 little bit of speaking, but I'll arrange students in these groups. So you're going to speak in
 92 little groups. It's always easier, I think, speaking in little groups rather than larger groups.
 93 And you don't have to worry about preparing because I have very short questions
 94 for you to talk about. So, stay in your groups and we'll...

Group A was on screen again now. The teacher came over to monitor their work. Each student had a card with a topic which they had to talk about in their groups.

95 M1 (xxx) Go on. (*Long pause*). Okay. My topic is have you ever wished you were opposite
 96 sex?
 97 F1 (*Looks at M1's card and smiles.*) Ohh (...)
 98 F2 It's easy.
 99 F1 Yeah. (*M1 gives the card to F2. M1 and F2 laugh.*)
 100 F2 (*Reads the card.*) It's easy. Of course. My mother cooks everything for us. And also
 101 we in Korea have discrimination about sex. If we want to get a job, the company want
 102 you, er, prefer men to women.
 103 M1 (xxx)
 104 F2 This is also discrimination, I think.
 105 M1 Why?
 106 F2 It's a pity.
 107 M1 Okay.
 108 F2 My mother always asked to me, "You shouldn't go back home until 11 o'clock, by
 109 11 o'clock, before 11 o'clock." (xxx) I thought maybe, I wish I were a man. If I were a
 110 man my mother (x) not. Free. Free. I can do everything—whatever I want, because if I
 111 want to go out by myself (xx) it's dangerous. If I were a man my mother (xxx). (*T comes
 112 closer and listens.*)
 113 T So your mother (xx) just allow you to do (xxx).
 114 F2 (xxx) I feel more freedom.
 115 T All right. You feel you'd have more freedom. (*F2 is interested in T's expression. So T
 116 repeats*) I feel I would have more freedom.
 117 F2 (*Repeats*) I feel I would have more freedom.
 118 T (*Smiles*) All right. Would you like to move on to the next topic? (*T goes to see another
 119 group. SS read their cards.*)

After a few minutes, the teacher came back to Group A to check the group's discussion.

120 M1 (*Talks about his topic.*) Everything, everyone should get a good quality of health care,
 121 but I (xx) because if the health care is free maybe (xxx) I mean lots of people west* all
 122 the resources.
 123 T Waste.
 124 M1 Waste. Waste the resources of health care, because it's free. So maybe some people one
 125 day just a little bit of sickness or (xx) maybe they feel they are old they just go to the
 126 hospital not to the doctor. All the day, maybe one day one time or two times, because it's
 127 free, because they know how to use this facility. So I think it's better to charge this, but
 128 not very much.
 129 T Okay, that's a good point. So you're saying that if it's free people would take advantage
 130 of it and abuse the system. Do others feel the same?
 131 F3 In Russia (xxx).
 132 T (*To F1*) What do you think, [F1]?
 133 F1 (*Turns to M1*) Yeah, I agree with you.
 134 F2 I think if it's the system, it's impossible.
 135 M1 (xxx). But in Taiwan nowadays...
 136 F2 But some persons have to pay the money for them. I think everybody can't get it free. It
 137 is impossible. If (xx) to run the hospital, hire the doctor, or nurse, we have to pay the
 138 money. Who pay the money?
 139 T Oh. Okay. I see. I understand what you're saying. Yeah. It's paid through the taxation. So
 140 really it's not necessarily free. Everybody pays taxation. But everyone can get a doctor
 141 care if they pay taxation. But the system in Australia is everyone who works pays tax.

- 142 Those people who are not working are not taxed. So they are supported by everyone else.
 143 But sometimes people feel it's not fair, that they pay too much tax. And in Taiwan, is it
 144 free? How does it work in Taiwan?
 145 M1 Because we have special health insurance (xxx). Um, I think the taxation (xxx) is the
 146 same as in Australia. But if you're sick just go to the hospital, all the medicine (xx) and
 147 the tablets is free and all the consultation of the doctor is free. But (xxx) maybe I have to
 148 pay about 2 dollars.
 149 T Okay.
 150 M1 To make (xxx).
 151 T So just a small contribution. (*M1 nods*).

The teacher went to see the other groups. Group A continued the discussion. After a few minutes, the teacher introduced another topic. It was a recorded SBS TV program called *Front Up*—showing interviews of people in the street talking about themselves.

- 152 T (xxx) series of interviews and you're going to listen to four different people talk about
 153 themselves and I got a sheet here, double-sided, that you can use to take notes. Just
 154 have a look at the sheet and make sure that you understand the piece before we start.
 155 Okay? (*Long pause. Later T distributes the sheets.*)

Teacher and students moved on to discuss the contents of the sheet. This time it was about the first person interviewed in the TV program.

- 156 F4 Principle
 157 T Pardon?
 158 F4 Principle.
 159 T Her principles. Yeah, what she believes in.
 160 F4 What is 'oodles'?
 161 T Which, for which character?
 162 F4 Number 1.
 163 T For Mark? 'Oodles of conformity.'
 164 F4 (xx) (*F4 tries to pronounce 'oodles'*) What does it mean?
 165 T Oh, 'oodles of conformity.' Oodles (...)
 166 SS Oodles.
 167 T Oodles of conformity. That's what I want you to find out as you listen. (*T and SS*
 168 *laugh*). He talks about oodles. Oodles. 'Oodle' is a slang term for 'a lot', of 'a lot', 'a
 169 great deal of.' Oodles of poohs means a lot of poohs. Just slang. (xxx). And then for
 170 Naomi. She says, "I got the short straw." I want you to listen for that too. What she (xx).
 171 Will you all be able to see the video over here? (*Asking SS in Group B*).

The teacher played the video. The video was about an SBS reporter's interviews, first with Mark, an American film maker in Sydney, and second with Naomi, a retired flight attendant. Mark had been diagnosed with HIV-Positive and yet he was very optimistic about his life. He was talking about himself and his family. Naomi talked about her job and family. After the interviews were shown, the teacher explained what she wanted the students to do next.

- 172 T (xxxx) Mark, and then you can have a quick chat about it. (*Long pause, due to teacher*
 173 *preparing the equipment*). What I would like you to do now is altogether compare what
 174 you got. See if you can fill the gaps with each other's (xxxx).

All groups started to discuss. The teacher was with Group A and she joined the group discussion.

- 175 T All right. What about Um family? There was a lot said about his mother. He had strong
 176 feelings about his mother. Is it all positive or all negative, or both?
 177 M1 Both.
 178 T Both. What are some of the positive things he said about his mother?
 179 M1 (xxxx)
 180 T Go on. Go on.

- 181 M1 He said (xxxx). He said he didn't live together with his father and mother (xxx). He said
 182 he had been affected by his mother.
 183 T That's right. Have been affected is the same. How? What has his mother given him or she
 184 taught him? (*No answer*). What was his mother's occupation?
 185 F2 Stripper.
 186 T Stripper. (*Smiles*). Stripper.
 187 M1 What?
 188 F2 Stripper.
 189 T Stripper. (*To M1*)
 190 M1 Oh, okay. I Understand. (*Smiles*).
 191 T But what was her personality like? What type of (person) is the mother?
 192 F2 (xxx). Maybe.
 193 T Okay. He used the word 'eccentric'. Eccentric—what does it mean?
 194 F2 Special.
 195 T Special.
 196 F2 Unique.
 197 T Unique, confident, unusual. Eccentric. E-C-C-E-N-T-R-I-C. (*SS write down*).
 198 Yes. (...) T-R-I-C.

The teacher went to see another group. She came back to Group A after a little while.

- 199 T Okay. Let's summarise what you have gathered, what information you have gathered for
 200 Um Mark. Okay? So, Um, occupation?
 201 M Artist.
 202 T Yes. What specifically type of artist? What was he? Occupation? What did he
 203 do?
 204 F Film maker.
 205 T Film maker. Film maker.

The discussion lasted for more than 15 minutes with the teacher asking students to answer the questions in the paper she had distributed earlier.

- 206 T Perhaps what we might do is we might, instead of going on to Naomi, we might go back
 207 to Mark with the information (xxxx). Um, nationality? Where was he from?
 208 SS American
 209 T American. San Francisco. And his significant personal issue? What did he talk about?
 210 This table over here (xxxx). And [M3], what did he speak about?
 211 F2 Visiting Australia (*F2 'stole' the other student's turn*).
 212 T Pardon?
 213 F2 Visiting Australia (*Smiles*).
 214 T Visit?
 215 F2 Visiting Australia.
 216 T Visiting Australia. Yes. He enjoys visiting Australia. Yes.
 217 M3 His work is very important.
 218 T Yes, his work is very important. Yes. And?
 219 F6 His sickness.
 220 T Sickness. Which was?
 221 F6 HIV-Positive.
 222 T He is HIV-Positive. Um, what else did he say about Um, he said a lot about his sickness.
 223 What else did he say?
 224 F6 About suicide. (*Laughs*).
 225 T Pardon?
 226 F6 About suicide.
 227 T Suicide. Who did he discuss suicide with? Or in reference to what suicide? Who did he
 228 say was talking about suicide?
 229 F6 (xxx). His friends?
 230 T His friends, people (All right. What about his attitudes towards life? He enjoyed life?)
 231 F6 Easy-going.
 232 T Pardon.

- 233 F2 Easy-going.
- 234 M Healthy life style
- 235 T Healthy life style. What -was it entirely health, his life style? Was he very healthy?
- 236 No! Why not? Because he still (xxx). Did you hear the word drugs? Drinks? Okay. So
- 237 not entirely healthy life style. What about his feelings towards his mother? [F4]?
- 238 F4 He feels sad because his mother [don't] care about him.
- 239 T Yes, yes. |
- 240 F4 | Especially after having HIV.
- 241 T That's right. After he was diagnosed with HIV, his mother did not really want to support
- 242 him. Anything else about his mother? What about her personality? [F6]?
- 243 F6 Eccentric.
- 244 T Eccentric. Yes. That she was very =
- 245 F6 = She's a strip dancer.
- 246 T A stripper or striptease dancer. Yes, yes. (*Long pause*). What else about the mother? He
- 247 said about a lot of negative things about her too. What was negative?
- 248 F4 She always go out. Always Um travel.
- 249 T Travel a lot?
- 250 F4 Yes.
- 251 T Okay. I don't remember that, but I'll listen carefully next time. Okay. Did you hear about
- 252 her attitude towards immigrants? What did he say?
- 253 F4 (xxx). He said it's not immigrants fault but the government's fault.
- 254 T It's government's fault. About what?
- 255 M3 Health care.
- 256 T Health care. Mother was complaining about health care. Who did she blame?
- 257 M3 The immigrants.
- 258 T The immigrants.
- 259 M3 And she's one.
- 260 T And she's one. From where?
- 261 M3 Germany.
- 262 T Germany. That's right. Okay. Father? (*No response*). Did he like his father?
- 263 M3 No.
- 264 T Yes? No? Yes, the father was supportive. Father was supportive. Supportive. What about
- 265 the brother?
- 266 M3 Lonely.
- 267 F4 In Saudi Arabia.
- 268 T In Saudi Arabia. Why? Why did he live in Saudi Arabia?
- 269 M3 To go away from the family.
- 270 T (*Laughs*). To get away from the family. (*Laughs*). Because of his family he lives away
- 271 alone. Okay. Anything else about the brother?
- 272 F4 He's single.
- 273 T Single and?
- 274 F4 He's not gay.
- 275 T Not gay. Unlike Mark. Sister?
- 276 F6 Has husband and child.
- 277 T Yes.
- 278 F4 She lives in New York.
- 279 T Lives in New York, husband and child.
- 280 M3 Eight years old.
- 281 T Pardon?
- 282 M3 Eight years old.
- 283 T Eight years old. Okay, I didn't pick that up, but I'll listen carefully. Okay, the last
- 284 heading. What does he refer to when he talks about 'oodles of conformity'? Well, we
- 285 know what 'oodles' means. What's conformity? To conform. What does it mean?
- 286 M3 To adjust.
- 287 T Yes, to adjust. Yes, to identify with some other person or attitude. Okay. Tradition. To
- 288 conform is to follow tradition. He talked about the place he lived in having oodles of
- 289 conformity. What do you think that means? (*No response*). All right. I'm going to play it
- 290 again.

The teacher played the tape once again and paused as well as asked questions whenever necessary.

- 291 T He said, 'I'm like the Energizer bunny.' (*No response*). Do you watch TV?
- 292 SS Yes.
- 293 T What is it [M3]? Watch [M3]. Show us what the energizer bunny is.
- 294 M3 (xxx).
- 295 T Have you ever seen that advertisement? Bunny, rabbit. Energizer, battery. The rabbit that goes like that. He said he's like the energizer bunny because he thinks that the bunny can still go on. He said he had (xxx) suicide as well. "She doesn't deal with it." What's another way of saying =
- 299 F = (xxx).
- 300 T Does -he's referring to his HIV. "My mother doesn't deal with it."
- 301 M3 (xxx).
- 302 T Yeah. I think, she maybe, she might care but she doesn't know how to show her feelings.
- 303 To deal with something could be you don't care, but it's also likely that you don't
- 304 want to expose yourself. 'Doesn't deal with it'—cannot accept it. Here we have the
- 305 of conformity. He said he was grown up in 'suburbia with oodles of conformity'.
- 306 Suburbia. What is the symbol of suburbia?
- 307 F Country.
- 308 T Country?
- 309 M3 Countryside.
- 310 T Countryside. In Adelaide suburbia. What's suburbia? Suburbs. Is that the country? No.
- 311 F4 Between city and country.
- 312 T Okay. Between the city and the country.
- 313 M3 (xxx).
- 314 T Yeah. What happens in the suburbs? What do people do in the suburbs in Australia?
- 315 Sometimes when the students come to Australia, they say, "Oh, there's not much life in
- 316 Adelaide, because people are hiding." Suburbia. People have their own houses. They
- 317 have their own families.. They keep to themselves. Tradition. Tradition of staying away,
- 318 not mixing. Okay. He talked about conformity in terms of Um, I think he talked about it
- 319 being boring. When people say suburbia they usually mean it's boring. I think that's what
- 320 he referred to. "Brother's ill adjusted." What reference did he make about his brother
- 321 being ill-adjusted. He mentioned it before. The reason why he lives in Saudi Arabia?
- 322 M1 To get away from their parents.
- 323 T To get away from their parents. Okay. Ill-adjusted, to get away from their parents. Um, I
- 324 didn't (xxxx). I forgot. Okay, let's have a look at the next one. Naomi. She's quite
- 325 different. Retired?
- 326 M1 Retired flight attendant.
- 327 T Retired flight attendant. What did she say about her former occupation.
- 328 M1 It's the best job in the world.
- 329 T Best job in the world. Why?
- 330 M1 She can stay in five star hotels.
- 331 T Five star hotels.
- 332 M1 And travel around the world.
- 333 T And travel around the world. Great. Attitude towards her husband? What did she say
- 334 about her husband?
- 335 F2 Fine (xx).
- 336 T Pardon?
- 337 F2 Fine but a little bit changing.
- 338 T Yes. Fine but changed a little bit. Why did it change?
- 339 F2 Because his, her husband often go overseas.
- 340 T Okay. In the past he went overseas and that perhaps changed, but something more
- 341 profound. Why?
- 342 F2 Lose the job?
- 343 T He lost the job. He lost his job. Okay. Anything more about that? About attitudes towards
- 344 her husband?
- 345 F2 She feels bored.
- 346 T She feels bored?

The discussion lasted until the end of the session that day.

L.1.1.2. Day 2 (Thursday, 27 March 1998; 11.15am-1pm, 2nd session)

- 1 T The last part—completion exercise. You can finished that for homework. But let's just
2 have a look at the first part. The part that's about jargons and idioms. (*To the board*) I
3 wrote this on the board as you're listening and one of the things I wrote is this one. But I
4 noticed that on the sheet they spelt it wrong. The spelling they have there is 'creeky'
5 which is not an English word at all. It's 'crikey.' It's not a C, just a K. Crikey. Crikey.
6 It's an old Australian exclamation.
7 SS Crikey.
8 T It means some thing like 'goodness.' But American tell us what it says 'crikey.'
9 C-R-I-K-E-Y. Old people tend to use it.
10 F6 Expression of astonishment, [amused] or =
11 T =[mild]
12 F6 (xxx)
13 T Yap. Okay. So, astonishment, surprised. Someone might say 'goodness' or 'wow.' Or
14 they might say crikey. But the very first one. "Okay, chop, chop, let's get the show on
15 the road."
16 F6 Hurry up.
17 T What does it mean? Hurry up. Hurry up. 'Chop, chop'—the action chop, chop,
18 chop,chop—when you're cutting vegetables or meat. You do it very fast. And "Let's get
19 the show on the road." Let's move. The second one—'political pow-wow' and 'go nuts'
20 Meeting. Pow-wow comes from native American Indian. (*T writes on the board*). The
21 meeting of chiefs. And if someone goes nuts? (*No response*). Usually means someone =
22 = Stubborn.
23 T Stubborn. Hmm, no.
24 M Crazy.
25 T Crazy. Usually it means when someone goes crazy. But here the government, the leaders,
26 or the states go nuts. They didn't go crazy. What do you think it might mean? Could be
27 stubborn.
28 F Don't care?
29 T I think it's the opposite. Opposite. They do care. Perhaps they do care very strongly they
30 get angry. They go nuts.
31 M3 They go nowhere.
32 T They are aware?
33 M3 No. They go nowhere.
34 T They go nowhere. Yeah. Very frustrating. So it makes them feel very upset. Three—
35 Um (...) 'set the dummy.' (*Points on the board*). What's a dummy? Dummy?
36 SS (xxx)
37 T Okay. One meaning might be someone who's stupid. Another meaning, when you go to
38 the department store, you might have a shop dummy. What would that be? (*No*
39 *response*). A shop dummy in a department store. Shop? Department? Dummy? You
40 know, plastic models that they put the clothes on. The figures.
41 SS Mannequins.
42 T Mannequins. The mannequins. Sometimes they say a shop dummy, a store dummy.
43 M Shop dummy?
44 M3 Is it the same as (xx)?
45 T Which is 'dommy'? What's that?
46 M3 The same spelling, but (xxx) the second M. (xxx)
47 T (*Smiles*). Uh! No, no. I'll tell you that in a moment. I'll tell you that in a moment. Okay.
48 I'll come back. First one, someone who's silly, second one, a store mannequin.
49 Third one, to do with babies. (*To one S—F4*), you said you knew what that was?
50 M ➡ Dummy is like a shop. (xxx).
51 T Okay. The shop. But the one to do with babies? (*No response*). What do babies do if
52 they're not drinking milk? They are -sometimes their mothers put something in their
53 mouths. (*Makes sucking noise*). You know, the little rubber [thing]. (*Writes on the*
54 *board*). American English calls it 'pacifier'—which is a good word because that means
55 that it is there to help them relax. But Australians say it's a dummy. Um, (xxx) to be
56 talked about. Four—'lobbying in.' (*No response*). Did anyone find that—'lobbying in'?
57 SS (xxx).

- 58 T Yeah. (*To one S*) [F6] ? Casually walking in. To walk in casually. Lobbying in.
59 Just walk in casually. 'Freebie'?
- 60 F6 Free of charge.
61 T Free of charge. Like breakfast, you say 'brekkie.' [Like to put these endings on words].
62 Crook? If you say, "You're crook"—what does it mean?
63 F6 Sick.
64 T Sick. Good. Go and call a turkey. This is about giving up smoking. If you go (xxx), what
65 happens? (*No response*). You give up immediately, and you suffer the consequences. It's
66 very unpleasant. (...) And the last one, 'to clean up.' "The site is cleaned up"—what do
67 you think happened?
68 M3 Won.
69 T He won. If you clean up in a championship, it means that you clear everybody from your
70 path. You are the winner. (...). Um, the completion exercises you can just
71 (xxx) that for homework. (*5 second pause; T goes to one of the groups*). Just do that for
72 homework. Let's do something different now. Finish the (xx) and get on to 'management
73 styles'-- behaviour in the work environment. (*Long pause*). Can you just call out names
74 of the world's famous people. Er, world's Um, successful people—business people?
75 F6 Bill Gates.
76 T Uhh, of course. The first one. All right. There are probably some that I don't know if
77 [they come] from your own cities or countries.
78 F6 Mr. Hayek.
79 T I don't know that. Can you spell that?
80 F6 H-A- =
81 T = Yeah.
82 F6 H-A-Y-E-K.
83 T (*Writes on the board*) Okay. Who's Mr Hayek?
84 F6 He invented Swatch.
85 T Wow!
86 F6 And, er (...) =
87 T = Invented Swatch watches.
88 F6 And the owner of Rolex.
89 T Rolex?
90 F6 (xxx).
91 T Any other business people—successful people that you can think of?
92 M3 (*After a few seconds*) Rockefeller.
93 T Yap, Rockefeller. Rockefeller (*Writes on the board*). He's still alive?
94 M3 No, but (xxx).
95 T Any families? Rockefeller. Yap. Are there any people in his family who (xxx)? (*T writes*
96 *on the board*). No, I'm not sure. I don't know how to spell that. Does that look right?--
97 Rockerfeller*? Any others?
98 F4 Kasogi
99 T Who?
100 F4 Adnan Kasogi
101 T Uh, okay. Can you spell that for me? (*Smiles*).
102 F4 Um, K-A, (...) K-A-S-O (...)
103 T K-A-S-O (...)
104 F4 G-Y, O-G-H-Y (*F4 seems uncertain*).
105 T G-Y, O-G-H?
106 F4 No, no. Kasogi.
107 T H? G-H? K-A-S-H? Okay?
108 M4 (*From another group*). K-A-S-O-G-I. Adnan =
109 F4 = Adnan Kasogi. A-D-N-A-N.
110 T Can you tell us who this person is?
111 F4 Ohh, have a ship for oil—tanker. And also, weapon busineSSman. Um, shoes.
112 T Yes, I think I recall the weapon's part. Any others?
113 M2 Li Ka Sing.
114 T (*Writes on the board, spelling*). Who? Li Ka?
115 M2 Sing. S-I-N-G.
116 T Where does he come from?
117 M2 He came from Um, Hong Kong.

- 118 T From Hong Kong?
- 119 M2 He's the richest man in Hong Kong.
- 120 T The richest man in Hong Kong—still?
- 121 M2 Yes.
- 122 T Still?
- 123 M2 He has many property in Canada.
- 124 T In Canada?
- 125 M2 Vancouver.
- 126 T Okay. So he invested in property and other thing too perhaps.
- 127 M2 Yeah.
- 128 T Yeah. Any other famous people?
- 129 F6 Aristoteles.*
- 130 T Which one? Aristotle—who's dead but he's =
- 131 F4? = Athena Onassis.
- 132 T [In Georgia] xxx. (*Some SS laugh*). Very interesting. Okay (xxx).. What's her name?
- 133 F6 Aristotle.
- 134 T Aristotle is the grandfather.
- 135 F4 Athena Onassis, the granddaughter.
- 136 T Athena. Yeah. She has about four names, doesn't she? This is very good. She's very young, isn't she—twelve, fourteen?
- 137 F Ten.
- 138 T Ten, ten years?
- 139 F6 No, no, no—more.
- 140 T How old?
- 141 M3/F6 Fourteen.
- 142 T Fourteen, fourteen years old. That's very (xx.). Any others? (*M3 raises his hand*).
- 143 T Yeah?(*To M3*).
- 144 M3 Cresus.
- 145 T Who? I've never =
- 146 M3 = (xxx). Never heard?
- 147 T No. Spell it for me.
- 148 M3 C-R-E-S-U-S.
- 149 T Ah-ha. Who's that?
- 150 M3 He's a legendary Um rich [man] (xxx).
- 151 T Legendary, yes?
- 152 M3 Legendary, because he was (xxx) maybe about 600 or 700 years before Jesus.
- 153 T That one. Yes, I remember now. I remember the notion of a lot of gold, because there was an expression in English 'as rich as Cresus.' That's it. Yeah.
- 154 M3 Yes. (*Smiles*)
- 155 T Okay. (*Smiles*). I thought that this person was living today. Any others—that you can think of?
- 156 F6 Rotschild*
- 157 T Rotschild (*T corrects F6's pronunciation*).
- 158 F6 Yeah, Rotschild.
- 159 T Ammerican? (*T writes on the board*) Is that right? How do you....probably like that.
- 160 F6 What's the business of Rotschild?
- 161 F6 (xxx) woman, Nadina*.
- 162 T Nadine.
- 163 F6 Yeah.
- 164 T And what does she do?
- 165 F6 She's writing a book—cooking.
- 166 T (*Chuckles; SS laugh*). So she's very wealthy—successful?
- 167 F6 Yeah, I think so. But what she's doing now is writing book—cooking—and good manners book. Things like that.
- 168 T Okay, but her background is from?
- 169 F6 She was an actress but she married Mr Rotschild.
- 170 T Ohh, okay. Is she French?
- 171 F6 French? Yes, I suppose so.
- 172 T French. Okay.
- 173 M3 (xxx.). Her family is rich because her husband has a big wineyard* in (x).

- 178 T Big vineyard. (*Corrects M3's pronunciation*). Vineyard.
 179 M3 Vineyard, okay.
 180 T In France? (*M3 nods*). Okay, all right. Well, thank you then. Probably enough. I'm pleased
 181 to see that you included two women, or one girl and a woman. But usually these people
 182 who are very successful are men, aren't they? You don't really get that many women
 183 who have reached the top of the business pyramid, I suppose you can call it. Today (xxx)
 183 in terms of the way that they manage. A little exercise for you to do. Do this together.
 185 We'll do the questionnaire (...) Or do you want to share? That's fine.

The students worked on the questionnaire. The teacher went around and monitor and also assisted each student in each group. Conversation between teacher and students was quite inaudible. After about 15 minutes the class continued.

- 186 T Let's stop that now, and see what you have come up with (*Prepares the board*). So
 187 let's -let's hear your first one from each group. What did you think was your priority (*To*
 188 *Group A which today consists of only two SS: F3 and M1*). [M1] Which is the first one?
 189 Number 1, for the two of you.
 190 M1 Er, I think maybe being single-minded and determined*.
 191 T Okay—single-minded and determined.
 192 M1 Determined, determined (*Corrects for himself*).
 193 T Okay, single-minded and determined (*writes on the board*). Is that hyphenated there—
 194 single-minded? Hyphenated? (*checks her own paper on the desk*). No? Yes, okay. (*To*
 195 *Group B which today consists of two SS: F4 and F7*) That group?
 196 F4 Single-minded and (xx).
 197 T Okay. That group (*To Group C: M3, F6, and M5*).
 198 M Our group—number 1? (*M is from group D*).
 199 T Over here. (*Points at Group C*). [M5]—number 1?
 200 F6 Being able to take the initiative. (*F6 'stole' this opportunity to speak*).
 201 T Okay. So you've got the one with 'initiative.' (*Writes on the board*). And this Group? (*To*
 202 *Group D: M2, F8, M4*).
 203 M4 The same.
 204 T The same. Okay. All right. So this is what you have for number 1. Two? (*To Group A*).
 205 F3 xxx (different number). (*F3 and M1 couldn't reach an agreement*).
 206 T (*Smiles; SS laugh*). You couldn't agree. You couldn't agree.
 207 F3 Good time manager.
 208 T Time manager and?
 209 M1 (*Smiles*) Okay. I'll agree (*T & SS laugh*).
 210 T Okay, being a good time-manager. All right. And?
 211 F4 Being able to take initiative.
 212 T Okay, so you've got the initiative there. (*Writes on the board*). Yap? (*To Group D*).
 213 M Single-minded.
 214 T Single-minded. All right (*Writes on the board*). Okay, and three? (*Turns to Group A*).
 215 What did you say for three— [F3]?
 216 F3 (xxx) initiative.
 217 T Initiative. Okay. (*Turns to Group B*).
 218 F4 I think good communication skills
 219 T Okay, having good communication skills (*Writes on the board; turns to Group C now*).
 220 F6 Being prepared to take risks.
 221 T Being prepared to take risks. So a risk-taker. (*Writes on the board; now turns to Group*
 222 *D*). Your group here, [F8]?
 223 F8 Er, getting the best out of people.
 224 T Okay. So, getting the best out of people. All right. We're starting to diversify here a little
 225 bit. These are quite different (*Points at some of the phrases on the board*). We haven't
 226 talked about [niche]. All right. So we're starting to look at different (xx,) okay? Four
 227 (*Turns to Group A*).
 228 M1 Four?
 229 T Yeah.
 230 M1 Staying calm under pressure.
 231 T Being calm under pressure?
 232 M1 Yeah.

- 233 T (*Turns to Group B*) Er...[F7], your group?
- 234 F4/F7 Same.
- 235 T The same—calm. (*Turns to Group C*). [F6], four?
- 236 F6 Er, okay. Um, being energetic and assertive. (*F6 sounds desperate*).
- 237 T (*Smiles*) Okay, so energetic, assertive (*Writes on the board*). This group? (*Turns to Group D*).
- 238
- 239 M Conscientious, and =
- 240 T = Conscientious and?
- 241 MM Zorro* (*Mispronounce 'thorough'*).
- 242 T And?
- 243 MM Zorro*.
- 244 M Zorro* (*Tries to pronounce it correctly*).
- 245 T (*Understands; smiles*). I thought—this is interesting—I thought you were telling me this
- 246 (*Writes 'sorrow' on the board; T & SS laugh*). What was it you were telling me? I had to
- 247 listen carefully—what was it?
- 248 MM Thorough.
- 249 T Thorough. Very good. Okay (*Writes on the board*). Thorough, thorough. Ehm, calmness,
- 250 Um, the energetic, the assertiveness, conscientiousness, and thorough—being
- 251 thorough. Last one? (*Turns to Group A*).
- 252 F3 Being prepared in taking risks. Take risks.
- 253 M Risks. Okay (*Turns to Group B*). [F6], five—your group? (*At this point, F3*
- 254 *goes out of the class; T concentrates on Group B, but Group B's discussion wasn't quite*
- 255 *audible*). Risks? Okay. (*Writes on the board*) and then turns to Group C).
- 256 F6 Communication skills.
- 257 T Okay, communication skills. We have that down there. And this group (*Turns to Group D*).
- 258
- 259 F7 Stay calm under pressure.
- 260 T Calm. Okay, well, essentially it looks like you have selected similar ones. Um, single-
- 261 mindedness, that's there as well. Then the initiative came up there and also here and
- 262 there as well. So it looks like these two seemed to be highly valued by you mostly. All
- 263 right, but one of the things this article is about is whether there is any difference between
- 264 male and female. Did you come to any agreement there? Did you think there is any
- 265 difference? (*No response*). Do these styles pertain to male or female or are they gender-
- 266 neutral? (*No response; T writes on the board*). Gender? (.....) To do with the social
- 267 aspects of being male and female. Do you think these belongs to women or men?
- 268 M2 Men.
- 269 T Men. (*Turn to M2*) I noticed that you put mostly men. (*T & SS laugh*). Why?
- 270 [M2], why did you put mostly men?
- 271 M2 Yeah, because this is er, this is er, men have the tendency =
- 272 T =To have those skills?
- 273 M2 Yeah
- 274 T It's interesting. (*Takes the picture*). If you go to the front page, it's clearly giving you an
- 275 idea that perhaps this could be about women too. Woman. (*Laughs*). You didn't look at
- 276 the picture?
- 277 M2 No.
- 278 T Okay. What about [the view of] the others? Um, [M2] did you think, did you think there
- 279 was any specific notion here of being male or female?
- 280 M3 (xxx) the initiative.
- 281 T Really? Can you tell me why?
- 282 M3 Um, [sorry] what's the question?
- 283 T Okay. [M2] said these qualities are largely pertaining to men. Do you agree?
- 284 M3 (xx).
- 285 T (*Smiles*) Er? Yeah?
- 286 M3 (xxx) I don't agree.
- 287 T You don't agree. Why?
- 288 M3 Because (xxxx).
- 289 T Okay, okay.
- 290 M3 So I suppose (xxxx).
- 291 T Okay. So it's not to do with gender. All right. Well, then, can someone tell me or try and
- 292 give their opinion or explain why is it that there are so few women at the very top of

- 293 business? (*Turns to F6, smiles*). [F6], before I'm finished you have the answer. Why?
- 294 F6 I think sometimes [if you] are a supervisor and you are in a meeting and you want to
- 295 present a new idea and you are a woman, men are (xxx). (*F6 speaks so fast her comments*
- 296 *are inaudible and incomprehensible*).
- 297 T Okay.
- 298 F6 (xxx).
- 299 T So women would have to work harder at succeeding .
- 300 F6 Yes =
- 301 T = Than men. Would anyone agree with that, or disagree? (*Turns to M2*).
- 302 M2 (xxx)
- 303 T Yeah? (*Turns to Group A: F3 & M1*). Okay, but first I want to hear from [F3] and then I
- 304 wanna hear from [M1] . Yeah? (*F3 laughs*). It looks like you are about to go? (*F3 doesn't*
- 305 *seem to understand*). Are you about to go? (*More slowly*).
- 306 F3 (xxx).
- 307 T Leaving?
- 308 F3 No.
- 309 T Not yet.
- 310 F3 (xxx).
- 311 T Okay. Can you tell us? What do you feel—what do you believe?
- 312 F3 I believe sometimes women [are not always] very good manager.
- 313 T Yap. Not always—why?
- 314 F3 Yeah, from my own experience.
- 315 T From your own experience.
- 316 F3 Yes.
- 317 T Can you give us an example?
- 318 F3 Um, only I can say that (...) (xxx).
- 319 T You prefer that. Okay. [M1], you didn't agree with [F6].
- 320 M1 I think women, they are not determined.*
- 321 T They are not determined. (*Corrects F3's pronunciation*).
- 322 M1 Determined.
- 323 T Why?
- 324 M1 Most of them, they, maybe they have lots of ideas, but they can't choose them. (*T*
- 325 *laughs*). They're all (xxx).
- 326 T (*Laughs*). You say they're indecisive?
- 327 M1 Yeah, indecisive.
- 328 T Uh...that's very nice. (*Laughs*).
- 329 M1 (xxx), and they cannot x their decision on a subject themselves.
- 330 T Okay, SO they can't make a decision. Is that what you're saying? Women cannot make a
- 331 decision.
- 332 F (xx).
- 333 T Wow, wow! How did the women in the room think about that?
- 334 F6 It's men who never know (xxx).
- 335 T (*Laughs; turns to F4*). [F4], you have a very interesting position because lawyers are
- 336 largely men.
- 337 F4 Yeah, Um (...)
- 338 T What's your experience?
- 339 F4 Um, I agree [with] (xxx).
- 340 T Okay.
- 341 F4 It depends on the circumstances.
- 342 T Yap.
- 343 F4 Um, and environment. It's very hard—hard circumstances, sometimes more than women.
- 344 But I mean that work cannot, can be done by male and female, sometimes women not the
- 345 men, in case of patience.
- 346 T So you think women tend to be more patient.
- 347 F4 Yes, more patient.
- 348 T Okay =
- 349 F4 = And listener, a good listener, and because of that sometimes they, we can
- 350 get more initiative.
- 351 T So you can have more initiative?
- 352 F4 More initiative because of that xxx.

- 353 T Okay. All right. Do you, the males in the room, agree that women are more patient and
354 they can take the initiative? [M4]?
- 355 M2 ➔ Yeah, I agree.
- 356 T [M2]?
- 357 M2 Yeah.
- 358 T You agree with [F4]?
- 359 M2 I agree only with the patience =
- 360 T = With being patient.
- 361 M2 Yeah, but the initiative is men. Men is, men is more initiative than woman.
- 362 T You think so?
- 363 M2 Yeah.
- 364 T Okay. What is your experience and your example?
- 365 M2 Yeah, I think if woman in the high position in a company or government, I think that is a
366 rare situation.
- 367 T (*Agrees*) It is rare, yeah. But why? We heard from [F5]. Why?
- 368 M2 Because Um, I think women is not really, can bear the pressures.
- 369 T Okay.
- 370 M2 I think men are more sustained to the pressure. So maybe, Um, I think if men in a high
371 position in a hierarchy, I think they don't have really stress, they don't really...I think
372 they can handle the stress more than women.
- 373 T Okay. Can anyone now respond to [M2]? Do they agree with that—that women cannot
374 handle the stress (*laughs*). [F5], you must have something to say. Is that true—do you
375 think?
- 376 F5 I don't think so.
- 377 T Why not?
- 378 F5 I think the stress, we all understand the stress.
- 379 T Yeah.
- 380 F5 But look at Bill Clinton—without Hillary? Nothing. (*T & SS laugh*).
- 381 T Uh...
- 382 F5 How many times I saw my father going to my mother [when making] a decision. What
383 should I do? So I think...(*T & SS laugh*).
- 384 M2 That's because your father needs some advice from his partner.
- 385 F5 No, no. I think sometimes women think in a different way than men. I think, I don't, I'm
386 not trying to say that men is wrong, but you think in a different way. Sometimes we change
387 ideas to see (xx) to do it, to manage to do that (xxx).
- 388 M2 Yeah, sometimes good ideas come from the woman. (*T & SS laugh*).
- 389 T Sometimes. At least sometimes. Okay (*T & SS laugh*). I've made positive notes. Let's
390 continue with the exercise. Here's a reading about successful women. I want you to read
391 that. And there are some exercises to do after that. Two sides of these.

When the students were working, one student (F4) left the classroom. The discussion continued after about 15 minutes.

- 392 T Some seem to be still reading, but I think most of you have already finished. (*Now F3*
393 *leaves the class*). See you, [F3]. Everybody will see you on Monday. (.....).
- 394 I think yours are probably not as dark as mine is. So excuse me. Everybody has heard of
395 MacDonald's, haven't they? Yes? Franchise?
- 396 M French fries.
- 397 T Franchise—not French fries. (*T & SS laugh*). Franchise. MacDonald's—an international
398 company, and yet people who live in Adelaide or other cities can own or manage their
399 own store. So what it is is an individual can buy a licence from MacDonald's for many
400 thousands of dollars. That's called franchise. So it's like a licence to do business. (*Turns*
401 *to F4*). [F4], do you have anything to say about that. You probably understand the legal
402 side of it more than what I would. Can you tell us what it means exactly?
- 403 F4 (xxxx).
- 404 T Burger in Adelaide and it should be the same as hamburger in Jakarta. But it's not,
405 because it's slightly different. I know that. (*T & SS laugh*).

The discussion ran for about 20 minutes. I did not record the rest of this discussion. I started recording again when the teacher introduced the last activity of the day.

406 T I said to you the other day that I was going to give you a reading article to do for, not so
407 much a presentation but a discussion. I will give that to you on Monday. It's not gonna
408 be like a formal presentation. It'll be more like tutorial, where we just talk. But for this
409 weekend, what I would like you to do is first focus on the article and do the language
410 exercises that go with it. (*T now distributes the copies of article*). At the end of the sheets
411 that I just handed out to you, it has something that says discuss—you don't have to do
412 it now. It says discuss. Of course we don't have to discuss. So would you like to do that
413 for homework in the form of 250 word of writing? But that's optional. So that's it. Have
414 a nice weekend. See you Monday. Bye.

L.1.1.3. Day 3 (Monday, 30 March 1998; 9-10.50am, 1st session)

1 T (*To F1 who was absent last session*). This something that we did on Friday. You weren't
2 here, because you did TOEIC. So that (...) (*T collects homework papers from other*
3 *groups*). All right. (*now T takes the material for the day's discussion*). I have something
4 for you to read and discuss for Thursday class. (*T distributes the papers to all SS*). Who
5 had got the best eyes here? Good eyes—who? (*T goes to Group D and speaks of the*
6 *members*). Do you wear glasses? You do. Okay, you'd better have the big one, because -
7 (*T & SS laugh*). It's okay. It's not too bad. Unfortunately I had to (xxx). But I'll write on
8 the board [when] I would suggest you to focus on. (*Now T is writing on the board*).
9 Focus on Um something (xxx) you. I want you to read these sheets, evaluate it on your
10 own and then come together as a group and discuss it. I'll explain to you what you have
11 to do. (*T distributes the other sheets of paper*). Read it, think about it, give your
12 individual selection, then as a group you have to come together. And the exercise is that
13 absolutely everybody has to agree, everybody has to agree. You can't just have one for
14 another. The idea was to consensus, to reach consensus. (*T comes to M1 of Group A*). I
15 would like you to...to come and join another group (*Group C*) because it's not enough.
16 Would you like to join either here (*Group C*) or the other one? Would you like to do it
17 now? Yap—because it will be better when you discuss. (*M1 now moves to join Group C*;
18 *T now speaks to the class*). If there is any [note] that you can find, Um, you can ask
19 me about it (xxx).

The 4 groups started to read the sheets and discussed the contents for about 15 minutes.

20 T Has everybody read the actual situation now? Yes. Have you finished reading the
21 situation? Yes. You must select only six. Only six individuals.

Teacher went to check each group. In the meantime, F3 of Group A joined Group D. I concentrated on Group B: F1, F4, F6, and F2. The latter came late and joined Group B on arrival. Teacher was with Group B. The conversation was inaudible as everybody in the class spoke. Teacher gave F2 the sheet to work on and explained the task to her.

22 T Five minutes more and I want you all to report on your sheets. (*SS are still discussing*).
23 Have you finished? Have you finished now? No? (*SS keep discussing*)

Teacher finally started the class discussion by asking each group to report on their sheets. She went to front of the class and began asking questions about the 6 people to select in order to form a new post-war society.

24 F1 Three.
25 T Three.
26 F1 Number three, sorry.
27 T Three.
28 F1 Five.

- 29 T Five.
- 30 F1 Eight.
- 31 T Eight.
- 32 F1 Ten.
- 33 T Ten.
- 34 F1 Eleven.
- 35 T Eleven.
- 36 F1 Twelve.
- 37 T Twelve. All right. Group 2 (*Group C*).
- 38 M1 One.
- 39 T Yap.
- 40 M1 Three, four, five.
- 41 T Three, four, five.
- 42 M1 Ten.
- 43 T Ten.
- 44 M1 Twelve.
- 45 T Twelve. And Group 3? (*Group D*).
- 46 M Four.
- 47 T Yap.
- 48 M Five.
- 49 T Five.
- 50 M Seven.
- 51 T Seven.
- 52 M And nine.
- 53 T Nine.
- 54 M Eleven.
- 55 T Eleven.
- 56 M [Fourteen].
- 57 T Okay. So it looks like 12—everyone agree for 12. Um...
- 58 SS Five.
- 59 T Five, yeah. Ooh. Not much (xxx) in the groups. Okay. (*T takes the paper*). So what did you notice about these categories? What was it that you notice about? What sort of individuals were they?
- 60
- 61
- 62 F2 Different occupations.
- 63 T Okay. So occupations were different. (*T writes on the board*). So you focused on occupations. Occupations were different. Anything else? What made you choose some over others?
- 64
- 65
- 66 F Um, sex.
- 67 T The sex. (*T writes in the board*). Okay. Just the sex?
- 68 F5 (xxx) men.
- 69 T Pardon. Sorry?
- 70 F5 The style of life
- 71 T Life style (*writes on the board*).
- 72 F5 Yes.
- 73 T Life style. When you say life style, do you mean sexual preference?
- 74 F5 Um, (*smiles--affirmative*).
- 75 T Okay. (*T writes on the board*). So do you refer to the ones who were homosexual? Yes.
- 76 Okay. Anything else that you noticed?
- 77 F4 Ability. Ability.
- 78 T Ability (*writes on the board*). What example, [F4]?
- 79 F4 Um, carpenter.
- 80 T All right. You're looking at the skills.
- 81 F4 Yeah.
- 82 T (*Looks at the board*) Skills. Anything else you decided?
- 83 F Knowledge.
- 84 T Knowledge, knowledge. How useful was the knowledge—for what purpose?
- 85 F To use (xxx).
- 86 T Ah-ha. Okay. So forming a new society (*writes on the board*). Any other things?
- 87 F Age.
- 88 T Age. Okay. Any others? (*No response*). Okay. Group 1 and Group 3, you didn't want

- 89 number 1. Group 1, why didn't you want number 1?
- 90 F4 We didn't want number 1.
- 91 T You didn't want number 1. Why?
- 92 F4 (xxx) (*asks F1 to speak for the group*).
- 93 F1 Because she is a racist.
- 94 T Okay. And how would that affect anything?
- 95 F1 Maybe he's too, she's too selfish to forming a new society.
- 96 T Okay.
- 97 F4 Also from her age—thirty-six years old already. So =
- 98 T = Too old, eh? (*smiles*).
- 99 F4 So in this case we have to protect Um female to make them still survive and children, et
- 100 cetera =
- 101 T = Procreation. Yeah. Okay. (*T laughs*). All right, okay. Um, Group 2, you didn't like the
- 102 army instructor. Why not the army instructor? (*T laughs; Group 2 seems uncertain*).
- 103 Don't need such a person? Okay. And Group 3, Um, what was wrong with number 3, the
- 104 black militant biological researcher? Anything?
- 105 F Militant.
- 106 T Militant. You didn't like it (xx). Aggressive? (*No response*) Okay. [F6], one of the things
- 107 you asked me—which was interesting, you've asked me about the Olympic athlete. What
- 108 was the question you asked me?
- 109 F6 Um (*laughs*). I asked you just Um Olympic athlete and [biochemist] is male or female.
- 110 T (*Smiles*). Uh, okay. Ah-ha! What did you decide?
- 111 F6 Uh [I think] the athlete is male.
- 112 T Ah-ha. Why—why did you say it was a male?
- 113 F6 Usually the athlete is male, a male.
- 114 T A male. Okay, all right. So let's just see. How many males and females did you have in
- 115 your group? Did you try and balance them or not? Did you think about that?
- 116 F6 Yeah, we think about that.
- 117 T You did.
- 118 F6 Fertilise. (*T & SS laugh*).
- 119 T For fertilisation purposes?
- 120 F6 Yeah.
- 121 T Did any of you consider that—the male and female balance? (*Turns to Group 1*). You
- 122 did, I know. You did too, because you thought about age. Did, uh, did you feel that
- 123 there were things about these individuals that you didn't like therefore you didn't Um
- 124 put them in? For instance, the racist. I don't think the racist is very popular, was she?
- 125 Yeah? Or was it the age of number 1? Two reasons—the racist, being racist, and the
- 126 age. (*Turns to F5*). [F5], can you comment on that—whether any aspects about these
- 127 individuals that you personally didn't select?
- 128 F5 Number 1? Number 1?
- 129 T Yeah.
- 130 F5 (xx) because usually (xx) you can be racist (xxx).
- 131 T Okay. So you didn't worry about that because this person was a doctor (xx). Okay.
- 132 (*Turns to Group 2*) What about Um, what did you think of number 4, Group 2? You
- 133 chose number 4. Did you have any problems with the sex? Did you think of the person as
- 134 male or female? No? Did you try and balance your group—three and three?
- 135 SS No.
- 136 T (*Laughs*). So you didn't worry about the procreation.
- 137 F5 No because (xxxx).
- 138 T Okay. Um, all right. Okay. Well, this was a good (xx) up to the next part of the lesson.
- 139 And you probably have already guessed, the next part of the lesson [concentrates] on
- 140 gender.
- 141 SS Gender (*Some SS talk within their groups*).
- 142 T Gender—that's the next part of the lesson. That's what we will be talking today. Gender.
- 143 And this exercise has many aspects to it. But one of the things is gender. For instance
- 144 (*mentions F6's name*), you asked me about the gender—whether the person was male or
- 145 female. Also the person number 6. 'Starlet' is normally a term used for young women.
- 146 Okay, although young males also are stars, but... Okay. So for this exercise we didn't
- 147 really know the gender of which ones. We didn't know the sex of which ones? Two?
- 148 Three?

- 149 F4 Three.
 150 T Four?
 151 F Four, five.
 152 T Five? Which other one? What about 7?
 153 F Homosexual?
 154 T Yeah. Male or female? We didn't know, do we? Don't know.
 155 F (xx) homo is male.
 156 T Um, homosexual is a formal term for male or female—could male or female. Usually for
 157 females (*writes on the board*) Um lesbian or for male usually they say gay. But a
 158 homosexual female can also be gay. But we usually distinguish Um between lesbian for
 159 female and gay for male. You know in Sydney, they had the Mardi Gras parade—which
 160 was called 'The Gay and Lesbian Mardi Gras.' And what about 9?
 161 F1 [Homosexual] male.
 162 T Male. Always male, at the moment, at the moment.

These exchange lasted up to about 5 minutes. After that, the teacher introduced another lesson. She told the class she was going to read them a number of sentences and they had to write them down.

- 163 T Um, okay. So you can (xx) on a piece of paper. It doesn't matter. I'm just going to read
 164 them to you and you have to write them down. Five sentences. Are you ready? Number 1:
 165 "A business executive discovers that a long time employee has been stealing from the
 166 company." I'll repeat it for you. (*T repeats the sentence*). What should the executive do?
 167 (*repeats the question*). Number 2: "A robber pulls a gun—that means holds a gun in
 168 front of—pull a gun on a bank teller." (*T repeats the sentence*). What should the bank
 169 teller do? Number 3, yes? (*T responds to a curious S*). Bank teller? (*T goes to the board*
 170 *and writes*) Bank tellers—people who work in a bank giving you the money. Number 3:
 171 "Someone witnesses a pedestrian being hit by a car." I'll repeat (*T repeats the sentence*).
 172 What should the person—the witness—do? (*T goes to the door to see someone who*
 173 *calls in and comes back after a few seconds*). Number 4: "A relative is trying to give up
 174 smoking." I'll repeat. (*T repeats the sentence*). What should the relative do? And last
 175 one. number 5: "A nurse discovers that a hospital patient has been given blood, (*T*
 176 *repeats the sentence*), contaminated with AIDS." So I'll repeat that. (*T repeats the*
 177 *sentence*). What should the nurse do? (*T writes on the board*). So you got here, the
 178 problems, one to five (*writes on the board*). I want you to write one or two sentences.
 179 Don't talk about it. Just one or two sentences of what should be done. Just write it, next
 180 to it. Five minutes, quick.

As the students started writing, the teacher went around and monitor. After about 5 minutes, she approached Group 2.

- 181 T Okay, so you're finished. (*Long pause; other SS are still working; T goes to see other*
 182 *groups*).

At this point someone came in and announced a party to be held in the school. After about 5 minutes, the class continued.

- 183 T So, okay. Let's go back to our problem. I would like someone to read out what they've
 184 got. [F4], would you read out, read out the one, the first one. What would you say?
 185 F4 Oh, what should the executive do?
 186 T Yeah.
 187 F4 The executive should try to get information how much they lost benefit from, because of
 188 employee steal so many things from. And also the executive should find out the cause
 189 why the employee steal, and after they find out everything so they have to make to the
 190 rules—tight rules.
 191 T Okay. So the executive assesses issues to find out why the employee stole =
 192 F4 = Yeah.
 193 T Okay, (...) and then try and change the rule. Yeah? Okay. [M3], can you please give us
 194 number 2—what did you say about the robber?
 195 M3 The bank teller should cooperate with the robber and xxx the police and should not try

- 196 to play Rambo or be a hero, or things like that.
 197 T Okay, (...) should cooperate and should not become a hero. Okay, right. Um, [M6], you
 198 want to tell me number 3—about the pedestrian, the witness and the pedestrian?
 199 M6 xxxx.
 200 T Okay.
 201 M6 xxxx.
 202 T So witness have to inform the police what happens. Okay. [F6] would you like to give
 203 number 4—relative?
 204 F6 Relative have to...should help him, cigarettes. (*T & SS laugh; F6 looks*
 205 *uncertain about her answer*).
 206 T Yeah. Relative should help the person to give up smoking. Number 5. [F7], would you
 207 like to give me number 5—the nurse and the patient?
 208 F7 They have to control the patient.
 209 T Who? Who's [safe]—the nurse or the patient? Together, or just the nurse?
 210 F7 Nurse.
 211 T Okay. So who should control?
 212 F7 They (xxxx).
 213 T You said 'they.' I thought you meant the nurse and the patient.
 214 F7 No, the doctor =
 215 T = Okay =
 216 F7 = Have to control the patient.
 217 T All right. So the nurse should try and control what happens to patients. All right. Okay.
 218 I've come around and I have looked at most of yours, and I was very, very happy to
 219 see that most of you kept the pronouns as gender-neutral. You did not, did not (xx) these
 220 people he or she, because we don't know, do we? We don't know if the executive male or
 221 female. But I noticed it was the man, it was the man who says the executive was 'he,' the
 222 bank teller was 'he,' the nurse was 'she.' (*T & SS smile*). Did you notice that? So this
 223 is what we are doing today. And it is men, not women, who give the more powerful
 224 positions to the males. All right. Maybe by the end of this lesson, it may not be like that.

After saying the above, the teacher told the class that there would be another material. She explained about it for a few minutes, then she handed out the sheets for the students to refer to.

- 225 T Have a look at number 1, read that and I'm going to play you a recording. Can somebody
 226 give me a very, very quick—doesn't have to be detailed—summary of the first paragraph
 227 of number 1, about a small girl (xxx)? Just a very brief summary [of] what it's talking
 228 about essentially in a few words. (*No response*). Can I select a volunteer?
 229 F7 The book keeper.
 230 T Yap, thank you. (*Smiles*).
 231 F7 The book keeper's distinguished sexual behaviour.
 232 T Okay. From 'books'?
 233 F7 Yeah.
 234 T Okay, thank you. All right, all right. Number 2, give us a quick summary. Number 2—
 235 anybody?
 236 F4 The girl has xxx since the beginning.
 237 F1 (xxx). (*F1's answer is not responded by T*)
 238 T From early days.
 239 F4 from early days.
 240 T Okay, all right. (.....). Groups 1, 2, 3. There's going to be recording,
 241 three parts. (*Turns to Group 1*) I want you to concentrate on the first one. (*Turns to*
 242 *Group 2*) this one on the second, and (*Turns to Group 3*), this one on the third.
 243 Everybody listen, but each group has to give me a summary of the particular recording.
 244 So, listen, do the same 244as you've just done now with the reading, but with the listening,
 245 So (...)

The teacher played the recording. She paused at the end of each segment of the recording. I did not transcribe the recordings.

- 246 T That was number 1. Number 2 (...) (*plays the tape again; after about 2minutes*). Two.

- 247 Now, three, Group 3 (*points at Group 3; plays the tape again; after about 2 minutes*):
 248 Okay, just briefly talk about your particular number, see if you can come up with an idea.

I concentrated on Group 1 as they discussed. However, because everybody in the class spoke within their own groups, it was hard to understand, let alone transcribe, their utterances. After about 10 minutes, the teacher asked the students to discuss their parts together. The teacher resumed the activity. I concentrated again on Group 1.

- 249 T Um, let's just quickly [see] what you heard. Number 1, China—that person came from
 250 China. But that didn't really matter. So I'll tell [you that] later. What did you hear?
 251 F1 Um, she, she said woman should be married. Woman should be a housewife.
 252 T Housewife. Okay. Anything else that you can say in your group?
 253 F4 What, er, what we heard just now actually that woman who said in that tape said
 254 something that actually she wants to say that a woman—it looks like she wants to say
 255 that a woman—can do what men do, but because of the culture maybe she already
 256 thought about the parents, about the manpower, er, manpower. Um, I can get from the
 257 way she talked that at last she admit that man, er, woman only good for housewife.
 258 T Okay. So that's the feeling you got underneath what she said.
 259 F4 Yeah.
 260 T Okay, two? (*She means number 2 for Group 2*). [M3]?
 261 M3 (xxx) women raise children, kids, manage the house, (xxx) learn how to raise kids, and
 262 manage the property.
 263 T (*Smiles*). Hey, almost word for word! You're listening (xx). So there was a (xx) there.
 264 (*Turns to Group 3 now*). This group here. Anybody. Together. Just throw in your
 265 comments together.
 266 M5 She said that her parents try to treat them equally but (xxx), because she was a girl.
 267 T Okay. So her parents tried to treat them equally but she felt that it was not the case
 268 because she was just a girl. (.....). Now, just briefly, how does it work in your culture?
 269 Is it the same in every situation or is it different in the cities, in the country? Is it up to
 270 the individuals? Is it legalised to try and prevent discrimination? What happens in
 271 your country? Can you just talk about that for a while?

As the groups started working again. I concentrated on Group 1 whose members were talking to and about each other.

- 272 F4 (xxx) most of Asian countries (xxxx). My parents told me about manpower (xxx). For
 273 example, when I have to ride my car, I have to sit at the back. But my younger brother,
 274 because he is a man, he can sit in front (xxx). Yeah, (xxx) in front of my car, but my
 275 parents didn't allow me, (xxx) to sit behind me. Just an example. A small example.
 276 Example. How about you? (*Turns to F7*).
 277 F7 (xxxx) women to be successful.*
 278 T Successful
 279 F7 Successful, (xxx) =
 280 T = The same opportunities.
 281 F7 Yap, (xxx) big cities.
 282 T Yeah, different in the country?
 283 F7 Yeah, maybe.
 284 T Maybe. Okay. [F2]?
 285 F2 In our society (xxx) to change. Woman can get a job (xxx). But we have discrimination
 286 about promotion.*
 287 T Promotion.
 288 F2 Promotion. We have discrimination about promotion.
 289 T (*Turns to F1*). In Japan?
 290 F1 In Japan, women have a greater opportunity. Women can have a good opportunity to get
 291 a job or...not only becoming a housewife. If she wants she can make a good career and
 292 she can get a job and work. But still, more than 50% of woman wants to just become a
 293 housewife because that's more easy. (*Chuckles*). Easy. (*Now F1 turns to F7 and F2*).
 294 F7 Housewife?
 295 F1 Yeah. So women, if we become a housewife, so man support everything especially for

- 296 economy.
 297 F4 (*Laughs*) Easy life—just taking, saving money.
 298 F7 (xxxx).
 299 F1 In Japan, if woman wants a career or wants to work, that's okay. No discrimination.
 300 F2 I think in Korea, each woman [who apply] they have the same opportunity, but the
 301 manager prefers to choose men.
 302 F1 Yeah, in Japan also there's some discrimination =
 303 F2 = And also they don't want to be executive woman. They don't want to (...) they (...)
 304 F4 (*Corrects*) They don't want women to be executive.
 305 F2 (*Repeats*) They don't want women to be executive. Yeah.
 306 F1 Really?
 307 F2 But not many. Someone can be manager, but it's not (xxx), because the men don't want
 308 to obey women. The company think if the woman can be manager, the staff will make
 309 [disruption] and (xx) can be nothing.

Group 1 continued this kind of conversation up to about 10 minutes. After this, the teacher told them about something else they should do next.

- 310 T I want examples from different countries. Just as an example. Er, perhaps, ehm [F1], can
 311 you give us a brief summary of what you talked about. What happens in Japan—just
 312 briefly.
 313 F1 Um, in Japan in the old time, there were (...)
 314 T (*Asks students in other groups to be quiet*) Quiet, quiet.
 315 F1 Yeah, long time ago, there were discrimination between women and men =
 316 T = For employment?
 317 F1 Yeah, but now there is a law of equal, between women and men, and the law was made
 318 about ten years ago, I think, more than ten years ago. So now situation has already
 319 changed, and company should give equal opportunity to women.
 320 T Okay, so the law has changed.
 321 F1 Yes.
 322 T Okay. Good, thank you. [M1], can you tell us about the situation in Taiwan?
 323 M1 Um, I think the society has changed, has been changed, because now [lots of] the
 324 company, they employ women to be a manager.
 325 T Okay.
 326 M1 Yeah, but of course it's depend on the area of the job.
 327 T Sure.
 328 M1 Yeah, so, that's it (xxxx).
 329 T Switzerland? {M3}, can you tell us something about women [in]? (...)
 330 M3 Yes, there are still discrimination in salaries.
 331 T Salaries, Um.
 332 M3 Salaries, because men earn more than women. And the preferences—job preferences,*
 333 especially.
 334 T Preferences.
 335 M3 Yeah, Um. Usually manager, bosses, prefer men than women.
 336 T Okay (...)
 337 M3 Without clear purpose (*smiles*).
 338 T Okay. So similar to what you heard from [M1] in Taiwan.
 339 M3 But it's going down—it's changing. Changing.
 340 T So what we had last Friday, about management styles, we looked at that and it said that
 341 not so many women are at the top, they are there but not as many as men. Um, Thailand?
 342 [M4], can you tell us about Thailand?
 343 M4 In Thailand, men is (xxxx). =
 344 T = Equal employment. All right, good. [M5], can you tell us briefly about Korea?
 345 M5 Um, [similar to other Asian countries](xxx) the idea of the Confucion.*
 346 F7 Confucion. (*F7 helps M5 to pronounce 'confucion'*).
 347 T Confucion.
 348 M5 Yeah.
 349 T Okay, so the philosophies of Confucion.
 350 M5 (xxx) the idea of Confucion, it emphasises on men's life (xxx). I think after Korean War,
 351 our generation is changing and a lot of women have worked in every part of industry.

- 352 T So the pathways are opening for women to enter (xxx) employment.
 353 M5 But I think, it's still (...) scarce for woman.
 354 T All right. Good, thank you. I haven't talked about all of (xxx) about different countries.
 355 But that's okay. Have a look now at number 2. Just quickly do that exercise.

All the group started working. The teacher went around the class and assisted each groups. I concentrated on Group 1 again. The teacher was with them at this point.

- 356 T Just means to ask for help—someone's driving. I guess it comes from racing where the
 357 racing drivers are driving and they need to stop so they use a flag. But I (xxx). Yeah, 'flag
 358 someone down,' make someone stop.

Group 1 continued working. The teacher went to see the other groups. After about 10 minutes, the teacher led the class discussion.

- 359 T After you do that, you've decided what you think. Then I want you to decide which ones
 360 there are the stereotypes, the male and the female. Okay. What's a stereotype. [M3],
 361 what's a stereotype?
 362 M3 Generalisation. Generalisation.
 363 F2 Typical.
 364 M3 Generalisation.
 365 T A generalisation, typical—what people think is typical. What do you think are the
 366 stereotypical male and female responses in that one? Are they trying to say this is what a
 367 man would do, this is what a women would do? Which ones are stereotypes? Okay.

All the groups started working again. I was still concentrating on Group 1. At this point, the teacher was with them.

- 368 F2 (xx) and also this one (xxx).
 369 T Terrible wasn't it?
 370 F2 Yeah, just [terrible].
 371 F7 (xxxx).
 372 T Is there a stereotypical answer? Do you think that women are supposed to be more
 373 interested in magazines? (*Turns to F2*) The stereotype? Not you. You are a liberating
 374 woman. I can see that (*F1, F4, & F7 laugh*). I believe tat and I agree, I follow your
 375 opinion. But the stereotypes—do you think it would be magazines—because we're
 376 looking at the stereotypes? Some people would say that women like to read magazines.
 377 F4 Most, [not some] but most (*T laughs & F4 smiles*).
 378 T I like magazines too. I love looking at the pictures, especially gardening magazines,
 379 fashion magazines, house design...
 380 F7 Travel.
 381 T Travel (*F7 smiles*).
 382 F4 Stars, stars.
 383 T Bit it doesn't mean we can't read books as well, does it?
 384 F4 Yeah, but most of us read magazines.

This activity lasted about 10 minutes. I did not record the last part of the discussion. The teacher concluded the session by saying the following:

- 385 T And have a break now and we'll come back.

That was the end of the first session. I concluded the whole observation at that point.

K.1.2. Class: UEC (13 Students)

K.1.2.1. Day 1 (Wednesday, 1 April 1998, 11.30am-1pm, 2nd session)

- 1 T All right, how do you add information to make your argument more convincing?
2 What kind of things do you do? So, (xxx) your friend doesn't wanna go to the
3 movies, so you [say] 'please' or 'you'd better come.' But what else can you do
4 to add -[F4], what can you do?
- 5 M1 ➔ Explain about the movie, how good the movie is.
6 F4 Make that person interested [in the movie].
7 T Make that person interested in what the movie might be. So he might get
8 some=
- 9 F4 =get very excited (*laughs*).
10 T Okay, get very excited! (*smiles*). How can you tell somebody then their
11 argument..., like now pretend you and a friend, and your friend has told you
12 they want you to come to this movie, they sort of pull you (xx), they try and
13 convince you, but you still really don't wanna go. So how can you say "Well, I
14 don't care if this is interesting or not." How can -what other -what kinds of
15 things do you do to tell people that they're full of rubbish (*jokes*)—everything
16 they say is not true. How do you say that? (*One MS says something unclear;*
17 *T turns to F4*). What did he say?
- 18 F4 He said call another friend (*SS laugh*).
19 T Oh! (*laughs*). Very interesting—calling another friend. All right. How do you
20 say you're not convinced. What words do you use?
- 21 M1 I'm not interested.
22 T What?
23 M1 I'm not interested.
24 T I'm not interested. Okay.
25 F3 I'm not sure.
26 T I'm not sure (*hesitant*). That's a bit -if you -don't say "I'm not sure" because they will
27 keep trying to persuade you on.
- 28 F5 I have no time.
29 M2 I have a date.
30 T Or I have a date.
31 M1 Sorry, I have another date.
32 T Sorry, I have another date (*chuckles*).
33 M5 Next time.
34 T Next time. That's good to [put off], isn't it? Thank you for asking me but next
35 time! What about 'How do you tell somebody not to worry about something?'
- 36 M Don't worry.
37 F Smile.
38 M Be happy (*laughs*).
39 T Don't worry, be happy.
40 F7 Take my hand.
41 T Take my hand, you'll understand. Everything is all right.
42 M1 Take another chance.
43 T What?
44 M1 Take another chance.
45 T Take another chance?
46 M1 Yeah.
47 T Okay. Right. So -or you'll have another chance.
48 M1 (*Repeats*) "You'll have another chance."
49 T So don't worry.
50 M1 Don't worry, be happy (*smiles*).
51 T Okay, all right. Now look at the next page. You'll see some asking questions,
52 some adding information words, some challenging words, expression of
53 reservation, and some reassuring. Have a look at those (xxxx) .What about
54 adding information—what would be the more formal of these?
55 F7 Second (*almost inaudible*).

- 56 T There are another consideration Yes, you would probably [not often] say so.
 57 What about the first one—“(xxx) say so.” (SS & T laugh). Very formal, isn’t it.
 58 (.....) Let’s look at it; that would be the least formal. What do you
 59 think? What about challenging—which is most formal?
 60 M1 (Reads) “I wonder if (xxx).”
 61 T “I wonder (.....)” . [M3], which do you think would be the most?
 62 M3 (Reads) “I would be inclined to.”
 63 T “I would be inclined to.” Yes, very formal. Are there any informal there? That
 64 third one would be very threatening, wouldn’t it? (laughs). “It is in your interest
 65 (xxx).” All right. What about expressing reservation? (No response). Which
 66 is the most formal? [F2]..., what do you think? (No response).
 67 Almost all of them are fairly formal. Which one do you think have the
 68 chance for more formal?
 69 F2 (Reads) “Under no circumstances.”
 70 T “Under no circumstances should we come to a hasty decision [on these].” (T &
 71 SS laugh). Okay. Rubbish (jokes; SS laugh). What about the least formal
 72 about what he says?
 73 F2 I (xx) tell (xxx).
 74 T Yeah, I can tell (xx) or I think. And the nice one—reassuring. What would you
 75 [F2] say about the most formal there?
 76 F2 (xxxx).
 77 T “(xxx) your concern.” Yeah, very formal, and “you may rest assured that” So
 78 we wouldn’t (xxx). What would we usually say, which one is the least formal?
 79 F2/M1 [“I can assure you”]
 80 T “I can assure you.” Or “Let me assure you.” All right. “Let me tell you straight
 81 away.” All right, very good. Now the next thing you have to do is you have to
 82 sort of pick the words and expressions into these blanks. What I’d like you to
 83 do is just—let’s see, you [got] eight—just uhm [partner]. Maybe you two
 84 (M5 & F5) do asking questions, and you three (F6, F7 & F8) do adding
 85 information, you two (M1 & F1) do challenging, you two (M2 & F2) do
 86 expressing reservation, you two (F3 & F4) do the reassuring, and you two (M3
 87 & M4; T laughs) (xxxx). Do number 1 for me.

As the students started working, the teacher went around the class to monitor and assist. After this, the teacher said to the class:

- 88 T Try to remember them (xxx). Yeah you can just [show] and follow the page
 89 and you won’t learn anything. So by reinforcing try to memorise and then (xxx)
 90 parts should be put together (.....) .It’s not so important that you fill in the right
 91 blanks, but the idea is, really, that you -do you remember (xxx) test on
 92 persuasion? What you wanna do is make a connection between what happens
 93 in persuasion. So in persuasion, so it’s the headings which actually becomes the
 94 important things. So when you persuade someone, you ask them questions, you
 95 add information, you challenge what they say, you express reservation. What
 96 does it mean—‘to express reservation? (T turns to M5) What’s the vocabulary
 97 word for reservation?
 98 M5 (xxx) booking.
 99 T Yeah, that’s one kind of reservation, but another kind of reservation. What is
 100 -what’s the verb?
 101 SS To reserve.
 102 T To reserve, to reserve. All right, so that means—what does to reserve mean?
 103 SS (xxx).
 104 T It can be, but a reserved person is somebody who doesn’t let everything out.
 105 There’s an expression in English ‘to wear your heart on your sleeve.’ So all of
 106 your feelings are there for everyone to see. There’s a -do you know people
 107 like that? Me (jokes; T & SS laugh). But a reserved person is very quiet,
 108 they’re very personal, and never really tell about themselves. So when we talk
 109 about expressing reservation, we sort of don’t want to know everything (xxx) of
 110 saying “I don’t really agree with that.” And ‘reassure,’ reassuring is also very
 111 important in persuasion. What does it mean ‘to reassure someone’? (No

- 112 *response).*
- 113 M3 *(Reading from a dictionary)* "To make people feel better."
- 114 T Okay, to make people feel better. To reassure people is to give them confidence and
- 115 reassurance. That's why we can persuade someone to -we assure them that they're
- 116 going to have a wonderful time if they come to the movies with us. So that's all part of
- 117 the reassurance. Now we have a -the next exercise that's a little bit difficult and more
- 118 complicated. What you have to do is take a topic, Student A asks the question, Student B
- 119 expresses reservation (.....). So for example, if we look down at the bottom on
- 120 'television,' we can say, "Do you think television is good for society?" That would be
- 121 Student A. Student B would say, "Oh, let me see, I have my doubts about that." "Well,
- 122 there are lots more reasons to like television. One might be 'It helps the lonely.'" And the
- 123 next student might say "Well, I am rather doubtful about that." And the next person
- 124 says "I don't think you fully understand the facts." And the friend says "Oh, well, I
- 125 (xxxx)." *(T approaches Group A).* Okay, do you know what you have to do?
- 126 M2 Well...*(smiles; seems to be joking).*
- 127 T So you have to use these words in a context. So you can choose any topics you like.
- 128 you know, over the next page you have a few topics: overcrowding, sea pollution, (xxx),
- 129 expensive hotels, pets. So you have to choose a topic and then you have to ask—Student
- 130 A has to ask Student B a question about it. Okay, so Student A has to say, "Do you
- 131 realise that?"
- 132 M1 (xxx) overcrowded.
- 133 T That one? You can be an example here. "Do you realise that?" What are the topics
- 134 you two know in common?
- 135 M1 Hotel expensive.
- 136 T Hotels are expensive. Okay, right. So you can be first, "Do you realise that?"
- 137 M1 "Do you realise that hotels is quite expensive in (...) LA?"
- 138 T All right. So now, you're going to express reservation *(Smiles; turns to M2)* You may
- 139 say, "Well, they're very much cheaper in Adelaide than they are in Taiwan." Okay *(turns*
- 140 *to M1)* You're going to say, "I stayed at the Hyatt last week and it cost me \$400." *(Turns*
- 141 *to M2)* You're going to say. "I can't believe that. I have my doubts about that." *(Turns to*
- 142 *M1)* And you're going to say *(T & SS laugh).* "I've got the bill and you can see it. It
- 143 would be in your interest to look at the account." And then you *(to M2)* can say,
- 144 "Alright, I'll let you get away with that point this time." Right. Do you understand?
- 145 SS Okay.
- 146 T Okay. You have to do another topic now *(T & SS laugh; T goes to see the other groups.*
- 147 *Discussion is inaudible and incomprehensible as everyone speaks in pairs. T comes*
- 148 *back to Group A)* You could be Student A *(to M2)* and [F2], you could be Student B
- 149 (xxxx)...like you can say "Do you know how (xxxx) to you?" *(to M2; now to all SS).*
- 150 Okay, all right. *(SS stop working).* Okay, okay. Let's do one of the topics here.
- 151 What do you think of page 94? There's a little box there—do you agree or disagree? In
- 152 the little box on the top of page 94 (.....).
- 153 F Yes
- 154 T One, yes *(smiles).*
- 155 M2 Yes.
- 156 T Well, you have to persuade, how can you persuade us. Only two said 'yes.' So maybe
- 157 you need to persuade us and add more information, because=
- 158 M2 =yeah
- 159 T Because? *(laughs).*
- 160 F3 Nice, it's more realistic and you see it on TV or somebody else (xxx).
- 161 T Okay. Anybody?
- 162 F3 =because then you can (xxxx).
- 163 T Yeah, anybody else? What [M2]? She (F3) [has answered] the question *(T & SS*
- 164 *laugh).* Okay, so that's a point you can remember for your essay when you talk about
- 165 persuasion, you might wanna think about how -and you can discover (xxxx) themselves.
- 166 They are more easily persuaded, and what about the secret of success in life in (xxxx).
- 167 "How to change men's minds?"
- 168 M1 Men's? Only men's? *(smiles).*
- 169 T Maybe that's only for women! *(SS laugh).*
- 170 M1 Only men? *(still smiles)*
- 171 T Why is it only men's minds? Maybe we can change "men's and women's minds."

- 172 Sm SS Why?
- 173 T But a woman is allowed to change her mind. Do you agree with that? Is that in your
174 culture. Do you know that?
- 175 M2 No.
- 176 T You know, it's kind of acceptable for a woman to change her mind, but a
177 man (...) it's terrible if he changes his mind.
- 178 F4 A woman can change [her mind].
- 179 T Yeah.
- 180 F4 (*Laughs*) men not.
- 181 T Yeah, so sometimes a woman gets to the altar for marriage and says, "Oops, change my
182 mind! Good bye!" (*T & SS laugh*).
- 183 M1 Oh, really? (*smiles*).
- 184 T Yeah, be very careful (*T & SS laugh*). Doesn't that happen in Indonesia? Does that
185 happen in Indonesia?
- 186 M1 Sometimes. But sometimes men do that.
- 187 T Sometimes men change their minds! Okay, all right. What about 'negotiation as
188 a process (xxx)'?
- 189 M1 Yes
- 190 M2 (xxxx).
- 191 T Do you know the words -that [phrase] "Let's work as a team and do it my way"?
- 192 F (xxxx) (*laughs*).
- 193 T Many managers say that—"Let's work as a team and do it my way." [Contradictory,
194 contradictory]. All right, look at 'magic'; complete that, on the next page. What do you
195 reach? You reach. What do you drive, what do you keep, what do you study, what do
196 you find? What word would go with what?
- 197 F4 Reach a solution?
- 198 T No
- 199 F4 No?
- 200 T You would usually find=
- 201 F = Find a solution?
- 202 T Find a solution.
- 203 F Keep an open mind.
- 204 T Keep an open mind. That's right. What you're doing here, these are the usual phrases
205 that are put together. When you talk about persuasion, you don't have to concentrate on
206 these words because they go together, like, you now, like songs. You have certain words
207 and certain sounds that go together. Like in English, these words, they go together. So
208 you reach a—you don't know that word, 'still mates.' Still mate is where nobody moves.
209 Everybody agrees to disagree. Who is the famous person, two famous people in the news
210 this week who agreed to disagree?
- 211 M1 Howard.
- 212 T Howard? Howard, no. He said, "You do it my way together." (*laughs*). Who agreed to
213 disagree? (*No response*). Clinton and? (*no response*). Who did he visit this week?
- 214 Sm SS Uh (*laugh*).
- 215 T Nelson? What is his=
- 216 Sm SS =Mandela.
- 217 T Mandela.
- 218 SS Oh, Mandela. Mandela.
- 219 T Yeah, so they agreed to disagree. Remember that's on the news. I don't know what
220 about (...) agreed to disagree. That's a still mate. Nobody is willing to negotiate,
221 everybody is at the same (.....). so that's to reach a still mate. And "We sit to drive a
222 hard bargain." What's a hard bargain? (*No response*). What's a bargain?
- 223 M5 Discount.
- 224 T Discount. Very good, isn't it? So what's a hard bargain?
- 225 F (xxx) bargain.
- 226 T Sorry?
- 227 F (xxx) bargain.
- 228 T Oh (*hesitant*) (.....) dispute, A hard negotiation, but you reach a bargain,
229 that's negotiation. You drive a hard bargain, you keep—you already
230 said—an open mind. (*T turns to M5 who seems to have something to ask*) What?
231 F Study (...) a solution.

- 232 T No, reach. Study? Study (...) a question and find a solution. How would you answer 1, 2,
233 3, 4, 5. What would you do to the questions? (*Long pause*). A hard bargain. "You
234 drive a hard bargain, then I'll take it." What about 2?
235 F Study a question?
236 T Okay, you study a question (xxx). What about 3?
237 F (xxx) (...).
238 T No (...)
239 F Stalemate?
240 T Yeah, reach a stale mate (...). And 4? "If we don't"?
241 F (xxx) find the solution (...).
242 T Okay, 4: we find the solution soon. Okay, and 5?
243 F (xxx).
244 T Okay, all right (xxx). (*Calls M1's name*), you don't pay attention (*smiles*).
245 I'm getting nervous (*jokes and points at the camera*).
246 T You're nervous. Oh, (*turns to observer*), can you see them, can you?
247 O Sorry?
248 T Can you see them in your camera?
249 O Yes.
250 T Oh (*T & M1 laugh*).

M1 later told me that he was not serious about being nervous and did not mind my filming the class from an angle close to him and his group. I thanked him for this. Soon afterwards, the class continued.

- 251 T (xxx) for 5. All right, what about 4?
252 F Constructive attitude.
253 T Constructive attitude. Okay, for number 4. Three?
254 F Open mind.
255 T An open mind. Two?
256 F Stumbling (...), the major disadvantage.
257 T All right, major disadvantages. And number 1?
258 SS Stumbling block.
259 T Stumbling block. Okay, now read these to your neighbour.

Students started reading their passages to persons sitting next to them. The teacher came to Group A and commented on F1's sitting position.

- 260 T You don't look very interested in your reading [passage] (*smiles*). You look
261 like you're falling asleep (xxx) here?
262 M1 Yeah (*smiles; F1 changes her sitting position*).
263 T Okay (*to F1*), be enthusiastic, constructive attitude (*smiles and goes to other*
264 *groups*).
265 M1 (*To F1*) (xxxx) (*smiles*).
266 T Okay. Next page (...). Make?
267 F/M Something clear.
268 T Something clear. Leave?
269 S Something (...).
270 T Something aside. Dismiss?
271 SS Something (xxx).
272 T Okay. And 10?
273 SS (xxx).
274 T So fill those in, 1 to 5 (...). Make?
275 Sm SS Make it
276 F (xxx)
277 T No.
278 M2 No, no.
279 T What? Make it?=
280 T/SS =clear.
281 T Let me make it clear. And number 1? "I wouldn't dismiss his offer [out of hand]." Read

282 these to your neighbour. Maybe you [can] choose a new neighbour (xxx). Okay?

All the student started working, reading the passages to every other member of their groups. The next activity started after about 5 minutes.

- 283 T Okay, number 4. You know the first one? First place, show?
 284 F7 Show action.
 285 T No.
 286 F7 Show good will.
 287 T Show good will, show good will. Make?
 288 Sm SS (xxxx).
 289 T What? No, no. Headway—make headway. Take?
 290 M Action.
 291 T Yap, take action. And find?
 292 F Common grounds.
 293 T Common grounds. So those verbs [are] all put together. All right. (M2 raises his hand).
 294
 295 M2 Please explain meaning of these words.
 296 T Which one?
 297 M2 Every one (T & M2 chuckle).
 298 T Okay. So, do you know loose face?
 299 M2 [Ashamed].
 300 T 'Ashamed', embarrassed, shame. Okay. 'Show good will', that means you
 301 show you're willing to negotiate, you're pleased with everything but you might
 302 not agree with everything, but you're willing to listen. 'To make a headway', to
 303 advance. 'To take action'—you know that.
 304 M1 Yes (smiles).
 305 T Do something. 'To find common grounds', to find similarities, something you all
 306 agree about, you have in common. Okay, so 1 to 5. (Long pause). What did
 307 you put for number 1?
 308 F (xxx) take action.
 309 T No, make headway. That's right, because we're talking about progress, progress
 310 headway, same. That means (xxxx). All right, what about 2?
 311 F Two? Show goodwill.
 312 T Yeah, that's right. That's exactly what goodwill is. So 'we're going to give you a
 313 bargain' or we're going to give you a reduction. What about 3?
 314 M2 'Take action.'
 315 T 'Take action.' Okay, that's right. "Deadline is Friday. Do you think we'll
 316 lose"?"
 317 M1/M2 Lose face.
 318 T Lose, yeah, lose face. All right. Five?
 319 F "Well, I hope we have find some" =
 320 T = What? The past tense of find?
 321 SS Found.
 322 T Found some common grounds. Okay read, read these to your neighbour. Read,
 323 read, read.

The students did what the teacher asked them to do for the duration of 10 minutes. After that, the teacher distributed copies of another material to each of the students.

- 324 T These are some notes that I just like you to keep aware of. Four basic types of written
 325 communication in academic setting (...). Tell me what point B is saying? (No
 326 response; long pause). Er, do you agree with number C? (...). My lecturer said this. I
 327 said, "How long does the assignment have to be?" So he didn't answer. He said, "In the
 328 course that you're doing, you're expected to have 6000 words. But 6000 words are 3
 329 assignments." So we have 3 assignments, which is quite good actually. This one is 20%,
 330 this one, I think is 35%, this one 45%. So he said, "You have to work it out for yourself
 331 how many words you should have in each assignment." So how many words do I need
 332 there? (laughs). Yeah sometimes your lecturer say, well, tell you (...) they didn't tell you

- 333 that you must have five pages, you must have one page. They will just say "For the
 334 number of hours expected in this course, we would expect you write 6000 words." So it's
 335 not really too much. Okay. Now, D. Remember we talked about 'substantiation
 336 principles'? Remember? Well, you give a synonym for substantiation. (.....) What's
 337 the synonym for substantiation?
- 338 F2 Paraphrase.
 339 T Say it a bit louder.
 340 F2 Paraphrase.
 341 T Paraphrase? But the word substantiate -it says here "It is necessary to substantiate
 342 your thinking." What word can you substitute there for? What word could you use
 343 as a synonym for the word substantiate, if you want to paraphrase this? (*No response*)
 344 It is necessary to give a reference, give a reference, or quote the authority or
 345 backup any (xx) thinking. (.....). And E? It sounds a bit silly, really, but I've been (xxx)
 346 a lot about personal pronoun, and F is just a very good advice. Okay. Now, I have a quite
 347 nicely constructed (x) for you to look at. You don't need to search (*T takes the new*
 348 *material and distributes it around the class*). See how it is constructed. Okay, so we got
 349 this opening. What's the approach of these essays? What kind -of those four types of
 350 essays. There are four types of essays on this sheet. Which kind is it (xxx)?
- 351 M1 Narrative one?
 352 T What?
 353 M1 It's narrative.
 354 T Oh, no.
 355 M1 The first one?
 356 T No, it's not narrative. It doesn't tell a story.
 357 M1 Descriptive, maybe descriptive (*to himself*).
 358 T Whenever you have a -when we talk about -what about these words: "What we are
 359 saying is" What is that? Could you =
 360 F = Argumentative
 361 T Argumentative, argumentative. And remember in an argumentative essay, the
 362 difference between argumentative and explanatory descriptive, explanatory-
 363 descriptive, is you add the headings or the sections that you're going to have. But in an
 364 argumentative, you just finish with your argument. So you (*turns to M3*), what's the
 365 argument? What are they going to establish in this essay? What are they persuading you
 366 about? That -what? What's the argument? (.....) Only read the introduction, don't
 367 read anything else. A lot of words in the introduction that tell you what did they say, what
 368 is their position?
- 369 F (xxx).
 370 T Well, the topic is health. What is health. What does health mean? That's the topic,
 371 because that's put in the title. Now, this person is saying (...) what?
 372 M (xxx)
 373 Sm SS It is very broad.
 374 T All right, it is a concept. And they're arguing that -it is what? Is R, the next start will M
 375 and then an A (*laughs*). A matter of opinion. So this is the argument. Always look for the
 376 argument in the last sentence of the introduction, if it is a good argumentative essay. So,
 377 the argument there "It is a matter of opinion what health is." Now in the next paragraph,
 378 how can you -what sort of information are we getting in the second paragraph? (.....)
 379 What word indicates to us that, and sort of, like "We should think about this, the finish of
 380 the tradition." What word? So, that's right.
- 381 F So?
 382 T So (*T reads the passage*). Okay, then, they have views and authority. They have
 383 substantiated their information (xx) and her idea is that health is -what did she
 384 say?--is what? What did she say? What did she say? Health is what?
- 385 F (xxx).
 386 M2 Dynamic.
 387 T Dynamic. That's right. Health is dynamic (*T reads the paragraph*). So, we go back to the
 388 introduction again. It says that, okay, "This is a matter of opinion that health is dynamic."
 389 (*T reads the paragraph*). Okay, so the next paragraph tells us again (*T reads the*
 390 *paragraph*). Then we go to the next paragraph. It tells us again (*T reads the paragraph*).
 391 And 'another example, for instance' (.....) So he compares two views here (...). O.

- 392 all right, he builds varying opinions about what health is and comes right down to the last
 393 paragraph and uses the very same words again "Health is a matter of opinion." Can you
 394 find that in the last paragraph? Which lines? The first paragraph with the final paragraph
 395 (.....) rather than (xxx). He ends the essay with a question which is a technique to keep
 396 the audience thinking. So we got the second paragraph (*writes on the board*) and then we
 397 got paragraph 3 plus that, or give supporting reasons with examples (.....) Tiny package,
 398 a nice tiny package of an argumentative essay. The dominant words, I think, are
 399 'for instance' because every time there is a supporting, some sort of supporting evidence,
 400 there's one citation by an expert. Remember we said that facts, statistics, expert opinion,
 401 and examples are the ways to support what you said. Okay, is it time?
 402 SS Yeah (*laughs*).
 403 T Okay, it's nice, isn't it? Okay, very good.

L.1.2.1. Day 2 (Thursday, 2 April 1998, 11.30am-1pm, 2nd session)

- 1 T For it is an ugly, tall, fat =
 2 F7 = Grey cartoon.
 3 T Grey? Cartoon? Cartoon. Okay, all right. Well, let me do [this] with the others. So with
 4 the others. (*Jokes with a row of students; comments*) The line up, sit in line, nicely,
 5 fold your hands(...) fold your hands like this and then no talk (xxx). See, they're perfect
 6 students (*SS & T laugh*). Okay, (xx) all right, come on. Let's do this quickly. Where is
 7 [ladder]? Where does [ladder] go? (*To F2 and M2*).
 8 F7 Material.
 9 T Material.
 10 F7 Material.
 11 SS Fifteen, (xxxx).
 12 T Come on, put an S or something in front of them. S and AZ, or SH. Square?
 13 F Shape.
 14 T Shape. Blonde?
 15 F7 Colour.
 16 T Colour. Long?
 17 Sm SS Size.
 18 T Size. Scrappy?
 19 M1 | What's scrappy?
 20 F7 | Mmm?
 21 T | Scrappy is like when you don't shave, when a man doesn't shave, and he
 22 doesn't brush his hair or he =
 23 F7 = Size.
 24 MM | = Shape.
 25 T | Er =(hesitant).
 26 F/M5 =Opinion.
 27 T Yeah (.....) (*Some SS laugh*).Opinion.
 28 M (xxx).
 29 T No, opinion, thank you (*to M5; smiles*) (....) Broad? (....)
 30 F7 Material.
 31 T No.
 32 F/MM Size.
 33 T Size. Yeah, broad, broad shoulders. (*F4 smiles*). Broad. Next, um, greenish?
 34 F2 Colour.
 35 T | Gold. (*F2 chuckles*).
 36 M1 (xxx)?
 37 T No (*turns to F4 who looks puzzled*). Colour.
 38 M1 Quality. Quality. (*SS laugh*).
 39 T (xxx). Colour. Yeah, [because of the colour]. Yeah.
 40 F4 (*Still doesn't understand*) but I think (xxx) gold ring and (xxx).
 41 T No, usually 'gold' refers to the colour of it. If you have a silver ring or gold ring,
 42 you're still referring to the colour, | not to the material. (*SS laugh*).
 43 F | (xxx).
 44 F Material.

- 45 T It's a nugget. A nugget of gold. [If I say] like "I want to paint this gold," I don't mean
 46 I'm going to put gold on the wall. I mean, paint it with the colour gold. This suit
 47 is (...) this jacket is gold (*jokes; SS laugh*). Do you think it's gold?
 48 SS No (*laugh*).
 49 T What's the next -how do you pronounce the next word?
 50 SS Cashmere.
 51 T And what's that?
 52 SS (xxx).
 53 T Where does cashmere come from? (*Turns to F2*) (xxx)?
 54 F2 [lamb].
 55 T No, [it's not].
 56 F7 India.
 57 T Goat.
 58 SS Oh!
 59 T I don't know. I've been to the show the other day, you know, in Wayville.
 60 They had those animals (...) cashmere's goat (...). What -how do you pronounce
 61 the next one?
 62 SS (xxx).
 63 T And what is that?
 64 SS Material.
 65 T Material. Filthy? (*No response*). Filthy?
 66 F7 Filthy...opinion.
 67 T Opinion. All right. [Nile]?=
 68 F7 =Colour.
 69 T [Nile]? (*SS laugh*). Failure?
 70 F7 Opinion.
 71 T Opinion. Pointed?
 72 F7 Pointed (...), opinion.
 73 T No
 74 F2 Shape.
 75 M Colour.
 76 T Shape, shape. Huge?
 77 F7 Material.
 78 M1 Size, size. (*SS laugh*).
 79 T Size. Dark?
 80 F7 Colour.
 81 M1 Opinion.
 82 T No, (xxx) (...) like colour?
 83 SS Opinion.
 84 T No...yeah, all right, opinion.
 85 M1 Yeah.
 86 T Steel?
 87 SS Material.
 88 T That's good. Hair? (...).
 89 F Colour.
 90 T Okay.
 91 SS No! (*T & SS laugh*).
 92 F1 Opinion.
 93 T What would we say? It is a pale, small, round gold (...) where would we put, if we
 94 were going to put pale and what was the other one? Hair. And we say it was opinion?
 95 Okay. How -what's the description we can use so you can use: "Her hair was, she had,
 96 she had pale, pale long, red hair because she had pale red hair.
 97 M1 Shape?
 98 M2 Colour, colour.
 99 T Colour?
 100 SS Opinion.
 101 T What would we say? She had a pale dress. She had a pale face, (xxx) pale face.
 102 M (xxx).
 103 T Yeah, (xxx). So pale yellow. So we have to go with (xxx). Okay. It's a nice opinion.
 104 Okay. We shall see. Tiny?

- 105 SS/M1 Size.
 106 T Size. Short?
 107 SS/M1 Size.
 108 T Size. Smart?
 109 MM Opinion.
 110 T Muscular?
 111 MM Shape.
 112 T Shape. Bright?
 113 F7 Opinion.
 114 SS Colour.
 115 T All right. "She's a bright[student]."
 116 F7 Opinion. Opinion—because dark is opinion. (*T looks hesitant*).
 117 MM Colour, colour.
 118 T No. I mean [it's] opinion, because some people think, you know, like many students
 119 have said to me, "Look at my eyes—they're black." And I say, "No, your eyes are brown".
 120 So, like in that person's opinion, their eyes are dark (...) are black, but in my opinion, they're
 121 brown. So I can say you have pale eyes but somebody else can look at you and say that
 122 you've got dark eyes. So I think it's opinion. I'm not sure. All right. Let's see what we
 123 got here now. so that person had scrappy, long black hair (.....) or long, black scrappy
 124 hair, or black, long scrappy hair, or a long, lovely grey dress. Why not?
 125 F (xxx).
 126 T So how can we remember that? How can we remember to do it? Opinion, size, shape,
 127 colour, material, noun. So what can we use to remember that? We can make one of
 128 those acronyms (*writes on the board*). O-S=
 129 F7 =S.
 130 T S. Wait, we have to do S, O-S, U-S, S-C-A-M (.....) Do you understand them? I
 131 don't think -if you wanna do the exercises, you can. Anybody feel what goes with
 132 what? (*laughs; calls M1*). Which one goes with the good [lakes], which face goes with
 133 the cute [lakes]?
 134 M1 Er (...) the middle.
 135 T The middle face?
 136 M1 Yes.
 137 T Okay, and which body goes with that dress in the middle (...) that goes in the middle?
 138 M1 (xxx).
 139 T Yeah, and where does that scrappy head go? Oh, the head can (xxx), can't they?

This warming-up activity lasted for another 5 minutes. After this, the teacher introduced the new material, an exercise entitled *The Language of Advertising*.

- 140 T That's just a little warmer. This is another thing, because this goes with your test, to give
 141 you a little more to read and know about things. (*T distributes a new material. At this
 142 point, someone knocks on the door; T goes to see her. After that, T explains what to do*).
 143 (...) exercises that say the list of the techniques advertisers commonly use to persuade
 144 people to buy their products. What you have to do is work together in a small group and
 145 see which goes where. Okay? So, you can probably just make a group here. You can
 146 make a group? (*to groups of SS*).
 147 M1 (xxx) [big table here]?
 148 T Okay, a big table and this, a little table. Okay, so, these are the kinds of terms that you're
 149 going to find in the readings. So this gives you a little bit of a boost. So when many of
 150 you have the readings, you'll say, "Uh, I know what that means." Sure, okay?

The students started reading the exercise. The teacher came to see each of the students. She was interested in F4, who was using a dictionary. The teacher jokingly commented on her.

- 151 T Oh, terrible (*joking*). You read first.
 152 F4 No, no. I read (*tries to convince T that she has read before using the dictionary*).

The other students were still working. The teacher approached Group C (M5, F5, F6, F7, F8).

- 153 T That's why we have to convince each other? So where do you differ.
 154 M5 A, B (...) | A, D.
 155 F7 | A, B, D.
 156 T So, B, A...they [challenged] you (to M5). Okay, so what about B? To convince (...)
 157 you persuade the others.
 158 F7 (xxx).

After this, the teacher went to see Group B (M1, M3, M4, F1).

- 159 T (To M3) Did you finish?
 160 M3 (xxx).
 161 T Okay. (Turns to M4) Did you finish? Just take a guess and then in the group you decide
 162 whether you think you're right or not. So [M1], join this group now and then see if
 163 anybody has the same one and if they don't you have to persuade the others to think like
 164 you do.

The teacher went to see Group A (M2, F2, F4).

- 165 T And you guys, the same, the first. What do you do [F2]? Right, number 1.
 166 You don't have it?
 167 F2 Not yet.
 168 T Would you agree with them? You (xxxx). (Turns to F4) You have to explain to
 169 (calls F2's name). Why did you choose (x)?
 170 M2 (xxx) this idea to (xxx).
 171 T (To F1) You agree? Okay, so that one you agree on.

The students continued working up to about 10 minutes.

- 171 T Okay, you finished (to Group A), and you guys finished? (to Group B and C).
 172 All right. Let's read them. Now, let's start with [F2]. (Turns to F2) You must
 173 read with feeling and very loud. Okay? And with feeling. I don't want you to
 174 read: some, product, are, advertised. So, with feeling. Okay? Read all of
 175 that. (F2 reads her passage and gives her answer).
 176 F2 Therefore we chose C.
 177 T 'Before and after'. And congratulations, you didn't stop (xxx). Very good. (T &
 178 SS laugh. Some SS clapped their hands. T calls M2). Your turn. (M2 reads
 179 his passage and gives his answer).
 180 T Everybody agree—that's number 1? One. Okay, very good. (For the next
 181 passage, T calls M1's name). (.....) With feeling.
 182 M1 With feeling. Yes (smiles).
 183 T Yes. (M1 reads his passage and gives his answer).
 184 SS Yeah.
 185 T Well.
 186 SS Well (...) (some laugh).
 187 T (To observer) You and I think that's number 5.
 188 SS No!
 189 T Okay, you can convince everybody why that should be five.
 190 O (I actually refuse to comment, but T and SS insist). Okay, er (...) I think it's five.
 191 M Five.
 192 O Expertise. (A few SS raise their hands).
 193 M1 Can you explain to us? (SS laugh).
 192 O I think it's based on the first paragraph, "Because someone has been successful in
 193 one field, he should be regarded as an authority in other fields." So someone's expertise
 194 in one field has been used to advertise a product which is probably in another field.
 195 T Yeah (turns to M2 who seems to want to say something). Okay?
 196 M2 (xxxx).
 197 T Anyone else? (No response). One thing that I agree with Chairil actually is because -I
 198 was going to say that the word expert doesn't always -isn't really the expert in the

- 199 product. This is because he is famous, we just [call] somebody an expert. You know, the
 200 same thing, like somebody who writes a book. You think that person is really smart, he
 201 knows everything [because] it's a book. If I wrote a book, you think I was really, really
 202 excellent, an expert. So I think that's why I would put that one, because the other one
 203 you put number 10. How many of you put number 10 on there? (*A few students raise*
 204 *their hands*). Yeah, it's about the same thing number 10. But 'keeping up with the Joneses' is
 205 like your neighbour. If somebody has a BMW, you think you need a BMW. If someone
 206 has a big TV, you need a big TV. That's 'keeping up with the Joneses,' not expertise. So,
 207 all right, let's go. Later we'll come to that. Okay. So let's have number D. (*T asks F1 to*
 208 *read and give the answer. After this a few other SS also read and give their answers*).
 209 (*T comments on SS's answers*) (xxx) that are examples of any of these. Can you
 210 think of one 'before and after'? What do they usually have in 'before and after'
 211 advertisements?
 212 M1 Diet.
 213 T Yeah, for diet. Exactly. You wanna lose weight, they show you this picture of a big, fat
 214 person (xxxx). Okay. What about 'association of ideas'? Can you think of any examples?
 215 (*No response*). Has any of you seen the video of er, that body language videos?
 216 SS (xx).
 217 T Have you seen that one? And do you remember any ice-cream or chocolate?
 218 SS/M1 Yeah.
 219 T So there's always association with that. It's a -the feeling (...).
 220 M1 (xxxx).
 221 T (*Laughs*). Yes. Very good. Sexual feelings are associated with chocolate and ice cream,
 222 within 'Heaven'. (*Turns to M5*) you know how they do that? Is it *Heaven*?
 223 SS Yes, [ice cream].
 224 T Great. What about the expertise? Have you got any examples of that one? Anything
 225 they're selling? What about -well, what about the Australian golfer? What's his name?
 226 M1 Er (*thinks hard*).
 227 T Greg?
 228 M1 Yeah, Greg.
 229 T Greg Norman.
 230 M1 Greg Norman.
 231 T What does Greg Norman sell? (*No response*). He sells cars (*almost like whispering*)
 232 Toyota?
 233 M5 Holden.
 234 T Station Holden. Yeah, cars. Okay, so that's the example of using someone's -can you
 235 think of any?
 236 M5 Nintendo.
 237 T Oh, Nintendo. That's right. See that swimmer?
 238 SS Swimmer.
 239 T That's a good one. That's a good advertisement.
 240 M1 (xxxx).
 241 T Yeah, I like that one. What about D? Can you think of any of that?

The discussion went on like this for about 10 minutes. After this the teacher introduced another material.

- 242 T I want you to have a look at this. This is -now, I only have five. So we need almost
 243 three people [for one] book.
 244 M1 But we are four.
 245 T Oh (*chuckles; T hands out the books, and approaches M5, F6, F7, F8*). You are four. (*To*
 246 *F6*) You can come closer. (*To M2*) You can read upside down?
 247 M2 Yes. That's okay.
 248 T Page 138. Yeah, this (xx) I think is a very good explanation about writing an
 249 argumentative essay. So basically, what I'd really just like you to do is just read that
 250 paragraph B 'Defending your point of view'. Just read that to yourselves.

The students started reading their books in their groups—one book for 3-4 students. The teacher approached F4.

- 251 T Do you wanna come over here? (*points at M5's group*), and (xxxx).
 252 F4 Yap.
 253 T (*Turns to F2*) But you might wanna go over here (*F2 moves*)

The teacher changed her mind soon after this and asked F4 to form one group with F2. She also asked M2 to join M1, M3, M4, and F3. After reading for about 5 minutes, the students were asked to discuss what they read. I missed the very beginning of the teacher's instructions.

- 254 T (...) Er to take away with form that paragraph. Which one? (*To M2*) Yeah? Yeah. okay.
 255 Logical thinking. What are you gonna say about logical thinking? What is the
 256 main -what did he say about logical thinking? What is the phrase there? More about
 257 logic. What is -what is logic? How is logic? What is logic? What is a logical thinker?
 258 What is a logical (x)? Can you find it? All right. Can you find a sentence? This is
 259 scanning, scanning skills I am looking at. Okay, so that's all I want you to be aware of—
 260 that from what you write is an indication of how your mind works. Now, you can move
 261 over the page -and you can see there, on page -one on page 140, about an issue. Start
 262 right at the bottom, a question that sets out the problem behind the topic. So read that
 263 part.

The teacher checked the work of each group. She walked around the class and assisted when needed. After about 5 minutes, the class continued.

- 264 T About the next section -what have -what is interesting about what you've just written
 265 now? (*Calls M4's name, no response; T approaches F2 and calls her name and points to*
 266 *the book*). Starting down here. This and this. If you put that together, what is the key
 267 idea? (*No response*). What did he say here? What is the key word in that (*to the whole*
 268 *class*)? (*Turns to F2*) What did you say? The key word is highlighted. What is the key
 269 word in that section?
 270 M1 The issue
 271 T What?
 272 M1 Issue.
 273 T What did he say about the issue? (*Writes on the board*). The issue. What did he say
 274 about it? The issue what?
 275 M1 (xxx).
 276 T It is the most important part and therefore where does he put [it]? The issue is most
 277 important to mention. He put it where?
 278 M5 In the beginning.
 279 T Right in the beginning. All right (*writes on the board*).

This kind of exchange lasted for about 10 minutes.

- 280 T Now, you can turn the page again. You can see number 3, at the bottom of page 142.
 281 (*Long pause*) And then it talks about the (xxx) C: "Why did the people disagree with the
 282 writer and are likely to [call] that opinion. So can you read that section a little bit? (*Writes*
 283 *on the board*) So you're ignoring (xxx). So you know from the start it state why these
 284 people are disagreeing (*writes on the board*). There are two sides. There must be
 285 two sides—one side agrees, one side disagrees. All right (*Writes on the board*). (...).
 286 So that there are two sides, and that some people legitimately, legitimately,
 287 everybody is not -doesn't have to think about. You all have separate minds. So some
 288 people hold one opinion, quite an opposite to other people. So there are two sides and
 289 someone holds. But then the very important sentence there -ten, is highlighted. It says
 290 [it] never gives more than support for the opposite. So never give more than one reason on
 291 your argument.

The teacher red number 4, page 143. F7 helped her to position the board to make it easier for the teacher to write.

- 292 T Okay (*laughs*). So, where do we put the writer's opinion? (*SS & T laugh*). I haven't

- 293 written it, yet. What does it say there? All right, the M-I-S, the M-I-S. What does it say
 294 about it? (*Turns to M1, M2, M4*) Is it answer to the issue? (*No response for about 10*
 295 *seconds*). Page 146. You'll see, page 146, you'll see a very neat and tiny beginning for an
 296 argumentative essay. The first sentence, notice there, under checklist for the x paragraph,
 297 the first sentence. So under checklist. (*T helps M2 and F4*). A checklist. Okay, the first
 298 sentence or the first part of your essay, you (xxx) between the topic and the recent event.
 299 It is the same thing that you'll say over and over about getting the attention of the
 300 audience. So that's the first thing that happens. The second, an issue is phrased as a
 301 question. This is just a very technique -very good technique if you want an
 302 argumentative essay. So for example, the last argumentative essay, we could say
 303 something about "Why is there a breakdown in communication?" So you can say,
 304 "People all over the world are communicating each other." Yeah, "Is there then a
 305 breakdown in communication?" And the sentence "Some people say there is no
 306 breakdown in communication because [blah, blah, blah]. In this essay I am going to
 307 argue that there is a breakdown in communication." Then if you look over on page
 308 147, you'll see that the first reason is, the second reason why is blah, blah, blah. So it's
 309 very important that you follow these techniques. They are a little bit boring and a little
 310 bit -some of you are more creative and you don't like to fill in the boxes, because you
 311 wanna use some thing that's more creative. But really, this is a very, very good thing to
 312 have in your mind. It's the very basic of writing an argumentative essay and it all begins
 313 from the introduction. So the introduction has like four parts. One of those four parts
 314 again?
 315 M2 (xxx).
 316 T What? Did you say that -what's the first part? (*No response*). Yeah, well, it's all the
 317 introduction.
 318 M Er (...).
 319 T What (xxxx)? It doesn't come to the last one. There are four parts to the introduction.
 320 What's the first part? (*No response*).
 321 T Link to=
 322 M1 =Link the topic [to current event].
 323 T Link the topic to current event. If possible we call this more often 'grab attention'. Okay?
 324 What's the second one?
 325 M The issue.
 326 T State the issue (*writes on the board*). Three?
 327 M [Grab attention].
 328 T No. Three is (...) counter-argument. A statement, counter-argument (*writes on the board*)
 329 Statement. Four is statement of opinion (*writes on the board*).

After this, the teacher explained one last item of the exercise and then continued to give more explanation of the whole exercise.

- 330 T It's easy to write because what you need to do is -okay, [the first reason] to support that,
 331 the second reason to support that. And remember I said many times, you need about
 332 three. So, this is the reason, example, reason, example, reason, example.

The teacher stopped at this point and was about to conclude the session. but one of the students reminded her of the song the class had composed.

- 333 T What about the song?

J.1.2.2. Day 3 (Friday, 3 April 1998, 9-10.50am, 1st session)

The teacher introduced a game called *The Syllable Soup* to the first four students in the classroom that morning. She gave each student a copy of the game.

- 1 T (xxx) till everybody comes (xxx). The stressed syllable is in the square. So you have to put
 2 words together. I think it's pretty easy, but I don't know (xxxx). So, like we have the

- 3 words to-mor-row. So the (xxx) comes to like this and that, and that (*putting circle and*
 4 *square around the syllables*). And this one, all the first syllables have a capital letter,
 5 and the stressed syllables [though] in the middle. And what they've done is they've
 6 taken out the first syllables and the middle syllables. And they've left some other ones in
 7 there. And you have to decide. So like the first one, (xxx), the stressed syllable as well as
 8 the first syllable and the other parts are cu-la-tor (*from 'calculator'*). So what would that
 9 be—in that first top syllable?
- 10 F3 Cal-.
- 11 T Cal-, yeah. So it would be 'calculator'.
- 12 F3 (*Looks at T and asks*) Go down or? =
- 13 T = You go down. That's not a first syllable -oh, yeah!
- 14 You go down, sorry. So you go down, across or up and down, or across. But in the circle,
 15 you'll find a syllable that starts with a capital letter.
- 16 F3 In this one?
- 17 T Yeah, and in this one you have to find the stressed syllables, which will [have] to be one
 18 of these, without the capital letters. Do you understand? (*turns to F6 and F4*).
- 19 F4 No.
- 20 T (*Chuckles*) Oh, my God. (*Turns to F2 who comes in late*). Good morning! (*Goes to the*
 21 *board and started writing*). Okay, so they've taken all the syllables (xxx). Okay? They've
 22 taken the word 'tomorrow', right? And they've erased these and they put out in the side
 23 here, and -so your task is to find a syllable with a capital letter and put it in a circle, and
 24 find another syllable that is the stressed syllable in the word and put it in the square. So
 25 you got 'to-mor-row'.
- 26 F3 And then you go down?
- 27 T And then you go down. So what would that be? Look at this one—going down. What
 28 would that be? So you need 'something-vi-sion', 'something-vi-sion'. You can try -well,
 29 maybe you could go 'tele-er-sion'. What could that be? Tele-er-sion.
- 30 F Television.
- 31 T Television. Okay, so 'tel-' and then here you put in -where is it? V-I, then you put T-E-
 32 L, and then E and then V-I and then (*writes '-sion' on the board*). So 'television'. Okay.
 33 (*Turns to F4*) Now you understand? (*laughs*).
- 34 F4 Yeah.
- 35 T Now you have only fifteen minutes. Oh, (*T comes to observer and gives one copy of the*
 36 *game*).

After about 5 minutes, M3 came in late. The teacher explained to M3 how to play the game and what the next activity she wanted him to do.

- 37 T And also I have a composition for you to do. (*T gives more explanation to M3 regarding*
 38 *'the rules of the game. Then M1 comes in late*). There are fourteen, fourteen words (xxx).

A few other students came in late and the teacher briefed them on what the game was about. The teacher also assisted some students who had asked for her help. The students were informed that the game was just a starter. Approximately 15 minutes was spent on the game. The teacher then introduced 'the main business' of the day. I missed the very beginning of the teacher's explanation.

- 39 T This is just=
 40 M1 =Paraphrase?
 41 T Er...no, no. You don't need to paraphrase. Not paraphrase, because you don't need to
 42 change any words. But what type of sentences are each of those? What type of
 43 sentences are there?
- 44 F3 Short.
- 45 T Short (*laughs*). What's the other word for short? (*Jokes and laughs*). We have *dada* and
 46 *dada*.
- 47 F3 (xxx).
- 48 T No, no. One starts with an S and the other one with a C. No? What kind of sentences are
 49 they? Simple and? It starts with a C. Simple are short. What about the one that starts with
 50 a C?

- 51 F4 Complex?
 52 T Complex. (*Other SS clap their hands; T laughs*). So what you are doing is making
 53 complex sentences. Hey, how very sophisticated students you are.

The students started working individually. Because the new material was about 'April's Fools', the teacher had to explain it to the students who come from different cultural backgrounds.

- 54 T "There's a custom on April first to play jokes on other people". Right? That's one
 55 version. The other version is "They are accustomed to play jokes on other people on
 56 April first". Which is stronger? Both are grammatically -everything is right. But which
 57 one is stronger? If you say 'April first', it sort of hit people with a [day]. So if it's 'there's
 58 a custom' and 'on the first of April.' And then what happens? (*T approaches F4 and M2*
 59 *and assists them*).
 60 M2 (xxx).
 61 T Okay (...), which is to play jokes.
 62 M2 On the other.
 63 T Not on the other, on other. Thank you (*laughs*).
 64 M2 Other (*M2 & T laugh*) Why?
 65 T It's just general. We don't know which. We didn't need a determiner like 'the'. We know
 66 which people. But in this case, it's any people, person. So we don't need a determiner 'to
 67 play jokes on other people'. (*T goes to see other the groups*). But you need to say
 68 something=
 69 M1 =(xxxx).
 70 T What, what did you say?
 71 M1 No one knows when it began a long time ago.
 72 T No, because that means no one a long time ago knew where it started. So that's (...).
 73 so, so just keep the same order. "This tradition began a long time ago".
 74 F3 No one knows where?
 75 T You need a=
 76 F4 =Although?
 77 T No.
 78 M2 And no one knows where.
 79 T Well, what's the better word? --because it means -although is a little bit -because it
 80 indicates that this is going to be something, not really an addition.
 81 F3 But no one knows where.
 82 T But (...)
 83 M2 But.
 84 T But, the conjunction, but. "No one knows where this tradition began".

The students continued working on the next sets of sentences and the teacher goes around the class to monitor and assist the students.

- 85 M2 No one knows where it began.
 86 T Where it began. "The tradition (xx) a long time ago, but no one knows where it began.
 87 M2 Good (*laughs*).
 88 T Okay. Thank you (*laughs and goes to see other SS; F4 indicates that she needs help*).
 89 What? (*looks at F4's work*). Yeah, but what about the tense? What about the tense in
 90 (xxx)? What do you think (xxx)? Didn't it began in the past and now it's in the present? It
 91 started in the past and here it is in the present. So what do you say?
 92 M2 (xxx).
 93 T No. 'May have come' (*answers her own question*). 'May have come', 'may have come'
 94 (*to other SS*). (*To M5*) Did you write that? 'May have come', 'may have come' (...).
 95 From ancient Greece or the Greeks, the ancient Greeks.
 96 M Greece.
 97 T I don't know. What (xxx)? (...). "The custom may have come from the ancient
 98 Greeks where?" (*No response*) Where? =
 99 F3 = "a daughter was kidnapped by (xxx)."
 100 (*T smiles; uncertain*). Yeah, because (xxx) that she was kidnapped.
 101 T Well, okay. All right. "Where a daughter was kidnapped by Pluto, God of the

- 162 M2 [But now they are still popular].
 163 T Well, you can change that, right? No (...) because that doesn't talk about now. We don't
 164 care about now because it's all finished.
 165 M "April fooling become* popular"=
 166 T =Became.
 167 M2 (*Laughs*) "became popular in France after [1864] (xxx)".
 168 T Very good, very good.

At this point, the teacher went to see someone who knocked on the door. After this, this sort of discussion went on up to about 5 minutes, until the end of the class.

L.2. At STKIP

L.2.1. Class: Speaking III (30 students)

L.2.1.1. Day 1 (28 October 1997; 8-10.20 am)

- 1 M1 (xxx) western culture and eastern culture and my view of opinion er point of
 2 view is that eastern culture (xxxx).
 3 M3 In my opinion is that all culture is good. There's no good culture, there's no soft
 4 culture. It's based on the geographical, their major religion that influence their
 5 life. I mean that the culture itself have some characteristic because of the
 6 background like (xxx). Maybe you can say that Western culture is a little bit
 7 free, the Western culture is a bit free and the Eastern culture is er a more
 8 closed.
 9 M1 (xxx) be careful the Western culture, because they can become our culture (xxx). Western
 10 culture, when they are 17 age they carry- always carry the (x) sex (*laughs*). Maybe it's
 11 forbidden for us but we must talk about it because when we talk about the culture, when
 12 comparing between Western and Eastern culture we also have, have to, have to er
 13 describe when, how the Western culture's life and how the Eastern culture's life. And
 14 then the second one is the factors of er [the greatest] of er Indonesian culture =
 15 T = Are you- wait, are you the first group? (*to M3 -member of Group A—who comes late*).
 16 M3 (nods).
 17 T Okay, sit down. (xx).
 18 M1 (*Continues*) Western culture and Eastern culture is the society. You know. You know
 19 society? I mean that the Western culture when they want to do they have to read, but
 20 Indonesia—Eastern culture, they can apply, they can realise what they do, what they say.
 21 For example - so I'm sorry, so the most of people said Indonesian culture is they have
 22 maybe talk and talk and talk. Er Western culture (xxx).
 23 M4 I understand that but the geographical aspect in the Western culture itself is different. So
 24 maybe I can say that the Indonesian people is er very er- the Eastern people is very
 25 polite, very polite, in offering something to someone, or in telling something to someone.
 26 But the Western people also polite as their way. I think it's the- the point.
 27 M1 Okay. I understood =
 28 T =Yeah, so- wait. (xxx) of the discussion, the differences but why don't you give an
 29 evaluation of that culture? Yeah, of course, what [M4] said depends on the (xx) about it.
 30 Okay, talking about religion and something like that. So, the production of culture also
 31 influenced by religion. Yeah, the best or the good one, yeah, depend on the philosophies,
 32 philosophy of one nation. Yeah, something like that. Yeah, do you want to add more
 33 comment? (*To M1*).
 34 M1 Eastern culture is homogen* --*maksudnya homogen begitu, Sir*, homogen*, and Western
 35 culture (...) in England they have more one, they have one or two religi* and the major of
 36 their religi* is Christian, maybe. Christian. But Eastern culture they have many religi*. So
 37 I think, Western culture is homogeneous society. And this factor caused by- because the
 38 people or society of Western culture is =
 39 T = not homogeneous but heterogen.

- 40 M1 (*Smiles*) Yeah, yeah, not homogen*, heterogen. (.....)
- 41 M2 (*Adds a little bit later*). Er, the religion is the- I will deal with what [M1] said that the
- 42 religi* of Western culture is majority like Christian. According to me, culture is er, the
- 43 religi* is not influenced to the culture because the religi* er what we do to the
- 44 relationship with our God. So, er culture is not, what is, not relationship about er
- 45 religion. Maybe that's all.
- 46 M1 But they think (*smiles*) they have contrast idea. But remember when something (xxx) in
- 47 the world, they have human rights. One human right is religion. Then you know that
- 48 religi* is er giving impact, major impact of our life, major impact of our life. For example
- 49 when the society don't have anything concerning the God, for example, they
- 50 have no religi* (xx) their act is, maybe, no direct. No direct. They have no =
- 51 M4 =Uh, I know that er about the influence of the culture and religion. We have to say that
- 52 the culture is- the culture of one nation is influenced by not only religion here—not only
- 53 religion, but another aspets, like geographical, arts, and et cetera. There are many aspects
- 54 that will be (xx). Maybe, I know that er (xxx) to be influenced the culture like that=
- 55 M1 But=
- 56 T = Yeah, er, wait. [Concentrate] what the speaker said, yeah? You understand?
- 57 SS Yeah, yeah.
- 58 T Don't just listen and keep silent without active (x),. Right. Now, talking about cluture,
- 59 yeah, I think the start is what is culture is? You know culture? (*To M2*) Can you give
- 60 definition?
- 61 M2 Er, definition of culture is er what is our habit and with knowledge, arts, moral, et
- 62 cetera, like that (*SS laugh*).
- 63 M1 (xxxx)
- 64 T (*Summarises*) (xxx) create in order to fulfil their needs in their life, that is culture,
- 65 include arts. You know arts?
- 66 SS Yeah.
- 67 T Arts=
- 68 M3 =Yes.
- 69 T Science
- 70 M Yeah.
- 71 T Religion (*writes on the board*). And something like that (.....). Okay. Go on, please. The
- 72 other speaker? (*Turns to F2*) You? (*No response*).
- 73 M1 ➡ (xxx) when and why er how, how, how you are. Do we see the way of their habitual?
- 74 Most-of- I think most of Western culture is always wear the short er short clothes. It's
- 75 different, I think they're usually—they refers to wearing the clothes is er is (.....) (*smiles*)
- 76 You know whether=
- 77 M4 =Actually they are very tidy (*laughs*).
- 78 M1 Yeah, yeah (xxx) when they are wearing the short clothes. But maybe they are refers to
- 79 being free, yeah? *Lebih bebas untuk berpakaian*. But when we are talking about their
- 80 wearing, the short clothes, no! I don't agree.
- 81 T Yeah, religion roots. Okay, er, you must remember you are going to talk about culture,
- 82 wide- wider than that. So whenever you see from one point, er Western point and
- 83 Eastern pint, don't become stand on one side. Yes? It means you must consider
- 84 advantages and disadvantages. And later I will ask you your princip* later. Right? Okay.
- 85 Something like that. Yeah.
- 86 M3 But we're talking about the moral=
- 87 T = The other speakers?
- 88 M3 Talking about er Western culture, we know that culture, arts and science. Maybe when
- 89 we combine the- the culture of Western and Eastern depends on the situation. If the
- 90 culture from Western can (xxx) for example the arts, maybe according er - external
- 91 culture it's very, very freedom for creative- create the art. For example, maybe Western
- 92 custom they are free- are very free. And in research, we can see- what is, er, our our
- 93 [republic] different to their religion because the reason is Western culture is from
- 94 Christian=
- 95 T = (xxxx). (*Reminds M1 & M2—who are whispering to each other—to pay attention to*
- 96 *what M3 is talking about*).
- 97 M3 And then in science, this er, we can say that the freedom of think and then, what is,
- 98 Westerner's freedom of thinking for the science. And they are very-very problem,
- 99 because they're freedom to think about er science. And I think, all of the culture in East

- 100 can take it. For example, in their science, about the technology (...). In the Western it's
 101 very well growing, but in our country, it's very low. Only er maybe a few of er country
 102 is maybe very good, for example Japan and er Korea, North Korea. That is, I think about
 103 M4 (xxx)
 104 M1 (xxx) develop our country which include technology, which include technology and
 105 science. Well, smaller than Western culture, Western nations, I mean states of Western,
 106 because maybe I think er it's caused by, it's caused by they have, they have er
 107 instruments more than us. The first, the- they have scientist more than us=
 108 M4 =This is—I mean that Western culture (xxx) especially Indonesian. I think I want some
 109 ideas of yours; how can we grow it up? Maybe like that.
 110 M1 (xxx) =
 111 T =Wait. So we don't more about religion=
 112 M1 =Yes.
 113 T Yeah. Talk about science.
 114 M1 Yeah, [but] when we talk cultures this is er of course there is some factors—science—
 115 when talk the science, and we have to concerning the religi*, for example, when- don't say
 116 Western influence, Eastern culture, especially er technology field. You know one of
 117 power of motivate our=
 118 M4 =So you mean that whenever we take er one aspect of culture we have to consider
 119 another aspect =
 120 M1 =Yeah.
 121 M4 (*Nods*). So if we're talking about the science and other aspect, we have to consider
 122 another one. So it's will go just smoothly. Yes.
 123 T Yeah, (xxx). Perhaps like that. (*Turns to F1*) Do you have an ideas? (*F1 smiles; no*
 124 *response. Now T turns to M2*) How about you, [M2]?
 125 M2 Yeah, technology, for example in Gorontalo er especially Gorontalo (xxxx) Eastern
 126 culture approach. Maybe er or Indonesia, Indonesian, maybe use traditional tool and in
 127 Gorontalo, in Indonesia, the people in Indonesia er what, not to to look for how to grow
 128 up their er technology. But in Western, Western, they will look for how grow up their
 129 technology. That's all.
 130 T Yeah, er (*turns to M3 for response*).
 131 M3 Yeah, talking about culture, that's depends to each er culture, [speaking about culture of
 132 Western and Western culture]. Let's see, culture is very good to um to income, for
 133 example income for culture is very, very much. You can see our development of the
 134 culture to take many, many, what is, income. The culture they keep much, much of the
 135 development. For the culture our government realise that is according of our income to
 136 make our country process of out profit um budget. And in the science, I think talking
 137 science, every country is different. SO if we compare Indonesia and the country in
 138 European, of course, talking about the Western, of course it is er they are the country in
 139 European (...).
 140 M4 (xx) depend the demand, what Indonesia demand, what Indonesia needs now. Indonesia is
 141 er agrobusiness* that it needs the technology that relate [to it]. But I mean that we can
 142 say that we can compare with the Western nation that need more technology for their
 143 nation, just like to build up jet. Like that. But for Indonesian people is how to make their-
 144 what- their agrobusiness* grow better.
 145 T Yeah
 146 M1 Yes. I think may be we can say (xxx). It doesn't mean we just build agroculture* 's tools
 147 but we have to build up our jets for example, the technology and space, because to build
 148 (xx) our nation we have to *kinerja* from many aspects =
 149 T = performance, performance, performance.
 150 SS Yeah, performance.
 151 M1 Performance (...) many, many aspects. First, when we develop nation just in economic,
 152 it's impossible. Why? Because we have- we need education, we need prosperity, we need
 153 export for prosperity, we need the army =
 154 M3 Maybe.
 155 T (*Looks at F1 & F2*) No more? [M2]? (*No response*). Okay (*to the whole class*), just
 156 spend about thirty minutes to discuss about Western and Eastern culture, yes. Er, this
 157 [time] I give to the other groups. Group 2. (*Points at a few students*) Are you Group 2?

I did not record the comments from the speaker of Group 2, who was in the audience. M4, the speaker of presenting-group B responded.

- 158 M4 If it's what we demand, if we need it, why not? We can receive that, because the culture
159 itself is very complex. It can change by time to time, because the culture is transferred
160 from generation to generation; and every generation need a different thing.
161 M1 To (xxx) we have a filter. We have a filter. Yes. Why? Because we have religi*, religion.
162 We have religion. We are Moslem, and we have er =
163 M4 =Ideology.
164 M1 =Er love nation. *Pancasila*.
165 T Yeah.
166 M4 I don't know [it's] question or statement. I don't know what the emphasis of it. I mean
167 you are asking about religion or the moral one or the relationship between er person to
168 person. I think it's very (xx).

The teacher concluded the exchanges, but he was interrupted by an announcement delivered on the loudspeaker. The class paused for a few minutes to listen to it.

- 169 T Er, actually the purpose of discussion is, one, to develop your ability for the last things.
170 Yeah. So you will be er woman or man analysis form many other aspects; from points of
171 view, many other views. (*There came another announcement through the loudspeaker so*
172 *the class had to pause*). Participants should be ready even though it's not your time to
173 make discussion. Okay? (*The class paused again for another announcement*). I'm going
174 on (xx) again that I call you man or woman analysis. So every student should be ready
175 before class. SO you must know the next topic, what kind of topic will be discussed. This
176 is will help you to be ready to speak because, yeah, this is Speaking 3. Er, actually I just
177 emphasise on your skills but it is impossible without material, it is impossible without
178 material. So, besides your knowledge, you are going to express directly, spontaneously
179 and also your language will be grow up, will be grow up. Okay, culture. Talking about
180 culture, religion, religion is er will influence that. So culture, so religion is er input
181 culture, but don't think that religion is a culture. Okay, and the next, science and
182 theory. That is- will different the modern people and the primitive people. The modern
183 people always analyse, so they always make analyse what happen in the next future.
184 Right? Yeah, something like that. But the primitive one just intuitive things. Yeah,
185 according to their experience only. Okay, do you understand? But the modern people
186 always analyse in the next. Yeah, er the next, authority. The primitive people just regard
187 status. You know status?
188 SS Yeah=
189 T =In the society. But the modern oene based on *prestation*. * Okay? Pers- what is it, yeah,
190 *prestation*. * So they will be give the chance to the leader in a certain group because of
191 *presiden'* and so on. It is the modern one. Yeah, and the next, yeah, Indonesian habit is
192 talking habit. Yeah, some of people, Indonesian people don't like read. How to become a
193 poor man- er a scientific people without reading? So they just (*smiles*) -we know that
194 (xx) some of people, Indonesia people don't like read. But some of them like. So if you
195 don't have a habit in reading, you don't know the improvement, the improvement and so
196 on. Of course you don't know, you don't be able to make prediction. Okay? How about
197 Indonesia—Indonesian people? Are they modern people or primitive people? (*SS answer*
198 *this by mumbling*).
199 T What is the modern is? I ask you what is modern is? That is a few part of discussion.
200 Modern, you know modern? (*Turns to M4*) What is modern is? (*SS laugh*). Do you have
201 er what is it opinion? About modern? (*Turns to the rest of the class*) What is the modern
202 people? (*No response*). They use their brain to thinks! Yeah, if you don't use your brain
203 to think, to overcome things, you just let things happen naturally, yeah, it's not modern
204 people. Okay, you form, from the basic form. Well, the modern people, yeah, of course,
205 they just follow another people. They have a certain identity. Yeah, perhaps if it's the
206 same culture, yeah, that is- what is it? Happen, yeah- that is only similar. But they don't
207 take directly. Perhaps they think, oh, perhaps they think the culture is good for us so they
208 take it and the modify it. Okay? That is modern people. Whenever, perhaps, you are 17

209 years old, you don't ask money more from your parents. Perhaps, you save yourself
 210 money for your study or school fee, and something like that. Perhaps. Okay, yeah, from
 211 economic aspects. Okay (.....) . Er, I hope you, the next presenter will be ready, and
 212 also for participant. Yeah, so you can speak in this context. This context is best for you to
 213 practise in order for you to improve speaking skills. Okay? The first group, for the next
 214 meeting, you can submit it—your paper, based on what happened today. Okay?

L.2.1.2. Day 2 (4 November 1997; 8-10.20 am)

1 T Okay, we are going to continue our activities as what we have been done in- but before
 2 the class began, began, I ask you for you to prepare the sken* (scene?) of this room
 3 especially for the groups will carry out discussion. Who is the =?
 4 SS = Group 2A.
 5 T Why don't make er (.....) (SS mumble). Okay, let's do it (The groups come forward and
 6 prepare the discussion for a few minutes). All participants or all students will follow-
 7 should follow the- this program actively. So you thinks what are discuss and then you can
 8 take a note. Later I will give you a chance- you can present your idea concerning the
 9 material that they have discussed. Do you understand?
 10 SS Yeah//yes.
 11 T If I call you and you don't speak, it means that you lost the chance to practise. So all
 12 things will be expressed spontaneously, okay, based what people will discuss in this class.
 13 Now, I would like to ask- I would like to ask you- this group (to Group A). Who is to be
 14 leader? (M5 raises his hand).
 15 T [M5]. So you organise well this program. Er, I think you have a small discuss, yeah,
 16 before this class. Okay. Do you understand? What topic are you going to discuss?
 17 M5 Students' motivation.
 18 T Yeah, students' motivation, yeah. So talking about motivation. I ask all of you, you have
 19 basic knowledge about motivation, whether from your experience or from the theorists.
 20 Okay?
 21 SS Yes.
 22 T o you can relate it- what do you have known about the motivation. Do you think
 23 motivation is important in learning?
 24 SS Oh, really*! (affirmative).
 25 T Do you think?
 26 SS Yeah.
 27 T Yeah, of course, yeah. If you [say] of course, it means that you have [to listen]- why do
 28 you say like that—that motivation is very important for all students? So here you get
 29 views from many aspects, okay? From many aspects; for example from theorists, from
 30 experience, from researcher's views. You know researcher's views? So I think, yes, er,
 31 university students or institute students, of course, they have to read er the result of
 32 research. You can relate it. So that's why I ask you, before the class begin, you must
 33 know the topic for the next. So you must be ready. Not only for the presenter or er the
 34 members of this group, but all students. Don't waste or lost the chance whenever I give.
 35 Talking about motivation, have you read many reference about this? No?
 36 F No.
 37 T Why? Why you don't read it?
 38 M Er.
 39 T Yeah. I want to know your reason.
 40 M Because we didn't know the material for today and they not tell us.
 41 T You don't know the material? (Turns to Group A) Why you didn't tell them?
 42 M5 I think we informed them about our materials. We inform them about the topic of our
 43 materials.
 44 T Have you informed them? Have you=?
 45 M5
 46 F3 Yes
 47 F4
 48 T Yeah.
 49 SS (xxx) [about education].
 50 M2 They told to us that their material is about education.

- 51 T Yeah, they shift to- form the large to the small things. Yeah. But you should be inform
52 that to your friends. Okay, you understand that? So all the people here, concentrate about
53 motivation. Yeah, because that is the basic [thing] that is psychological aspect that we
54 need in learning. As a teacher, of course, should know well. Okay? Why- why should the
55 teachers know well motivation problems?
- 56 F (xxx).
- 57 T Yes. It's a question. You know, it is a question. You can answer in the (x) [research] and
58 so on. So here you are going to argue from many views. Okay? Do you understand it? So
59 don't just follow your friends' discussion but also enlarge your sight. You know sight-
60 insight?
- 61 SS 'Wawasan.'
- 62 T Yeah. Okay. Er, educational book yeah that discuss about motivation is very important to
63 read as candidate teachers like you. Okay? Because this one of important aspect should be
64 considered whenever I'm going to teach. Okay? Yeah, motivation—whenever the student
65 don't have motivations in learning, of course the learning and teaching process can't run
66 well. Something like that. Okay, let's think. Yes? Okay next [x], please lead this
67 discussion- to introduce your topics, perhaps you have a small notes, you can present it.
68 Okay? Yeah, you can present it.
- 69 M5 I'm going to discuss about students' motivation =
- 70 T = Perhaps it's better to stand up so all participants can see you.
- 71 M5 (*Stands up and starts reading his notes*). "Student who have the motivation (xx) than
72 students who have not the motivation because the existence of motivation can- will
73 facilitate them to learn. There are two kinds of motivation, namely intrinsic motivation
74 [*henceforth: IM*] are inherent in learning situation and meet pupil's needs and purpose, the
75 [desire] to achieve certain (xx) useful in solving (x) problems (xxx) information and
76 understanding, to develop attitudes (xxxx). Extrinsic motivation [*henceforth: EM*] (xx)
77 outside the learning situation. I think that's [all]."
- 78 T Yeah, please (xx) (*asks the other group to comment*).
- 79 M6 Before we're talking about this topic, I want to talk about er motivation generally. Er, I
80 mean all the sectors, business sectors, sport- sport- sport sectors and many, many others
81 need motivation. Like this er for a boxer. A boxer with (xxx) on the ring when he (xx)
82 championship, he needs motivation from trainer. Trainer give a motivation to a boxer to
83 win the game. Like this, how to do straight, how to do jab, how to get down the enemy.
84 And then when we comes to business, a manager give a motivation to the workers how to
85 develop their activities in their jobs. So um how to develop their creativity in their job and
86 then a manager give motivation to reach success in their job. And then motivation I thinks
87 needed for all the people (...) for instance (.....) somebody or somebody (.....) can fall in
88 love- fall in love to someone and er (.....) no, no, er somebody had fall in love. And then
89 (...) some other times she needed a motivation how to, and then special students I thinks
90 er from special, from teacher his students or her students (...) um (...) give assignment
91 to give assignment to do it at home. When you come back at home, you do it well, or you
92 do it in groups (...). And then give- give it to admire, for instance "You are very good."
93 When they are answered our questions- when they given the question we have to admire,
94 for instance "You are very good student." I think that's.
- 95 T (xxx) (*Asks members of Group A to comment*).
- 96 M5 Er, form their explanation- achievement, academic, the student who have motivation get
97 more high marks that the students have the less (...) I think.
- 98 T (x) (*Asks Group B to comment*).
- 99 M7 Today how to develop (xxx) for example, and then they must qualify or (xx) the
100 classification of motivation, namely (xxxx) or '*motivasi bawaan,*' namely they can (x)
101 without study, without study. Like motivation in eating, motivation to eat, motivation to
102 eat. And the other motivation is like er motivation er to study , like motivation to learn
103 the knowledge. This relates with the motivation (x) qualified ffrom their form. I can
104 classificate* the motivation- the motivation extrinsic and intrinsic, like they've already give
105 explanation just now. Thank you.
- 106 T Okay (*turns to M5 for comments*).
- 107 M5 Yes, there are two kinds of motivation, that is intrinsic and extrinsic. In my opinion, er I
108 also have two kinds of motivation, and I said that I called them the character- the
109 character of motivation. In this case character of motivation, there are two kinds is the
110 same with you have said just now (xx). For example IM and EM. But I want to give you

- 111 the other explanation about motivation. For example, external motivation, external
 112 motivation, is growing up from itself, from the student itself. For example, in reading a
 113 book (xxx) for example the student always read the book. It is his habit, it is his er
 114 motivation. But this habit is not from the teacher. If this habit is from the teacher, it is not
 115 internal motivation, but it's external motivation. But external motivation, for example,
 116 when the teacher give him punishment or when he got- when he gets, he gets lower mark
 117 or he doesn't success in study so that the teacher punish him, so that er, if it grows up in
 118 his motivation to study because if he will bad again the teacher will punish him again, so
 119 that it grew up his motivation. The other comment, please?
- 120 T (*Turns to F5*) Okay, any comment?
- 121 F5 Okay. For [M5]'s opinion. I just want to conclusion I think, similar to what his opinion,
 122 motivation there are in two character or two parts. It's IM and EM. I think in IM it is
 123 depend on the person, EM is based on the environment, '*lingkungan*.' I think like that.
 124 And- but the main, very important is the motivation from the person, from the- because
 125 although some people give motivation to me, for example, but I don't jave motivation
 126 from myself, I think it's not rum well. Yeah. Although my teacher have give me punish,
 127 because I have low marks, I don't have motivation by myself, I think my mark is not- will
 128 be high. So I think it's very important motivation from ourselves.
- 129 T (*x*) (*asks the other group to comment*).
- 130 F4 About motivation, the kinds of motivation, I agree with [F5] answer about when about the
 131 best the motivation for ourselves. Bit there are two motivation, form another person and
 132 from our person. But two kinds- it's related to one each other, one each other have related
 133 I think. From external motivation, for example from the teacher, when the teacher tell to her
 134 students or to his students to (*x*) about the teacher's experience, how the teacher to
 135 success from her study and maybe the teacher reinforce- reinforcement, for example give
 136 the mark to the students answer her question or maybe give the comment.
- 137 T (*x*) (*turns to F3 or comments*).
- 138 F3 I just about motivation- just two parts, internal and external. Special external, if come
 139 from er the other people, the student, like the teacher, in the learning process, teacher will
 140 be- will give a game to one topic so the students can be (*asks for M5's help*)
- 141 M5 Spirit.
- 142 F3 Spirit to er follow the lesson or maybe the teacher can give a present to student champion
 143 or the other students can motivate to try to study hard.
- 144 T Just the way to improve motivation. Yeah, as what you have explained that there are two
 145 category of motivation, IM and =?
- 146 SS Extrinsic.
- 147 T EM. Okay. Now, I would like ask you, especially for the presenter er will- how will you
 148 relate it to learning foreign language? What kind of motivation there? Right. Can you give
 149 an ideas? (*only F4 responds*).
- 150 F4 In foreign language, I think we need participation of students' parents, friends, the
 151 environment of the students. From the parents we can (...) they can help the student to
 152 learn about foreign language. Maybe they can give them some cassette or thing about the
 153 foreign language. And I think, it's can give motivation for her daughter or for her son who
 154 study a lot about a foreign language. And student, it's very important too because if they
 155 have can give motivation to her friend with (*x*) maybe we can talk foreign language each
 156 other. So, for example, me, if I don't know what my friend said, I will try to learn it now,
 157 what he said to me. It is, I think it can give IM. And environment, maybe from the school,
 158 maybe the Chairman can give a native-speaker, maybe there are some area for some
 159 student, if they enter this- that area, they must speak the foreign language . I think it's can
 160 give motivation for the student to learn the foreign language.
- 161 T Yeah (*turns to M5 for comments*).
- 162 M5 The role of teachers is very needed in teaching-learning process. For example the teacher
 163 in teaching-learning process must use English well so that the student will grow up their
 164 motivation to study English, and the other example, the teacher will give them praise in
 165 express who can speak English well, who can speak English well, the teacher will give him
 166 praise and express so the students will grow up their motivation to study English. And
 167 then the other motivation in learning English as a foreign language, for example, as we
 168 know that the students in senior high school is training- training to speak English, but they
 169 can't speak English well. But among them there is also speak English well. The students
 170 who speak English well or (xx) the teacher will give him praise or (*x*) so that the students

- 171 who can't speak English well or who can't master English will motivate herself to master
 172 English as foreign language.
- 173 T Yeah, any comment?
- 174 M6 (xxx) in English course, and then parents can come to the child- children- child or student
 175 what happen in the future, like we come to globalisation area, yeah master of foreign
 176 language, special English is very, very needed. That's all.
- 177 T Influence, right? SO I want to ask presenter [probably] who live in Gorontalo, for
 178 example, where Gorontalo is seldom visit by foreigner. Are all students do not have
 179 motivation? (*Turns to Group A for answer; Group A points at F4 to respond*).
- 180 F4 Motivation to study foreign language. They can study foreign language from the films,
 181 where much films that come to the Gorontalo, film from abroad, and there are much songs
 182 from abroad and I think it give the motivation (xx). They want to know how the meaning-
 183 what's the meaning of that songs of the film. Maybe they can talk about the songs and the
 184 films to their friends. So, it's- can give them motivation to learn foreign language. Second,
 185 the show in the television, or the movie, or they listen from the cassettes.
- 186 F3 Talking about students in Gorontalo, if you- maybe I can my experience to motivate study
 187 foreign language (xxxx).
- 188 T Money, money form the students learn English they can get the chance in the future. What
 189 kind of motivation of this? EM or IM? (*No response*). Clarify or to make clear about EM
 190 and IM. EM and IM in learning English. Can you make clarify- clarify, between learning
 191 English as a foreign language and when they have EM. Can you make clear about these
 192 two problems, please?
- 193 M6 Give them material that we give a lesson in the classroom. I think we inform them that it is
 194 very, very =
- 195 T = Yeah, I think that is the way to improve motivation. Now, I want- I ask you, when the
 196 student have IM in learning English as a foreign language and when they have EM in
 197 learning English as a foreign language?
- 198 F4 IM?
- 199 T Intrinsic- as foreign? =
- 200 F4 = I think it's IM- because it comes from their heart (*laughs*) and for the EM- EM, if there
 201 are much tourist coming to Gorontalo and he see their friends, much people talk foreign
 202 language and she want be like that- she want be like that. I think it's EM, because it's
 203 influenced by environment.
- 204 T Yeah. Now, [we can] discuss later. When English- when the student have EM in learning
 205 EFL and when they have IM in learning EFL. Okay? There are two examples here, have
 206 been presented. One is whenever the students influence the environment, like because
 207 many tourists, so the students learn English. It is EM. And the students have- want to get
 208 a good job in the future, that is IM. (*Points to Group B*) According to [F4]. Okay, these
 209 two examples and you can argue later, argue later. Are there another views from this
 210 group? (*turns to Group A; no response*). (.....) (xxx) people's views, so can you criticise
 211 about this? You relate it your experience and so on. SO here, that is the [new]
 212 assignments for all students to find out the theory of motivation. Okay, do you understand
 213 it? (.....) to find out theories about motivation and explain it, according to Maslow, yeah,
 214 one of them is Maslow (.....). Er, okay, there, I want you, here, from all of you, [views]
 215 from other sides, form other groups about motivation. Group 1, who will be the speaker,
 216 Group 1?
- 217 SS [M4]
- 218 T Yeah, please. (*M4 gives his comments*).

I did not record M4's answer. He spoke for about 3 minutes. After this the teacher asked another student to comment on what M4 said.

- 219 T He has motivation? From- what is your name?
- 220 SS ➡[x]
- 221 T Yeah, please. (*The student then gives her comments*).

Again, I did not record the student's comments. After this the teacher concluded the session by giving an assignment for the whole class.

- 222 T What is it- to explain about the nature of motivation, the nature of motivation, from the
 223 experts' view. Do you know expert?
 224 SS Yeah.
 225 T The expert view. Okay, no questions? (*No response*). And the commentator, the
 226 commentator, should be ready, yeah. Relate to theories and relate it your experience
 227 before come to discussion sessions. Okay, that's all for this meeting. Thank you for your
 228 participation, and clap your hands for the participants. (*T & SS clap their hands*).

L.2.1.3. Day 3 (11 November 1997; 8-10.20 am)

- 1 T Well, two groups will lead this discussion and then we are going to move to the next
 2 activities. So we are going to try to do this, yeah, based on the schedule that we have
 3 composed or we have agreed. Okay, do you understand? Yeah, and I think for the next
 4 groups are ready now to present or to become the speakers (.....). As what we have
 5 discussed or make agreement, that not all the presenters takes the topics that should be
 6 discussed today, but other participants. Okay, (.....) the next group, who's the next
 7 group?
 8 SS Two B.
 9 T Two B, yeah. Have you arranged ?
 10 SS Yeah.
 11 T Okay. Let's do it.

The two groups come forward and arranged their seats. The class continued after about 3 minutes and when the teacher formally opened the discussion and gave more instructions to the presenters.

- 12 T [Library] for the students is familiar. Why, because al of you, of course, (xx) you can or
 13 you have enter the library to find reference there (...). Yeah, so in this case, I think you
 14 have many ideas about this, about library, whether you knew from your (x) or the way, or
 15 the techniques to organise library and not only all the school library, perhaps, but also
 16 private* library. And I think, you as a student, of course, have many books, that you can
 17 organise. You can form it. Okay, you understand? Okay (*turns to Group B*), please lead
 18 this discussion. Who is the organiser? You? (*to M8; M8 nods*). Yeah, please (...) organise
 19 it.
 20 M8 Thank you very much for this chance (x) = (*SS make noise*)
 21 T (*To the rest of the class*) Can you pay attention here, please? Can you hear him?
 22 SS No!
 23 T (*To M8*) Yeah (xxx).
 24 M8 (*In a louder voice*) Okay, thank you very much for this chance for our group, Group B.
 25 And my- our title is library, especially STKIP Library. When we arrange our material
 26 about library, so we have (xxx) about some article. Okay, in general, in every university
 27 there is library. There are most library (xxxx) the students. (xxxx). Besides that, there are
 28 most library can improve the students' (x). But this case it can depend on the service and
 29 the students who want to use the library with the librarian. We said that the library is one
 30 of parts that increase national education in our country. So our group conclude that the
 31 library is very important. Er, and then the library itself, especially STKIP Library, maybe
 32 we need increase the- what is- the method or we organise about the method and that we
 33 the students will borrow about the book. And then maybe the library is very important for
 34 our ability, especially in English. Maybe we must using about the library itself. Maybe
 35 there is- my friends (*to Group A*) can give questions or suggestions about the library itself,
 36 and maybe can you explanation [abut organising] the library itself.
 37 T Yes (*nods and turns to Group A*).
 38 F7 If we want to use the library at STKIP Gorontalo (...) I- we have to know to use the card
 39 catalogue. In the card catalogue, we can read er the card number of book, title of book,
 40 author of book and (xx) (.....).
 41 M8 Okay (*turns to F8*), maybe the other, please?
 42 F8 Thanks, the library, if the students how to use the catalogue itself, (xx) and how to find
 43 the book (.....) and other materials.
 44 M8 Yeah, the other?
 45 M7 (xx) if we visit the library we have card, after that if we want to enter the library, in the

- 46 library we must keep silent (.....).
- 47 M8 Okay, thank you. Let me er (...) give comment what you said that the library is very
48 important. But what you said that the way in using the catalogue card, but the other
49 example, maybe the way of we when visit the library. So, we disturb the reader, some
50 reader at the library. Yeah, and then, maybe according to me, the library itself er maybe,
60 especially STKIP, library can be changed about the method the students who borrow the
61 books. One method if maybe there's some servicer* and the students give opportunity to
62 looking for the book, so some servicer* er- keeper- as a keeper in the door- some as
63 servicer* as a keeper in the door. So the students give opportunity, students give
64 opportunity to looking for the book. So what is they need for the book. SO some
65 servicer* keep, as a keeper in the door. So when they are outside- get out of the library,
66 so some servicer* ask them, some servicer*ask them, "Where are you- where are your er
67 card? So maybe, if the students there's no card, so they- some keeper in the door, so
68 maybe to give some punish to them. Yeah, maybe the other speaker? (.....)
- 69 F6 (xxxx).
- 70 F8 The library in STKIP Gorontalo isn't satisfied the students.
- 71 S Yes.
- 72 F8 Why, because if the students want to read or borrow book, they cannot take it by
73 themselves, but they must to ask the librarian, but (...) they must ask the librarian who
74 sometimes doesn't serve too familiar. But my opinion the students must to serve
75 themselves, what they need (.....)
- 76 M8 Okay.
- 77 T The STKIP Gorontalo library not make satisfy for the students, so all they (xx) the
78 management of the library not good- is not good. SO you can start from the, maybe, good
79 one, how is the good one, yeah. Comment? (*turns to Group A and looks at his watch*).
80 You still have time for making comments (.....)
- 81 M8 Serve for the students itself I think if like that we must change the way of when the
82 students serve. When the servicer* serve the students itself, they must be changed. So
83 maybe, the one way to do this, the students give opportunity to looking for what they
84 need, the books, what they need, what is they want read or want to borrow that book,
85 maybe the servicer* of the library of STKIP Gorontalo can give chance or opportunity for
86 the students. That's right, based on our experience I think that's right to say it. (...) But
87 in the library, the topics, when we looking for when we look for the topics itself- what we
88 what we want the topic of the books. Maybe sometimes we sometimes administration, for
89 the administration itself. (.....) But maybe we must simple about the administration of
90 library of STKIP Gorontalo. Could you overcome or give some suggestions to overcome
91 that problem?
- 92 T Yeah, pay attention here. I would like to tell you, whenever you are going to discuss you
93 must open your insight. You know insight?
- 94 SS Yeah.
- 95 T Yeah. How can you make your insight large? Don't make your insight narrow. So I give
97 an analogy, when come into the room, don't just sit in chair, right? But you can see the
98 windows, er the sken (*scene?*) of this room, whether it's (x), the lamp in place, correct,
99 right? Do you understand me? Like when you are going to solve problems, don't just
100 [count] one skill, yeah. So whenever [you just count one] it means that whenever (xxx),
101 only once. We don't want any more comment er (x), because it's quite narrow thinking
102 (.....). For example, when you think library, you are going to start from where to think
103 about library, whether from the management, the function, the material, and the function.
104 All right? It seems that talking library today is not quite interesting, right? It seems to this
105 class. Why I said that? Because many participants don't- not pay attention seriously
106 talking about library. So I assume that perhaps, yeah, many of the students here don't like
107 enter the library. That is my conclusion.
- 108 SS Yeah//No, no//No, Sir.
- 109 T Why I said that? Because you don't pay attention this problem. Yeah, that is my
110 assumption. Whether it is right or not, should be made research. Yeah, form overview- my
111 overview, it seems that reading is not your hobby (.....). Is that right?
- 112 SS Yeah//No.
- 113 F Some people like (*almost like whispering*).
- 114 T It should be counter (xxx) not. The next is there are several questions you answer
115 whenever I give you chance to speak. Number 1, answer first how to- whether the

- 116 management of STKIP Library make the students satisfied. Make argument about this.
 117 The second is think about the ideal library- the ideal library. The next, state your attitude
 118 whether you like STKIP Library organisation or management. State you attitude. You
 119 know attitude?
 120 SS Yeah, 'sikap.'
 121 T Yeah. You don't like, give your reason, you do like it, give your reason. Yeah, right? And
 122 the next question, whenever you don't like, because the organisation or the management
 123 of that library not make you satisfied, so you can- what, I am going to do it, right? How to
 124 vercome the library, whether through your activities, through your- what is- efforts,
 125 whether you don't just say I don't like it and then you keep silent. Yeah, or you have
 126 efforts to overcome this. What are you going to overcome this as a student? Right? There
 127 are five points you start to answer, whenever I give you chance to speak. Have you
 128 written down or do you remember all the question? Do you remember? (*turns to one S in*
 129 *the audience*). Please repeat it. Do you mind stand up in front of your friend?
 130 MS1 Okay, thank you. We know that the library is- facilitate the students =
 131 T =I mean you repeat = what I said to them.
 132 SS =Yeah, repeat =
 133 MS1 So we know that the library don't make the students interest, so the student will overcome
 134 in the library, in the =
 135 T = You just repeat what I want to do- what they want to do.
 136 F Repeat! (*MS1 doesn't know what to say*).
 137 T You forgot what I said? (*MS1 nods*).
 138 F Yeah.
 139 T It means that you don't concern about this. Er, who wants to repeat it? (*MS2 raises his*
 140 *hand*). Yes, come here, please, so all your friend will saw you to speak. (*MS2 comes*
 141 *forward*).
 142 T You can write the main points (*to all SS*).
 143 MS2 The question about the library, first, how to manage the students in library satisfactory.
 144 The second what about. state attitude student to like the library.
 145 T Only two?
 146 MS2 Yeah, yes (*smiles*).
 147 T Who can catch all my views? (*MS3 raises his hand*). State your attitude. Okay. Do you
 148 remember all this? Er, now, next, your question, I would like add. How many percent,
 149 how many frequency enter the library in one week?
 150 M Yes.
 151 T One- once, two or =
 152 F = Twice =
 153 T = Twice or three times in a week. Okay? State this, so whenever I give you chance , start
 154 from here (.....) from these. Come on, write down. Do you understand my instruction?
 155 How many frequency to enter the STKIP Library in a week? If you never, yeah, state
 156 never (*SS laugh*). Okay, so whenever I give you chance to speak (xxx) =
 157 (xxx).
 158 T Yeah, okay? Finish? In a month- in a month. Okay. So first, in a week, second is in a
 159 month. (*Long pause*).

There was a short discussion on the answers that I did not record.

- 160 T Make comment about this. Group 1, where is Group 1. Please, [M4]. Yeah, make
 161 comment about this.
 162 M4 First, I want to see (xxx)

I did not record M4's comments in full. When M4 finished his turn, the teacher asked another student, M3, to say respond to M4's comments.

- 163 M3 (xxx) the students to enter the library.
 164 T Why? You forget it. You don't follow this discussion. Okay? There's your weaknesses,
 165 yes. Why? Because you don't follow the sequence. Okay. So, you lost steps and steps in
 166 the one class, right? I'll start from you (*turns to F4*).
 167 F4 (*Comes forward and faces the audience*) (xxx) [when they] go to the library, the student

- 168 remember the attitude of the librarian, and the second is there is not (*asks for help*)
 169 'kebebasan, apa?
 170 SS Freedom.
 171 F4 Freedom for the students to choose the book by his- her- himself* (*smiles*). And I think
 172 that's all (*goes back to her seat*).
 173 T No, wait. I want to ask you something.
 174 F4 (*Comes back to the front*) Oh, my God .
 175 T Er, you said that because of the librarians' attitudes so many students don't like come to
 176 [the library]?
 177 SS ►Yeah.
 178 T (*To F4*) So do you have a view about the librarian? What they should do?
 179 F4 My view about the librarian, they must familiar to the student, and I think there are some
 180 school about the librarian. I think every librarian- they must er (...) enter that school so
 181 they know how to manage the library, how to serve the student =
 182 T = Yes. Do you mean that's especially for librarian?
 183 F4 Yeah.
 184 T Okay. So the librarian should be friendship? Yeah.
 185 SS Yeah, friendship.
 186 T So whenever students come there, the library, yeah, the students find difficulties to find
 187 the books, yeah, of course, the librarian should ask, "Can I help you?"
 188 SS Yeah.
 189 T Or "What do you need?" And something like that.
 190 SS Yeah.
 191 T Yeah, is it right?
 192 SS Yeah.
 193 T Yeah, of course. Yeah, the librarian should make the students happy to learn in the library.
 194 Okay, something like that. Okay? Um, what is your attitude? You don't like it? Sometimes
 195 you visit over there and read anything, and something like that. Another- another =
 196 MS3 (*Raises his hand*) About the librarian, they are- is very overacting, and (*SS laugh*) =
 197 F1 'Ya, betul.' Why not?
 198 MS3 And I'll never. I'll never- I don't have the library card, because I don't like the librarian. (*T*
 199 & *SS laugh*). That's it.
 200 T The librarian (xx) from your ability.
 201 MS3 Er, I think, since the Semester 1, until Semester 4, I have the =
 202 T = So, I wonder whenever you finish study, you never enter the library. It means that your
 203 time for reading span is low. Yes?
 204 MS3 I- er, for example, I have the homework, I can just borrow all of the book from my
 205 friend.
 206 T No solution to overcome this. So perhaps, yeah, you send complaint letter for the
 207 Chairman of Library and then- or the Chairman of STKIP Gorontalo. (*SS laugh*). Okay
 208 (*turns to M3 for his comments*).
 209 M3 Let me give a suggestion. We know in our campus, this college, er (xx) make many
 210 seminar in our college, but um like we- our problem now- about librarian, it's never held
 211 in our college. It's better than um calling my lecturer give a suggestion maybe to tell to
 212 our Chairman to hold a seminar of our discussion now. And in the seminar will follow by
 213 the students, maybe the librarians, and the staff of STKIP. And our problem maybe can-
 214 what, tell or told to the librarian or chairman of STKIP about their serving or management
 215 of our library. And how to make a suggestion this maybe by our lecturer or by ourselves
 216 (*smiles*). What's good, ourselves or? (*points to T and smiles; SS laugh*).
 217 I don't know.
 218 M3 It's better by our lecturer to give the suggestion to the Chairman and Program Study.
 219 T Yeah.
-
- 220 MS2 (xx) The English book, sometimes just education or talk about biology or the other.
 221 T Yes. Okay, that's the problem. If you never try to overcome this, especially to improve
 222 your ability as an English student, yes, so we are- we wonder about your quality. So what
 223 are we going to do about this? Yeah, perhaps, you can overcome by yourselves, by- for
 224 example- or you ask your lecturers- English lecturer about the book, yeah, and you can
 225 copy. Like 'Pak Chairil' (*referring to Observer*) now, from Australia. So of course you
 226

- 227 can ask.
- 228 M8 (*Raises his hand*) I just like to comment about the lecturer said just now, if- how to
 229 manage or to make the students satisfied when they visit the library. Maybe the first way is
 230 we give the opportunity for the students to looking for the books, the opportunity for the
 231 students to looking for the books.
- 232 T Yeah.
- 233 M8 And then the second is if the students lost their card, maybe the students or the server of
 234 the library give the opportunity to borrow books or what they need. Maybe they (xxx) in
 235 consolidation with the librarian. The second, the students must be (xx) put the rule- the
 236 rule of the library itself. But the students also, the students also, maybe make pay attention
 237 to the rule, or be ruled.
- 238 T Er, this topic should be interesting to discuss because library is part of your life.
 239 Whenever you never come to the library of course you lack knowledge, you lack
 240 knowledge, because the activity of the students. And one more should be stated here that
 241 library not only to read there but also the function is entertainment. You know
 242 entertainment?
- 243 SS Yeah.
- 244 T Yeah, to read the newspaper and perhaps make (x)., and something like that. And modern
 245 library, sometimes we just hear television or video and something like that. But one thing
 246 should be keep here, don't disturb another readers in the library. So must understand the
 247 relationship. Okay, thank you. Especially for next presenter, should be ready. Who's the
 248 net presenter? What topic you are going to talk?
- 249 SS Education.
- 250 T Education. Put one theorist about education and then whenever I give you turn, present
 251 that theory and make comment about that, whether psychological education or (xx);
 252 depend on the (xx) of the presenter or the speakers. Okay? I think that's all for this
 253 meeting. Thank you very much.

AMENDMENTS

Key: ln = line(s), no = number, par = paragraph, p = page, pp = pages, st = sentence(s)

Section	Error	Correction/Addition/ Explanation
<p><i>Chapter 1</i> p1, par2, ln5 p3, par1, ln2 p4, par2, ln3 p7, 1.1.2. p8, 1.1.4., par1 p9, 1.2., ln2</p>	<p>“a non-threatening teacher-student relationships” “which, according to Wright (1987),” “thes” “The study is aimed at comparing and contrasting” <i>no full stop at end of paragraph</i> “the aspects TSPR”</p>	<p>“a non-threatening teacher-student relationship” “which according to Wright (1987),” “these” “The aim of the study is to compare and contrast” <i>add full stop at end of paragraph</i> “the aspects of TSPR”</p>
<p><i>Chapter 2</i> p14, par1, ln8 p17, 2.2.1., par2, ln2 p20, par2, st2 p20, par2, ln4-5 p20, 2.2.2.4., ln2 p22, par3, 3rd to last line p28, par2, ln8 p29, 2nd to last line</p>	<p>“inadequately available” “of TSPR to using a functional metaphor” “--who had literally paid....for the courses--whose needs...must be met and guaranteed” “best friends--a concept which” “a stint teaching post at STKIP” “Manke (1977)” “practice” “they can assume when affecting all of them”</p>	<p>“largely unavailable” “of TSPR by using a functional metaphor” “--who had literally paid.....for the courses and whose needs....must be met and guaranteed” “best friends. This is a concept which” “a stint teaching English at STKIP” “Manke (1997)” (<i>This applies throughout the thesis.</i>) “practise” “they can have when assuming all of them”</p>
<p><i>Chapter 3</i> p45, 3rd to last line p51, Table 3.2, left cell no.2 p51, Table 3.2, right cell no. 2 p54, 2nd dot point, ln2 p56, 2nd to last line</p>	<p>“Tompson’s” “Based on what knowledge is ‘indispensable’ S -- native speaker as a standard” “Based on ‘final behaviour’ aimed at to” “are <i>willing</i> and <i>capable</i> of assuming” “(p. 99)”</p>	<p>“Thompson’s” “Based on what knowledge is ‘indispensable’ to S -- native speaker as a standard” “Based on ‘final behaviour’ aimed at” “are <i>willing</i> to assume and <i>capable</i> of assuming” “(in Marjoribanks 1991: 99)”</p>
<p><i>Chapter 4</i> p69, 4.2.1., st1, ln2</p>	<p>“for over twenty years”</p>	<p>“for about nine years”</p>

p70, 4.2.1.2, heading p72, 4.2.1.3., d	“General Courses at CALUSA” “TESOL Studies were for both Australian and overseas individuals ... speakers of other languages.”	“English Language Programs at CALUSA” “TESOL Studies were for both Australian and overseas individuals ... speakers of other languages. These continue, as part of the Division of Education, Arts, and Social Sciences at the University of South Australia, at the Underdale Campus.”
p75, par1, last st.	“This is still considered ... belong to the same department.”	<i>This last sentence should be omitted.</i>
Chapter 5 p91, 5.2.3., par2,	“measuring”	“observing”
Chapter 6 p104, 6.4.3., par2, ln2 p105, dot point, par2, ln6	“selected important parts” “perform language proficiency... as actively as possible”	<i>These are parts of the lesson in which the participants interacted verbally. They were selected for further analysis.</i> “use the target language actively in classroom interactions”
Chapter 7 p125, par4, ln6 p129, no2, st2 p130, par3 p134, 7.4., 2nd dot point, st2	“five weeks (which constitutes a term)” “(These were...in late 1980’s.)” <i>This sentence paragraph is in brackets, before the heading IQN 4-5: The ‘SCL Approach’.</i> “how importance”	<i>This information was given by the teacher during the interview.</i> “(These were...in late 1980’s.)” <i>This sentence paragraph should not be in brackets and should appear immediately after the heading IQN 4-5. The ‘SCL Approach’.</i> “how important”
Chapter 8 p140 p158, QIN 21, last st.	“classes” “greater age different at CALUSA”	“Classes” here refer specifically to groups of students being taught together for a certain period of time. “greater age difference at CALUSA”
Chapter 9 p176, ln1	“an a 10,000-word thesis”	“a 10,000-word thesis”
Chapter 11 p235, par2, last st.	“to a some extent”	“to some extent”